







BLAIR'S CYCLOPÆDIA OF AUSTRALASIA.

Cyclopædia of Australasia;

OR,

DICTIONARY OF FACTS, EVENTS, DATES, PERSONS, AND PLACES

CONNECTED WITH THE

DISCOVERY, EXPLORATION, AND PROGRESS OF THE BRITISH DOMINIONS
IN THE SOUTH.

FROM THE

EARLIEST DAWN OF DISCOVERY IN THE SOUTHERN OCEAN
TO THE YEAR 1881.

BY

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IN ONE VOLUME.

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I DEDICATE AFFECTIONATELY

THIS "CYCLOPEDIA OF AUSTRALASIA,"

TO THE

TWO NOBLEST PERSONS AND THE TWO BEST FRIENDS

I HAVE EVER KNOWN:

A. M. B.

AND HER BROTHER,

E. C. G.

DAVID BLAIR.

STANLEY STREET, WEST MELBOURNE.
30th August, 1881.

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INTRODUCTION.

1. The present volume is the result of many years of diligent labour, and is the first attempt that has yet been made to systematise the entire range of facts bearing on the past history and present condition of the British possessions in the Southern Ocean.

2. In the prosecution of his duties as a Victorian journalist, during the past thirty years, the compiler has felt, almost hourly, the necessity of a work of this kind. The information he required was, he found, either not accessible at all, or it was scattered over a large mass of fugitive—and for the most part worthless—publications. The compilation of a “Cyclopædia of Australasia,” therefore, occurred to him at a very early date as a task to be undertaken when the fitting time should arrive. The year that witnessed the two Grand International Exhibitions at Sydney and Melbourne distinctly marked that period. Australasia, for the first time, took its rightful place amongst the world’s great dominions. Up till that time it was generally regarded as nothing more than a group of detached settlements belonging to Great Britain, situated “at the antipodes,” quite destitute of any distinctive history, and not of any great interest or importance in the eyes of foreign nations. And in this injurious estimate of their magnificent territory Australians themselves were only too willing to acquiesce.

3. The bulk of the adult population in all the colonies, excepting New South Wales, was up till a very recent period composed of immigrant adventurers, who had come hither to better their fortunes, but *not* with the fixed intention of becoming Australian citizens. They clung to the conviction that they still belonged to “the old country,” which was always their “home,” and that they were merely temporary sojourners here, whose chief object in life was to return and settle down in their native land. There was an unwillingness to admit that they were permanent residents here, or should ever become such, and an impatience of all solicitation to take an active personal interest in the history and concerns of Australasia. There was even, in some cases, a positive determination to remain ignorant of everything relating to this part of the world, beyond the limited range of knowledge needful to carry on commercial or other business transactions. These feelings still linger in the breasts of some of the older generation of colonists, and many amusing instances might be cited by the present compiler. The result is a general unacquaintance with the past history and present condition of the land they live in, which is certainly not creditable to the Australians as a people.

4. But, in the meantime, a new generation has sprung into existence, and the effects of this indifference of the fathers are being witnessed in the children. The sentiment of patriotism has not yet been kindled in their breasts. They have no noble pride in the land of their birth. They speak, as their elders do, of the “old country” as their “home.” They affect rather to despise their native land. They cherish a dim conviction that they, too, will some day leave Australia altogether, and go to Europe “with a fortune.” They

mentally associate the idea of all that is worth living for with a residence in London or one of the other great European cities ; this fresh, splendid, and bountiful new land not counting for anything at all in their estimation. On the other hand, their minds are of necessity destitute of all those fine associations which are, so to speak, born with every English boy. What can result from a mental condition so defective, on both its positive and negative sides, but a type of character blankly commonplace, wanting in all noble enthusiasm, empty of everything that gives dignity and innate nobleness to the human being?

5. The evil is intensified by the kind of instruction given to the young Australians, both in the elementary and the higher schools. They are not taught as Australians at all, but as foreigners. English books, English lessons, English methods of study are those alone in use. Up till a very recent period the children in the State-schools, indeed, were assumed to be Irish peasant children, living amongst the bogs, and fed upon potatoes and milk! That is to say, such were the assumptions tacitly made in the very books the children were taught from, beginning with the lessons in words of one syllable. The sole reason for this preposterous inversion of common sense in elementary education was the beggarly plea, that the Irish National School-books were the cheapest that could be procured! And when the present writer took in hand the task to remonstrate publicly against the absurdity, he awakened keenly resentful feelings in the breasts of both governing persons and booksellers. Some reform has been introduced in respect of the school-books, as the consequence of that remonstrance; but the fitting books have not yet been placed in the hands of the pupils. They are still English books, written from the point of view of the antipodes, and are therefore swarming with errors in Geography, Natural History, the course of the Seasons, General History, and even Astronomy. Errors of a kind, moreover, that permanently affect the growth of intelligence in the child. In afterlife he has to unlearn or revise all that was taught him in youth. He has to learn that he was *not* born, and does *not* live, in a little Island in the Northern Sea; that June is *not* the month of bright and flowery summer, and December the month of chilling ice and snow; that Asia does *not* lie to the eastward; that "the Continent" is *not* divided from the land he lives in by a narrow "strip of silver sea;" that France does *not* lie just across the narrow channel to the southward; that the Great Bear and the Aurora Borealis are *not* visible at certain seasons of the year; and in a word, that he is in Australia, not in Europe. One would suppose that this false teaching would be most carefully kept from the children, and that accurate conceptions of their real place on the globe, and of the relations of their native land to the rest of the world, would be impressed with equal care upon their minds. But the plea is at once put in bar of such a suggestion that the books in use are cheap! A few pence of difference in the price of a dozen copies is apparently the sole consideration that comes home to the intelligence of governing persons in Australia. Any proposal to put Australian school-books into the hands of Australian children would probably be resented as an impertinence. At all events, such is the experience of the present writer. A very painstaking attempt to compile and bring into use a set of Australian school-books was baffled by the action of the "authorities" in more than one of these colonies. The new books, it was objected, would cost a few pence more per dozen copies than some Scotch publishing firm could supply Scotch school-books for, in quantities!

6. Nor is there any improvement in this regard in the instruction imparted to the scholars in the higher schools. From first to last the whole routine is foreign. The pupils are painfully drilled in the geography—even in the minute topography—of ancient Greece and Rome; but they are not taught anything at all about Australia. It is held to be of the last importance to their mental culture that they should know all about the internal quarrels of the Greek republics two thousand years ago, and all about the mutual rivalries

and wars of the Romans and Carthaginians of about the same date ; but it is held to be a matter of perfect indifference that they shall be allowed to grow up in blank ignorance of every fact relating to the discovery, progressive settlement, and history of the land of their birth. To know every particular of the founding of Rome, and to be able to discriminate minutely between the legendary and the actual—the historical and the unhistorical—elements in the story told by the Roman annalists, is held to be essential ; but the Australian boy is not required, nor even expected, to know anything about Cook's discoveries, or Flinders' heroic adventures, or Sturt's explorations, or the melancholy fate of Burke and Wills, or of the rise into independence of the colony of Victoria, or of the natural history and physical characteristics of this continent. The antiquated scholastic superstition, moreover, is still cherished in our Grammar Schools and Universities, that there are lessons of profound political wisdom to be learned by Australian boys from the history of the old Greeks and Romans. Now, it is allowable for the young Englishmen pursuing their studies at Oxford or Cambridge to hold that conviction ; but it is even ludicrously inapplicable in a country where both the natural and political conditions are as unlike those of ancient Greece and Rome as an Australian summer is unlike an English winter. Richard Cobden once stated his conviction that there was, for an English boy of the present day, more solid teaching in a single number of the *Times* than in all the writings of Thucydides. It is even truer to assert that the value of the present volume to any Australian boy infinitely outweighs that of the entire mass of the writings of all the Greek historians, from Herodotus to Grote ; and of the entire line of Roman historians, from Livy to Mommsen. Even in English history there is no true teaching for Australian boys. He sees nothing in the human life around him at all corresponding with what he reads in Green and Froude and Macaulay. The story of the Great American Republic is vastly more to the purpose for him. It would be, in truth, much better teaching for him to learn his English history from Shakespeare and Scott than from the standard historians. What conceivable lesson can the boy draw from the narrative of the Wars of the Roses, for example, however brilliantly written ? What imaginable bearing on the condition of things around him has the history of the Plantagenets, or the fortunes of the Stuarts, or the characters of the Four Georges ? All these things are, and must always be, for the Australian boy, matters of pure romance. To speak to him gravely of the "lessons of history" he is to find in them is merely to repeat an antiquated and, for him, meaningless traditional formula. Born the simple citizen of a primitive democracy, into which no element of aristocratic dominancy can ever enter, what can he understand about the Feudal system, which even now prevails—at least in form—in England ? As reasonably expect the Australian boy to apprehend keenly the existence of the political state of things existing in Russia, as bearing on that of the people he lives amongst. The whole system of teaching, in fine, both primary and superior, is based upon a thoroughly false conception. It is purely traditional, not fresh and original as it ought to be, and as it must become in time. The present writer is fully aware that in giving expression to these daring sentiments he is exposing himself to very grave reprehension from the scholastic "authorities" in Australia. Be it so ! But he is in the right for all that ; and the time is close at hand when universal acknowledgment will be made that he is so.

7. Nor is the intellectual misleading and mental confusion to which the young Australians are subjected at school the sole evil arising from the wrong system pursued. The historical lessons, and even the lessons in social and political economy, impressed on their youthful minds are of a kind that is calculated to produce very serious social and political evils in the future. For, ignoring altogether the equality of social and political conditions which, of necessity, exist in their native land, their minds are filled with ideas of the strife of classes in society ; of the rich oppressing the poor, and the poor hating the rich ;

of the "proud nobility" and the "humbler orders" of society; of the "upper classes," the "middle classes," the "lower classes," and all the customary cant expressive of inequality of conditions, indefinitely extending through society; of the mutual struggles of capital and labour; of the wide gulf separating the wealthy employer from his impoverished workmen; and of the impassable distance between the titled landowner and the tenant farmers and labourers on his estate. No doubt the young Australian ought to be taught that all these distinctions and facts of society prevail in other countries; but it ought at the same time to be carefully pointed out to him that nothing of all this applies to the land of his birth, and probably never will apply. From the very first it ought to be impressed on his mind that there is no *real* distinction between rich and poor in this country; that the road to wealth and influence is open alike to all; and that every expression, either in word or in act, of enmity against *any* section of his fellow-citizens is to the last degree unpatriotic and wicked.

8. Such, then, are the principles upon which this volume has been compiled. It is designed, first, to supply a manifest want. Secondly, to place the Australasian colonies in their proper aspect before the world. Thirdly, to make the Australasian people acquainted with the land they live in and possess. Fourthly, to foster in them a spirit of patriotic pride in their glorious country. Fifthly, to aid in revolutionising the whole system of teaching as at present conducted in Australian schools and colleges.

9. The volume has been compiled with infinite pains and care. The writer has been particularly careful in the matter of historical facts and dates. The printing of the volume was commenced in 1879, and the information given in the latter part of it extends to August, 1881. With this explanation made, the author may add that he is not aware of a single error in the volume. He will feel under an obligation to any reader who will be good enough to point out to him any inaccuracy that may be detected, in order that it may be corrected in a future edition.

10. With the object of saving space, all honorary titles have been omitted in the biographical articles. It is meaninglessly monotonous to repeat "Mr." and "Esq." times without number.

11. The biographical articles are, as a rule, written in a tone of dispassionate impartiality. Judicial estimates of character are rarely given. There is not a single statement in the volume calculated to give reasonable cause of offence to a single human being.

12. All purely domestic details in the lives of the persons noted are suppressed, as being of no imaginable interest to the world at large. There would be an element of the burlesque in minutely repeating the family register of a man whose sole claim to celebrity is that he was an explorer, a Minister of the Crown for a short time, a successful wool-grower, or a famous cultivator of the vine.

13. To avoid the constant repetition of the names of the several colonies, they are usually indicated by the initials:—N.S.W., V., S.A., Q., W.A., N.Z., and T., respectively meaning New South Wales, Victoria, South Australia, Queensland, Western Australia, New Zealand and Tasmania.

14. The dates following the name of a person indicate the year of birth and death, or of the former only, as the case may be.

15. The volume is a compilation, but a compilation equal in all respects to original composition. Not a line of it has escaped careful revision and verification, sometimes repeated again and again.

16. To enumerate the author's sources of information would be to transcribe the entire Australasian Library. The essence of all that has ever been printed about the Australasian colonies is enclosed within the covers of this volume. The expenditure of £1000 on books, and years of research, would scarcely be adequate to collect the information it contains. In some few cases of direct quotation the sources are acknowledged. But it may here be added that special use has been made of Wallace's *Australasia*, Gordon and Gotch's *Handbook* (for statistics and topographical details,) the Government Handbooks of the various colonies, and the *Argus* newspaper.

17. The CYCLOPÆDIA OF AUSTRALASIA thus supersedes and renders obsolete all previous books upon the British dominions in the South. It is a complete Australasian Library in itself. It cannot itself be superseded by process of time, since the historical information it contains is of permanent value, and the current (mostly statistical) information can be readily brought up to date at any time with a pen by the possessor of the volume.

18. The book will, in no case, neither now nor at any future time, be sold in the ordinary way. Its value, in mere money, is at least one-half greater than the price charged for it, since nothing is charged for wholesale and retail bookselling profits. A small margin between the actual cost of production and the price charged leaves a profit with which the author is contented. The possessor of the volume may fairly assume that it will rise in value as time progresses. It never can become a second-hand book, since the only copies that go into circulation will be those supplied by the author himself. Not a single copy will be printed "on speculation;" neither will copies be gratuitously dispersed to the newspapers for review. Not indifferent to kindly encouragement, or to words of friendship, the author is utterly indifferent to critical opinion. The book, to the full extent that it sells, must sell itself.

19. It is an INDISPENSABLE BOOK in every public office, government department, public library, newspaper office, reading room, exchange, club, respectable hotel, bank, and counting-house, in the British dominions. All "grotesque geography," all ignorant misconceptions of the Australasian colonies and their people, all gross errors and blunders respecting this part of the world, become henceforth unpardonable. With this manual at hand the old ignorance becomes as disgraceful as voluntary illiteracy.

20. For the same reasons the book is indispensable in every AUSTRALASIAN HOUSEHOLD. The young Australian will find here, told in the simplest style, all that he can require to know respecting the splendid land he was born in, and of which *he* also is an heir. No better reading-book could be provided for the Australasian household. No more fitting present can a father make to his son or daughter on attaining the fourteenth birthday than a copy of this CYCLOPÆDIA. For every Australian lad and lass it is a possession for life.

21. The book, then, marks an epoch in the growth of these magnificent outposts of the British empire. With justifiable pride and pleasure the author offers it to, and commends it to the favour of, his Australian fellow-citizens.

22. No pecuniary profit he may gain from the book—and he owns that he anticipates a very extensive circulation for it all over the civilised world—will give him a tenth of the pleasure that the work of compiling it has afforded him. It is the last great task of his life; it was executed in the intervals of unusually busy years of journalistic work; and never, for one moment, did the task pall or grow repellent.

23. "The labour we delight in physics pain." The author has been for forty years an indefatigable and unwearying searcher after knowledge. He has now reached the last stage of his life; and he would snatch this opportunity of impressing on the minds of his

young Australian readers that, within his own experience, there are no earthly pleasures (apart from the exercise of the religious and the domestic affections) to be named in comparison with those of pure intellect. They are ever fresh, and never failing. The fountain springs as freely at sixty as it did at twenty. There are no dull hours, sense of loneliness, fretful anxieties, harassing cares—there is nothing but perennial and measureless delight—in assiduous intellectual culture. Neither wealth, nor fame, nor public honour, nor exalted station, nor success in one's pursuit in life, yields either in degree or in kind any pleasure comparable with the pleasures of the intellect.

24. Such is the author's final, and emphatic, personal testimony. He dismisses the task he has now completed with a fond reluctance. He bequeaths this volume as his legacy to THE PEOPLE OF AUSTRALASIA—THAT GLORIOUS INHERITANCE OF A YOUNG, VIGOROUS, AND NOBLE NATION, WHICH WILL ONE DAY RANK AMONGST THE MIGHTIEST OF THE WORLD'S STATES.

DAVID BLAIR.



CYCLOPÆDIA OF AUSTRALASIA.

A.

ABBOTT, MAJOR. In the year 1814, when the Crown erected a Supreme Court at Sydney for the decision of civil causes, Major Abbott, a member of the New South Wales Corps, was commissioned as Deputy Judge Advocate in Van Diemen's Land. He adjudicated in petty sessions as a magistrate, and by the accommodation of law to the circumstances of the Colony, dealt in a summary manner with capital offences where prisoners were concerned. This appointment terminated the absolute dependence on Port Jackson for judicial relief. It was not until 1816 that Abbott commenced operations. The accumulation of debts must have been great, for at his first session 1400 complaints were entered; nor did he exhaust the suitors by delay, for 1100 were disposed of that year. Abbott was a lover of fair play. He continued to preside as Deputy Judge Advocate until his office was abolished. After visiting England, he returned to Launceston with the appointment of Civil Commandant. He died in 1832. He was esteemed as a person of a generous nature and upright intentions. He entered the army at the age of thirteen, and was in the service of the Crown fifty-three years, forty-three of which were spent in the Colonies.

A'BECKETT, THOMAS TURNER (1808—), came to Victoria in 1851, where his brother was Chief Justice. In 1852 he was nominated to a seat in the first Legislative Council, and in 1857 was appointed Registrar of the Diocese of Melbourne for the Church of England. He was elected to the Upper House for the Central Province in 1858, and sat in it for twenty years. He was Commissioner of Customs in the McCulloch Ministry of 1870, and chairman of the Hobson's Bay Railway Company until it passed into the hands of the Government in 1879.

A'BECKETT, SIR WILLIAM (1806-1869,) first Chief Justice of Victoria, was called to the English Bar in 1829. Besides following the law, he cultivated literature, and either edited or wholly compiled two large biographical works, entitled "The Universal Biography" and "The Georgian Era." He came to New South Wales, and was appointed Solicitor-General in 1841, and made a Judge of the Supreme Court for the District of

Port Phillip in 1846. In 1851, when separation took place, he was appointed first Chief Justice of Victoria, and held this post till 1863, when he resigned on account of ill health, and went to Europe. During the leisure of his latter years he travelled much, and wrote some small works in prose and verse. A'Beckett was an able lawyer, and as judge was very much respected. He was brother to the celebrated journalist, comic writer, and police magistrate of London, Gilbert Abbot A'Beckett.

ABORIGINES. RACE.—The aboriginal inhabitants of Australia belong to the Ethiopic, which is the lowest family of the human race. They are ranked by ethnologists in the Papuan or Austral-Negro scale; but as forming a special type, distinguishable both from the Papuans and the Malays, and are decidedly inferior to the African negro in physical and mental attributes. Many writers, with great ingenuity, have attempted to trace the original colonisation of Australia to a horde of Malays passing over in canoes from the Indian Archipelago, across Torres Straits to the unknown Southern Land. The colour of the skin, however, the formation of the skull and the limbs, with the genius, the habits, and the general character of the Australians, most nearly identify them with the negro race of New Guinea. The weapons they employ are similar, and their progress in the industrial arts, as well as their mental qualities and conditions of existence, being infinitely lower than those of the Malay, and closely similar to those of the Papuans, destroy the theory of their Malay origin. Throughout the Continent the natives exhibit a general conformity to one pattern, as regards features, colour, and mental character. A man from the South would be recognised as an Australian by the natives on the North coast. The race, however, is not pure. There is an intermixture of blood by inter-marriages with the islanders of Torres' Straits and New Guinea. The true theory seems to be that the Australian is a separate branch of the Papuan race, with a large infusion of Papuan blood. Traditions they have few, and these but faint and incoherent. Wallace, however, holds them to be distinct from the Papuans, and, like the animal and vegetable productions of the Continent, to be the remnant of an ancient and peculiar race.

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS.—The native man of Australia is of a dark, sooty-brown complexion,

the colour of the skin varying in particular localities from a colour like that of chocolate to a deep earthy-black; with long black hair, and a stature rather below that of the European. The height of the males generally ranges between four and a-half and five and a-half feet; the head is small, the trunk slender, the breast commonly arched and well-developed, the arms and legs of a rounded and muscular form, the foot flat, and the heel somewhat protruding. The hair is generally black, rough, lank, and coarse, though with some tribes it is soft and curling, and with others approaches to a woolly texture, like that of the negro. The facial angle is ordinarily between 75° and 85°; the forehead low; the eyes large, far apart, and half-covered by the upper lid, the iris being invariably of a deep brown, the pupil large and of a jet black; the nose broad and flat, with wide-spread nostrils; the cheeks hollow; the mouth wide, with thick lips and white teeth, the lower jaw being unusually short and widely expanded anteriorly. Measured by a European standard of taste, the aborigines of Australia constitute, on the whole, a very ugly race, perhaps more unprepossessing in appearance than almost any other branch of the human family. Yet there are not a few exceptions to be taken to this judgment, in so far as some of the tribes are concerned, and especially in relation to those who have remained most free from the deteriorative influence of intercourse with the whites. The limbs of a well-formed Australian exhibit considerable symmetry, and a well-defined muscular development; his agility and flexibility of body, when running or otherwise actively engaged, are advantageously displayed; and when beheld in the posture of striking, or throwing his spear, his attitude leaves nothing to be desired in point of manly grace. He dislikes labour, and his muscles and hands are those of a hunter. He can endure fatigue, but will not bear burdens, dig laboriously, or suffer restraint.

MORAL CONDITION.—The natives of the Continent are almost universally sunk in the lowest and most degraded condition of barbarism; and though by no means devoid of intelligence, they have never made any effort to raise themselves above the rudest condition of natural life. In a few cases they are found clothed with opossum skins, or with coarse matting, and construct temporary huts of the branches and leaves of trees (*mia-mias*;) but in general they are entirely destitute of clothing. They have nowhere any fixed habitations, but wander along the coasts, or, in the interior, along the creeks and rivers in search of food; each tribe, however, confining its range within certain limits, and never transgressing—unless compelled by unusual circumstances—the bounds between itself and the neighbouring tribes. As a race, the Aborigine is a savage in the strongest sense of that term. Alike cruel and treacherous, he loses no occasion of wreaking his vengeance on an enemy, and indulges in the most bloodthirsty

propensities. The practice of cannibalism is general among the natives; for a long time this was doubted, but it has been proved, beyond the reach of question, and the practice is often found accompanied by the most revolting ferocity, as the sacrifice of an infant by its own mother for the mere pleasure of eating its flesh! The different tribes are always on hostile terms with one another, and any wanderer from his fellows is sure of meeting with death if he falls in with any party of natives. Their superstitions aid in the maintenance of this condition of hostility, since they believe that death never proceeds from natural causes, but always has its origin in some practice of witchcraft or sorcery on the part of an enemy, whose discovery they eagerly seek for the purpose of revenge. In some cases, the direction which the worms that first issue from the corrupting and putrifying corpse are observed to take, is held to be that in which the guilty person will be found, and the first native who is met with in the search has his life sacrificed by the relatives of the deceased. This, again, engenders a desire for retaliation, and thus a perpetual condition of warfare is maintained between the individuals of different tribes: the tendency is of course to keep down the numbers of each. The cruel treatment to which the women are subjected—they being regarded merely as the slaves of the stronger sex, to be used for the purpose of carrying burdens and performing all requisite labours of whatever kind, and to be rewarded only with blows, often consummated by having their brains beaten out with the native clubs, or *waddies*,—together with the not uncommon practice of infanticide, also assist in preventing the increase of the native population. Some of the tribes show a rude hospitality to strangers. They have also a crude notion of property. Murders are rare amongst them, and when they occur are punished. The native man is courageous in the presence of a mortal foe, but timid in the darkness; cruel to his enemies, but kind to his friends; affectionate to relatives, and dutiful in his behaviour to the aged; although reckless of infanticide, he will treat the children preserved affectionately; and whilst he half murders his wife to obtain her, he will love and protect her afterwards. His character, in a word, is strangely mixed, and is marked by both very bad and some good qualities.

SUPERSTITIONS.—The natives recognise a benignant Supreme Spirit, and a variety of evil spirits, especially one in the form of a gigantic serpent, invisible to mortal eyes, but resident in high and rocky mountains, with the worship of which mysterious rites are connected. When the winds groan over the hills and woods, they imagine it to be the voice of this monster, and illuminate the plain with fires, repeating magic spells to scare the evil one away. Notwithstanding this timidity, they are brave in battle, though trembling in the presence of death. A grave placed before the door of a hut is a perpetual

safeguard against thieves. The dwelling of a lonely settler was once attacked by natives, two of whom were slain. Their bodies were buried in front of the house, and the two low mounds, haunted with the idea of death, were more formidable than the loftiest walls. Some of the tribes enclose their dead in wrappings of leaves and bark, placing them amongst the branches of solitary trees, near which the vulture sits immovable, with drooping wings, waiting for the last covering to drop from the corpse. Others bury them; and of those who do so, some dig the grave so deep as to place the deceased standing up; others place them sitting with the head above the surface, but covered with earth. They carefully protect their graves with boughs from the depredations of wild animals; sometimes there are as many as a hundred graves in their cemeteries. Amongst the Wailwun tribe, a chief, or person regarded with much respect, is buried in a hollow tree, the body being enclosed in a sheet of bark. Affection sometimes induces their relatives to carry about the bones (after the flesh is gone) for a long time; it is no uncommon thing in a mother thus to carry the bones of her child for years. Sometimes a tribe devour the heart and liver of a chief, that they may inherit the virtues and courage for which he was distinguished. The fashion of their mourning is to plaster their heads and faces with white clay, and wound themselves with tomahawks till the blood pours forth, keeping up a great wailing the while. In Northern Australia they cut off the joint of one of their fingers as an expression of grief for the death of their children. The rite of circumcision is commonly practised, particularly around the Gulf of Carpentaria. The knocking out of the front tooth is most extensively practised. It appears to be performed on their entering into early manhood, though often when they are twelve or fourteen years of age, and consists in extracting the front tooth from the upper jaw. The patient has often to undergo the greatest agony, and to eat the most vile and disgusting food for several days. Sturt relates that he met with a tribe in Central Australia, who had an intimate knowledge of freemasonry, and gave the signs only known to the mystic brotherhood. (For a description of a curious religious rite, named "Bora," see that article.)

WEAPONS AND IMPLEMENTS.—In many places a log of wood, or a wide slip of bark tied at either end, and stuffed with clay, is the only mode invented for crossing a river or arm of the sea; while in other parts, a large tree, roughly hollowed by fire, forms the canoe. The nearest approximation to ingenuity is the fishing net, prepared by the women from fibres of grassy filaments. Their only cutting implements are made of stone, sometimes of jasper, fastened between a cleft stick with a hard gum. Their arms of offence or defence consist of the spear, boomerang, several kinds of waddies or nullah-nullah, a small stone tomahawk, and bark shield; no bows and arrows have ever

been seen among them. The spear is about ten feet long, as thick as a man's finger, tapering to a point, sometimes jagged or barbed, and hardened in the fire; this they can throw from fifty to sixty yards with great precision, the impetus being greatly increased by the use of the womera or throwing-stick, which is a piece of wood from two to three feet in length, about three inches broad at one end, and going off to a point at the other, to which a sort of hook is fastened; the hook is inserted into a small hole at the extremity of the spear, and the womera being grasped at the broad part, acts somewhat on the principle of the sling, enabling a powerful man to send the spear above a hundred yards. The boomerang is a still more curious instrument. (See **BOOMERANG**.) The waddie and nullah-nullah are clubs of different sizes and solidity; the tomahawk is a piece of sharpened stone, frequently quartz, fixed in a cleft stick with gum; with this they cut notches in the trees, and ascend them to the height of sixty feet, though without a branch, and far too thick to be grasped.

SOCIAL CUSTOMS.—Their form of government is patriarchal; each tribe consists of thirty to fifty men, women, and children (sometimes more,) and has its own territory of about twenty or thirty square miles, on which no other tribe is permitted to encroach. It is probable that trespassing on each others grounds is one of the main causes of their frequent quarrels, war being the occupation in which they seem to delight most. Polygamy is practised. Women are treated in the most inhuman manner, wives being procured from adjacent tribes by stealing on the encampment during the night, beating a young girl on the head till she falls senseless, when her future spouse drags her off through the bushes, as a tiger would his prey. When going to war, or grieving for a deceased friend, or occasionally even for ornament, white and yellow pigments are applied in streaks over the whole body, according to the taste of the decorator—such as a large white circle round each eye, waving lines down and across the thighs and legs. In general, it may be said that the whole of the aborigines are of the same stock, though it is not a little singular that their languages differ so much that tribes within short distances of each other, unless inhabiting the bank of the same river, are quite strangers to each other, whilst almost every large community, or family as they may be termed, has its own peculiar dialect. Three ranks of society prevail—the young men, the warriors, and the aged. Many of the tribes, perhaps all, have strict rules as to marriage, founded on a system of giving certain distinctive names to all children according to their parentage. The rules are numerous, but a few words may give a general idea of them. The mother's name determines that of her children. Thus all the sons of Kubbetha are Kumbo, and all the daughters are Butha. A Kumbo may have one or two other names; but every son of a woman called Kubbotha is named Kumbo. So the sons of a woman named

Ippatha are all Kubbi, and her daughters are all Kubbotha. In some parts four names of men and four names of women comprehend a whole community, every one of the tribe having one of these names; in some parts there are more names, some less. The names belong to them from birth. They do not take the same names as their parents; but the mother's name fixes those of her children. The whole tribe being thus named by an inflexible rule, a law of marriage is founded upon the names. Thus Kumbo is to take his wife, or wives, from among women bearing the name of Matha; Kubbi has his choice of the Ippatha; and Ippai (brother of Ippatha,) is free to take any Kubbotha (sister of Kubbi.) The rule prevents a man from taking to wife a sister, half-sister, niece, or aunt, and also prevents the intermarriage of first cousins, when they are the children of two brothers or of two sisters. It is possible under this rule for a man to marry the daughter of his father's sister or the daughter of his mother's brother; but not lawful for a man to marry the daughter of his father's brother or of his mother's sister.

NUMBERS.—Phillip estimated their numbers on the Eastern coast at 1,000,000 in 1788; but this must have been a mere random guess. Wallace states that the highest estimate of their numbers ever made did not exceed 150,000; and that about 70,000 or 80,000 of them still survive. Mitchell estimated those in Australia Felix (V.) at less than 6000. Parker, aboriginal protector, in 1843, thought that there were probably 7500. In 1851 the official census for Victoria gave only 2693. In 1863, the return was 1908; in 1869, it was 1834; and in 1876 there were 500 natives at the various protective stations, with, perhaps, 1000 others scattered over the territory. In S.A., in 1876, there were 3953 natives. From N.S.W. there is no return of the numbers, nor from Queensland. The only fact certain about the aboriginal race is that it is rapidly disappearing before the march of the white population.

LANGUAGES.—Their dialects appear to be almost as numerous as the tribes; different tribes within a very short distance apart having been found to be wholly unintelligible to each other. Several missionaries and others have made studies, and published grammars of some of the languages. The Rev. L. E. Threlkeld published, in 1834, a grammar and, in 1850, a key to the language of the Lower Hunter. The New South Wales Government printed and published in Sydney, in 1866 (second edition, 1875,) a work on the Kamilaroi and other Australian languages, by the Rev. William Ridley, containing illustrations of twenty different dialects, and a comprehensive grammar of Kamilaroi. The Rev. Mr. Taplin has also published some works on the native languages of South Australia. Brough Smyth, of Melbourne, and Mr. Curr, of Geelong, have compiled works of a comprehensive character on the languages of Australia; a publication of Mr. Curr on the subject appeared some years ago. The Rev.

Canon Gunther compiled a grammar and dictionary of the Wiradhuri language, which was sent to the Imperial Government, in manuscript, in compliance with a request from Professor Max Muller for information of this kind; a work of similar character, by the late Rev. Mr. Watson, a colleague in the mission of Mr. Gunther, was also sent. But the fullest account of the aboriginal languages is given in the second volume of Brough Smyth's work.

TASMANIAN ABORIGINES.—The natives of Tasmania differed slightly in appearance from those of the continent, and there were similar tribal differences amongst them. Cook saw them, in 1777, quite naked, without ornaments, of common stature, rather slender, black skin, black woolly hair, with features far from disagreeable, pretty good eyes, dirty-white teeth, and with hair, beard, and face smeared with red ointment. They are described by Collins, Péron, Lieut. Breton, and R. H. Davies, in 1846, in the *Tasmanian Journal of Natural Science*. In habits, manners, and general characteristics, they differed slightly from the continental natives; but they were, nevertheless, of the same race. They were certainly less savage and less warlike at first; but when the white settlers began to exterminate them without mercy, they became noted for their ferocity. From the first, their destruction seems to have been determined on. Their numbers were never great—never, perhaps, 2000 in all; in 1824, there were 340; in 1844, the number was reduced to 60; in 1847, there were only 45. King Billy, or William Lanne, the last male Tasmanian aboriginal, died 3rd March, 1869; Queen Trucannimai, or Lalla Rookh, the last of the Tasmanian female aboriginals, died at Hobart Town, aged 73, 8th May, 1876.

MISSIONS.—Attempts to civilise and Christianise the aborigines have been made by the Governments of V. and N. S. W., and by various Christian denominations, with but very partial success. No permanent improvement seems ever to have been possible in the race, although specimens of comparatively high culture in individuals have been shown by the missionaries.

The best account of the aborigines ever published is the work compiled by Brough Smyth, late Secretary to the Mining Department of V., and published at the expense of the Government. Melbourne: 2 vols., impl. 8vo, 1876. There is also a good ethnological account of them in the essay "On the Philology and Ethnology of the Inter-Oceanic Races," appended to Wallace's *Australasia* (1879.)

ACCLIMATISATION SOCIETY OF V., founded in Melbourne, in 1857, by Edward Wilson. Its first president was Dr. Thomas Black. The society has been successful in acclimatising the Angora goat, and introducing some ostriches, and several other foreign animals. Sir Samuel Wilson has been very liberal and unwearied in his efforts to introduce the salmon into Australian waters. It is to the efforts of this

society that the Victorians owe the existence of their fine Zoological Gardens, in the Royal Park, at Melbourne. Similar societies have been established in New South Wales, Queensland, and Tasmania, the latter giving special attention to the acclimatisation of the salmon.

ADAM BAY, on the N.W. coast of the continent, seventy miles S.W. of Port Essington. It was named by Stokes in 1839, after Vice-Admiral Sir Charles Adam. It receives the waters of the Adelaide river, the deepest in Australia. The bay is six miles deep, and ten miles broad at the entrance, with nine fathoms of water. The shores gradually approach each other, and at the head, where it receives the waters of the Adelaide, it is only a mile wide. Cape Hotham separates it from Van Diemen's Gulf.

ADDISON, an alluvial mining township in the Province of Nelson, N.Z., eight miles north from Westport. There are extensive coal works in the neighbourhood.

ADELAIDE, the capital of S.A., is situated on the River Torrens, six miles E. from the shores of St. Vincent's Gulf, and eight miles from the Port. It stands on a fine plain, about five miles below the picturesque Mount Lofty Range. The situation of the city is very beautiful, approached either from the harbour or Holdfast Bay; the road from both these places being over an extensive plain, lightly timbered. The view presented at each change of the road is pleasing and varied; open plains bounded by belts of trees, intersected in one part by the river, its course being indicated by a belt of magnificent gum trees; in spring, the white flowers of the marsh mallow, which abound, indicate the neighbourhood of water. Approaching from Holdfast Bay, on the right of the plain is a slight eminence on which the southern and larger part of the city is built, occupying about 700 acres. This hill, about sixty feet above the level of the plain, forms a table land. The city is, therefore, nearly a dead level, but the views presented by the four exterior terraces are very dissimilar, though all are delightful in their kind. The North Terrace overlooks the valley of the river, which, studded with fine trees, and picturesque sheets of water, add much to the beauty of this situation. The Western Terrace overlooks the extensive plains between the coast and the city, and commands a view of the gulf, with the vessels at anchor in the roadstead. The South Terrace is the least desirable in point of beauty, the view being more confined than the others. The East Terrace is the favourite spot for villa residences; commanding an extensive view of rich plains, backed by the range of mountains, of which Mount Lofty, 2300 feet above the level of the sea, is the most prominent feature. It is difficult to imagine anything more varied and beautiful than the aspect of these hills when illumined by the sun, or enveloped in clouds. To the left, the hills gently curve round and trend down to the coast, inclosing a plain, in some places open, in others

wooded, intersected by a few small streams of fresh water. To the right, the hills run in a northerly and easterly direction, continuing for thirty or forty miles, when they appear to sink into a plain. The country along their base is well timbered; near the coast it is open and level. The city is built nearly in the form of a square, its streets running at right angles; the main street, King William-street, is a fine thoroughfare, running N. and S. The boundaries face the park lands, which extend about a quarter of a mile on each side the city, are reserved from sale, and act as lungs and places of recreation. There are five public parks reserved within the city boundary. The central square lies in the centre of the city, and is called Victoria Square; the three others being named Hindmarsh, Whitmore, and Hurtle Squares respectively. Beyond the Torrens lies North Adelaide, the principal streets of which are named after the first Colonial Commissioners—Barnard, Lefevre, Mackinnon, Montefiore, Palmer, and Pennington. A plentiful supply of water is obtained from reservoirs at Hope Valley and Thorndon Park, within a few miles of the city, which derive their supply from the Torrens. These reservoirs have a storage capacity of 945,000,000 and 140,000,000 gallons respectively, the street mains reticulate through 150 miles of pipe; the city has been lighted with gas since 1863. The Botanic Gardens occupy an area of about forty acres, and are very beautifully laid out, the curator being the well-known botanist, Dr. Schomburgk.

HISTORY.—The site of Adelaide was fixed, in August, 1836, by Colonel William Light, Surveyor-general, and Commander of the *Rapid*, a vessel chartered by the S.A. Company. He first landed at Kangaroo Island, of which Flinders had given a most attractive account; but though the place was beautifully wooded, and of picturesque aspect, it was found to be unsuitable for the foundation of a city, and Light decided to remove the settlement to St. Vincent's Gulf. He selected the present site, named the river on which it stands the Torrens, after Colonel Torrens, and gave the name of the reigning Queen of England, Adelaide, wife of William the Fourth, to the new city. In December, 1836, the first governor, Capt. John Hindmarsh, R.N., arrived at Adelaide with immigrants, and took formal possession at Glenelg, near a singular old gum-tree, where, in the presence of the assembled colonists, about 200 in number, he issued the proclamation establishing the government of the colony. A metal plate was attached to the tree, in 1857, in commemoration of the event, bearing this inscription:—"On this spot, on the 28th December, 1836, the Colony of South Australia was proclaimed and established as a province, by Capt. John Hindmarsh, R.N., the governor thereof, acting in the name and on behalf of His Majesty King William IV., in the presence of the chief officers of the Government and other colonists."

On the 28th December, 1857, the record of the above fact was here publicly affixed by Sir R. G. Macdonnell, K.C.B., governor-in-chief of the province, in the presence of the assembled colonists, to commemorate the event of the Colony attaining its 21st year, and to testify their feelings by a day of public rejoicing. God save the Queen." During the laying out of the city the colonists temporarily established themselves in various places in the vicinity, and it was not until March, 1837, that the survey was completed. The trees were rapidly cleared, the owners of land selected their town lots, and the remainder were disposed of by auction, at prices varying from £2 to £20 per acre. Its progress, though not nearly so rapid as that of some other towns in Australia, has been steady and uniform. The discovery of gold in V., and the consequent exodus of a large proportion of the population, for a time retarded its growth; but with the abatement of the gold fever the city gradually resumed its former prosperous aspect, and has up to the present hour continued to progress and extend. The Act constituting Adelaide a municipality is 4th Victoria No. 4 (1840.) The first municipal election was held 31st October, 1840; Stanley Stokes, returning officer; first aldermen—James Hurtle Fisher, A. H. Davis, Matthew Smellie, and George Stephenson. James Hurtle Fisher was elected first Mayor, which office he resigned 6th January, 1842. The foundation stone of the Town Hall was laid 4th May, 1864, and the building opened 20th June, 1865; cost of erection being about £25,000. The foundation stone of the New Post Office was laid 1st November, 1867. The iron bridge connecting N. and S. Adelaide was opened 25th April, 1877. The population of the city (1879) is estimated at 33,250, and, with the suburbs, about 50,000. The corporation became extinct in 1843, and a board of commissioners was appointed to manage the civic affairs. The city was re-incorporated in 1852. The successive mayors have been—J. H. Fisher, 1840-2, and again, 1852-3; T. Wilson, 1842-3; J. Hall, 1853-4; J. Lazar, 1855-7; W. T. Sabben, 1858; E. W. Wright, 1859; E. B. W. Glanfield, 1860-1; T. English, 1862-3; S. Goode, 1864; W. Townsend, 1865; H. R. Fuller, 1866-8; J. M. Solomon, 1869-71; A. H. T. Bartels, 1872-3; W. K. Abbott, 1874; J. Colton, 1875; C. Peacock, 1876-7; H. Scott, 1878; W. C. Buik, 1879. Adelaide is the seat of a Church of England and of a Roman Catholic diocese. The first Protestant Bishop, Dr. Augustus Short, arrived in December, 1847.

ADELAIDE (PORT), the shipping port of S.A., is connected with the city by a railway seven and a-half miles in length. It is situated on an estuary of Gulf St. Vincent, is about nine miles from the mouth of the creek, and is governed by a Mayor and Corporation. Being the principal port, it is rapidly increasing in population and general prosperity. It is entered from the Gulf, between two large sand-shoals. A fine lighthouse outside the bar well marks the entrance; the light

is a first-order revolving light, with a focal plane of eighty feet above high-water mark. Inner and outer bars of limestone rock partially obstruct the entrance to the harbour, but vessels drawing twenty feet can sail or tow up to the wharves, which are extensive and convenient, being furnished with steam hoists, tramways, pipes supplying fresh water from the mountains for the use of shipping, and all appliances of a first-rate port. The total wharf frontage is 6,501 feet. A sandy tongue of land about two miles wide separates Port Adelaide from the shore of the Gulf; on it are situated numerous small townships, the principal of which are Glanville, Le Fevre's Peninsula, and the Semaphore, whence vessels entering are signalled. The construction and armament of two forts near Port Adelaide is being carried out in accordance with the recommendation of Sir William Jervois. The channel is divided into two branches by a sandy island called Torrens Island, on which the quarantine station stands.

ADELAIDE RIVER falls into Clarence Straits on the N.W. coast of the continent. It was discovered by Stokes in 1839, and named in honour of Dowager Queen Adelaide, widow of King William the Fourth. The river swarms with alligators. The mouth is fronted with shoals, which extend out five miles, the channel between them being narrow, three and four fathoms deep, and lying on the western side of the bay. The spring-tide rises eighteen feet. The distance of this river from Port Essington is seventy miles. In the year 1864, the S.A. Government sent out an expedition to the North, under the command of B. T. Finmiss. Escape Cliff, in Adam Bay, at the entrance to this river, was first chosen as the site for a settlement, but was afterwards abandoned for Port Darwin.

ADELONG RIVER, a tributary of the Murrumbidgee, N.S.W., falling into it a few miles below Gundagai. Towards its head, and at various points along its course, there are alluvial gold diggings of a productive kind, and several auriferous reefs in the vicinity have been profitably worked.

ADMIRALTY GULF, on the N.W. coast of the continent, between Capes Voltaire and Bougainville. At the entrance is an island called the Island of Cassini, and in the bay are the Osborne Islands.

ADVENTURE BAY, on the E. coast of Bruni Island, T., between Capes Cornelle and Frederick Henry. It was discovered by Furmeaux in 1773, and named after the vessel in which the discovery was made. Bligh, in his voyage in 1788, before the mutiny broke out, touched here for wood and water, and planted many useful seeds and trees on the island. He again visited the bay with the ships *Providence* and *Assistance* in 1792.

"AGE" NEWSPAPER, Melbourne journal, founded in 1854, by Henry Cooke, Walter Powell and others. Its first editors were Thomas L. Bright, David Blair, and Ebenezer Syme, to whose

vigorous writing it owed its existence and popularity. It passed into the hands of a co-operative society, retaining the latter two gentlemen as editors, and was subsequently purchased by E. Syme.

AGRICULTURAL SOCIETIES. The Agricultural Society of Sydney was founded in 1822. In the case of the other Colonies, the establishment of local societies was almost coeval with their first settlement.

AHURIRI PLAINS, in the Province of Hawke's Bay, N.Z., comprise about 80,000 acres of exceedingly fertile land, adapted for both agriculture and pasturage. Three large rivers irrigate the plains; water, in inexhaustible abundance, is to be had by boring at any point; and a railway traverses them through the centre. There are several thriving townships, of which Meeanee is the most advanced, and the nearest to the port (Napier.)

AKAROA, a marine township, on Banks' Peninsula, Province of Canterbury, situated on the northern shores of one of the finest harbours of N.Z. It was founded by Governor Hobson, who was sent out in H.M.S. *Druid* to enter into a treaty with the native chiefs for the cession of the islands to Great Britain. The negotiations were concluded on 10th August, 1840, when the raising of the royal standard at Akaroa completed the annexation of the group. Five days later the French frigate *L'Aube*, followed by the *Comte de Paris*, arrived in the port, only to find that they had been forestalled in their plans, and that the French colonists, instead of taking up their residence in N.Z. as lords of the soil, could only remain as British subjects. The town is a summer retreat for the inhabitants of Christchurch, thirty-eight miles distant. The residents are chiefly French settlers, who live by farming and the cultivation of fruit, which grows most luxuriantly here.

ALBANY, on King George's Sound (W.A.), is situated on the shores of Princess Royal Harbour, 261 miles S.E. of Perth. It is the principal town of Plantagenet county, and a port of call of the Peninsular and Oriental Company's steamers, carrying the Australian mails, for which it has special advantages. The steamers anchor about a mile from the shore. The harbour is one of the finest on the Australian coast, and is well protected from winds. A jetty affords facilities for the loading and discharge of small craft. The town is small and the buildings of no magnitude. The places of worship comprise an Episcopal, Wesleyan, and Roman Catholic church, with convent, school, and chapel. The number of inhabitants in the district, in 1878, was 1585. Albany is connected with Perth by a line of telegraph.

ALBANY ISLES, off the N.E. coast of the continent, consist of six islands, of which only one is of large size; the easternmost has a small peak.

ALBATROSS ISLAND, lies to the N.W. of Barren Island, in Bass Straits.

ALBERT RIVER, discovered by Stokes, in 1839, disembogues into the Gulf of Carpentaria, N.A. It is navigable for vessels of a draught of water suited to the bar, thirteen feet, and within five miles of where the water is fresh; at the head of this river are extensive plains, called the Plains of Promise. It is named after Prince Albert, husband of Queen Victoria.

ALBERT LAKE, a large inland lake in S.A., about ten miles in length by eight in width, lying to the E. of Lake Alexandrina, and connected with it by a narrow channel about five miles long; a peninsula, about ten miles long and as many wide, divides the two lakes, the isthmus of which separates lake Albert from the Coorong lake. The waters abound in fish, amongst which is the Murray cod, called by the natives "Poride," and on its shores game is plentiful. The coast surrounding the lake is generally of a red sandy loam with magnesian limestone; on the shore are numerous outcropping granite boulders, and in the middle of the lake is a small island formed of large blocks of the same formation.

ALBUERA, a mountain of N.S.W., in the district of Liverpool Plains, on the Drummond range, named by Captain Forbes, of the 39th Regiment, in 1825, after the famous battle-field in Spain.

ALBURY, a flourishing town of N. S. W., on the confines of V., is situated on the right bank of the Murray River, which is spanned at this point by a strong girder bridge. It was proclaimed a municipality 4th June, 1859. Its founding dates from 17th November, 1824, when Hume and Hovell encamped on its site. The railway from Melbourne to Wodonga, on the opposite side of the Murray, was opened in November, 1873, and railway communication with Sydney is nearly completed (1880.) The population is about 3000, that of the district being 9195. The surrounding district is principally agricultural, with some quartz mining. The latter is carried on at the Black Range and Hawk's View. Grapes and tobacco are largely grown, and the Albury wines have made themselves famous. In 1878 the produce of the district was 142,353 gallons of wine, 12½ tons of grapes, and 12,056 lbs. of tobacco. Stock returns, 1878:—9816 horses, 46,926 cattle, 707,006 sheep, 3049 pigs. Albury lies 351 miles S.W. of Sydney, and 205 miles N.E. of Melbourne. During the season, the Murray is navigable to here by steamers.

ALDIS PEAK, a prominent mountain of N. A., discovered in 1846, by Leichhardt, and named by him, after Mr. Aldis, tobacco merchant, of Sydney, who rendered him and his companions great assistance in his expedition. It is an excellent landmark, and can be seen for a great distance to the north-east. It lies to the westward of Zamia Creek, and is the highest point of Expedition range.

ALEXANDER, MOUNT, in the county of Talbot, V., was discovered and named by Mitchell

(after Alexander the Great) in 1836. Its height is 2435 feet. It is a lofty peak of the densely timbered ranges lying between Castlemaine and Sandhurst, and seven miles N.E. of Castlemaine. It is well wooded with iron-bark and stringy-bark, honeysuckle, and gum trees, some of them of immense size, and forming valuable timber. The geological formation is of granite, some of which is very fine, and makes excellent building stone and road metal. Feldspar has been found in large quantities.

ALEXANDRA, a mining township on the Goulburn river, V., ninety-eight miles N.E. of Melbourne. The diggings extend over thirty-five square miles of ground. About seventy-four quartz reefs have proved to be gold bearing. A very large quantity of gold has been obtained in this neighbourhood. Wheat, oats, and potatoes are grown in the district.

ALEXANDRA LAND, the name first given to the NORTHERN TERRITORY by the surveyors, so named from the Christian name of the Princess of Wales; but the designation never seems to have come into use. (See NORTHERN TERRITORY.)

ALEXANDRINA, LAKE (native name, Kay-inga,) is an immense inland lake near the coast, to the N.E. of Encounter Bay, S.A. It opens to the sea by a narrow passage known as the Murray sea mouth, available for large steamers, and forms a vast enlargement of the Murray river, whose waters it receives at its N.E. end. Its length is thirty miles, and its breadth fifteen miles. It contains several islands, which lie in its S.W. corner. On its E. side, connected with it by narrow passages, are the Albert and Coorong lakes. Its waters are brackish, and abound in fine fish, particularly in Murray cod; and on its shores game is found in plenty. Lake Alexandrina was discovered by Sturt, in his voyage down the Murray in 1829, and named after the Christian name of Queen Victoria. The rowers were guided by the roar of the Southern Ocean. An impracticable sand-bar locked in the passage to the sea. This discovery solved the problem of the drainage of the western country of New South Wales.

ALFRED, PRINCE (DUKE OF EDINBURGH,) second son of Queen Victoria, visited Australia in command of H.M.S. *Galatea*, in 1867. He was welcomed with much public demonstration both in Melbourne and Sydney. He was shot at by a madman named O'Farrell, at Sydney, on 12th March, 1868. The bullet entered the Prince's back, but the wound proved comparatively slight. No political significance was attached to this act. O'Farrell was subsequently convicted and hanged. The Prince again visited Australia and N.Z. in 1869-70.

ALLEN, GEORGE (1800-1877,) came to N.S.W. in 1816; was admitted an attorney and solicitor of the Supreme Court in 1822; was chosen alderman of the first corporation of the City of Sydney in 1842, and mayor in 1844. In 1845 he was appointed

to a seat in the Legislative Council, and also hon. police magistrate of the city and port. In 1856 he was made a member of the Legislative Council, and the same year was elected Chairman of Committees, which office he held until 1873, when failing sight compelled him to resign. He was connected with many useful and benevolent institutions, and was for fifty-six years an active member of the Sydney Benevolent Society. In 1866 he was made a member of the Council of Education, from which he retired in 1873. In 1828 he assisted Sir F. Forbes and Messrs. Wentworth and Bland in founding the Sydney College, on the governing body of which he held office for many years. In 1859 he was elected a member of the Senate of the University.

ALLEN, SIR GEORGE WIGRAM (1824—) son of the preceding, a native of Sydney, was in 1841 articled to his father, and five years after was admitted an attorney and solicitor of the Supreme Court of N.S.W. In 1853 was appointed University solicitor, and subsequently one of the superior officers of that body. In 1859 he was made a magistrate, and chosen first mayor of the municipality of the Glebe, to which office he was re-elected for eighteen consecutive years. In 1860 Sir William Denison appointed him a member of the Legislative Council. In 1869 he was elected member of the Legislative Assembly for the Glebe, which constituency he represented up till 1880. In 1870 he was chosen president of the Law Institute. He was for fourteen years—1853-66—a Commissioner of National Education, and has been a member of the Council of Education since 1873. On the creation of the department of Justice and Public Instruction in 1873, Allen was appointed its first minister, and retained that position till the resignation of the Parkes Administration in 1875. He was chosen Speaker of the Legislative Assembly in March, 1875, and again in 1877, and was knighted the same year. In 1878 he was elected to the seat in the Senate of the University vacant by the decease of his father.

ALLEN ISLAND, in the Gulf of Carpentaria, between Bentinck Island and the mainland.

ALLIGATOR EAST, South, and Upper East, rivers of N. Australia, flowing into Van Diemen's Gulf, discovered, named, and explored by King in 1818. The valley of the Upper East Alligator, says Leichhardt,—which should rather be called Goose River, as he nowhere observed so many geese; and what is called an alligator, is no alligator, but a crocodile,—is one of the most romantic spots he had seen in his wanderings in Australia. A broad level valley, with the most luxurious verdure, abrupt hills and ranges rising everywhere along its east and west sides, and closing it apparently, at its southern extremity; lagoons, forming fine sheets of water, scattered over it; a creek, though with salt water, winding through it.

ALLMAN, CAPTAIN, of the 48th Regiment was sent in 1821, with a party, to form a penal settlement at Port Macquarie. Two vessels conveyed the troops and prisoners, with the stores necessary for the undertaking.

ALMA RIVER. A small stream in W.A., tributary of the Gascoyne, discovered and named by F. T. Gregory in 1858.

ALPACAS. In 1850, a meeting was held in Sydney to take measures to introduce alpaca sheep; John Lamb presiding. It was proposed to raise £2000 for the purpose of importing a flock of 400 breeding ewes. In November 1858, Charles Ledger arrived from Peru with a mixed flock of 292 llamas, alpacas, and vicunas. Subsequently the Government purchased the flock for £15,000. The alpaca is now thoroughly acclimatised in N.S.W., its numbers are increasing, and parcels of its wool sent to London have realised satisfactory prices.

ALT. (See Bampton and Alt.)

AMBY RIVER, in N.S.W., a branch of the Maranoa, discovered by Mitchell in 1846. Aniby is the native name.

ANDERSON, JOSEPH (1789-1877,) a Lieut.-Colonel in the British army, C.B. and K.H., was an old Peninsula officer, who had probably seen more service than any military man of his time in the Colonies. His acts of heroism and bravery were numerous. In 1848 he retired from active service, having served forty years on full pay. For some time he held the post of Military Commander and Civil Superintendent of convicts at Norfolk Island. He came to Port Phillip soon after the foundation of the colony, and engaged in squatting pursuits. In 1852 he was nominated a member of the first Legislative Assembly of V., and held the seat until the dissolution of that body. He acted on the Committee to consider the subject of local defences in 1854; strongly opposed unrestricted Chinese immigration; and assisted at the investiture of General Sir Thomas Pratt as a Knight of the Bath in 1862. He died at his residence in South Yarra, Melbourne, at the age of eighty-eight.

ANDERSON'S INLET, in Bass Straits, between Capes Liptrop and Patterson, V., is six miles in extent, full of mud banks, and available for boats only. The river Tarwin falls into this inlet.

ANDREWS, EDWD. WILLIAM (1813-1877,) came to S.A. in 1839; in 1853 became one of the proprietors of the *S.A. Register*. As Mayor of Glenelg in 1867, he was the first to receive Prince Alfred on his arrival in Australia.

ANDREWS, RICHARD BULLOCK, Q.C., was called to the bar of S.A. in 1855; entered Parliament in 1857; was Attorney-General in the Ayres Ministries of 1867 and 1868; and retired from Parliament in 1870, upon being appointed Crown Solicitor.

ANGAS, GEORGE FIFE (1789-1879,) one of the founders of South Australia; a native of

Newcastle-upon-Tyne, England, where his father was a merchant and shipowner. Early in life he established himself in the same business in London. His philanthropic spirit and labours brought him into relation with some eminent men, including Wilberforce and the leading members of the Anti-Slavery Society. In 1831, the suitability of the country west of the Murray for settlement was made known by the discoveries of Captain Sturt. A number of gentlemen in England, among whom was Angas, were anxious to put the Wakefield principle of colonisation to the test, and the newly-found territory was considered to present the opportunity. Angas associated with the committee who sought to obtain a charter from the Crown for the establishment of a colony on the southern shores of Australia. For a couple of years negotiations were carried on with the Imperial Government without success, and Angas withdrew from the movement, intending to take no further part in the proposed settlement. To this determination, however, he did not adhere. In 1834, through the efforts of the gentlemen who composed the S.A. Association, an Act of Parliament was obtained authorising the formation of the colony, and Angas accepted an appointment on the first board of commissioners for carrying the Act into operation. He devoted himself energetically to rendering the enterprise successful, one of the most important of his services being the organisation of the S.A. Company, but for whose help the establishment, or, at least the vigorous development, of the colony must have been indefinitely delayed. The Act required that before the commissioners entered on the exercise of their general powers, £35,000 worth of land must be sold; but several months after the land had been offered at £1 per acre a portion only of the stipulated quantity had been applied for. At this juncture Angas and two other gentlemen stepped in, and, the commissioners agreeing to reduce the price to 12s. per acre, advanced the money to buy the remainder of the sections. These they handed over to the Company, at cost price, when the arrangements for its formation were completed. In this way the commissioners were helped out of a serious difficulty; nor can there be a doubt that the subsequent action of the Company—which raised a capital of £200,000, to be employed, not only in the purchase of land, but also in forwarding settlers to the colony, establishing whale fisheries, introducing pastoral and agricultural pursuits, and in other ways providing employment and stimulating production in the new settlement—helped materially to give it the start essential to its ultimate prosperity. Of equal moment to the young community, from a commercial point of view, was its first bank, which Angas induced the Company to establish. The shareholders fell in with his views, and the machinery of a bank was forwarded to S.A. in charge of Edward Stephens, and arrived within a few days of the colony being proclaimed. This was the origin of the Bank of S.A., which was

afterwards transferred to a separate proprietary. In order that the early settlers might be provided with educational advantages for their families, Angas, in 1836, joined in establishing in England the S.A. School Society, and, besides acting as treasurer, contributed liberally to its funds. By disseminating information respecting the resources of the country, he endeavoured to encourage persons to emigrate, his zeal leading him to deliver a series of lectures as he travelled through England for the benefit of his health. At the same time he devoted a large part of his fortune to investments in S.A., one of his purchases being the Barossa Special Survey—a beautiful district, in which he for many years made his home. In 1837 he laid the foundation of German emigration to S.A. by helping out, under Pastor Kavel, some hundreds of Lutherans, who, in consequence of their opposition to the Government scheme for uniting the Reformed and Lutheran Churches, were suffering religious persecution in Prussia. He also interested himself warmly in the welfare of the natives, co-operating with the Aborigines' Protection Society, and in 1838 assisting the Dresden Missionary Society to forward the Revs. Teichelmann and Schurman to labour as missionaries among them. He supported John Stephens in writing a history of S.A. He bore the greater part of the expense of publishing in England a newspaper advocating S.A. interests, and furnishing information respecting the colony. When the costliness of the experiment led to its abandonment, he continued to circulate statistical and general intelligence, calculated to interest intending emigrants, while his office in the city was made a centre at which information could always be obtained. At this time S.A. was in the midst of the financial difficulties which culminated in the Imperial Government dishonouring the bills drawn upon Her Majesty's Treasury by Governor Gawler; and when, in 1841, the House of Commons appointed a committee of inquiry, Angas was one of the witnesses examined. His evidence as to the progress and resources of the province favoured the view that its financial success, under proper management, was only a question of time. As his statements were supported by statistical data, they produced a favourable impression, and assisted in disposing the committee to recommend measures of relief, the adoption of which started the colony on the career of prosperity it has ever since (with but slight deviations) pursued. While Angas thus devoted a large portion of his time to the affairs of S.A., his active habits led him to find leisure for many other important engagements. In 1837 he was principally instrumental in founding the Union Bank of Australia, which came into existence through the Tamar Bank of Tasmania being placed on the London market for sale, with a view to the extension of its operations, and he was the first chairman. A little later he was busily moving for the formal occupation of New Zealand

by the Imperial Government, and it was largely owing to his exertions that one, if not the whole, of the islands were prevented from passing into the hands of the French. In 1838 it came to the knowledge of Angas, through Baron Thierry, that the French Government were arranging to send out an expedition to N.Z. to appropriate the islands, in order to their colonisation. He at once made the matter known to Lord Glenelg in a letter, pointing out the injury that would be done to British interests in these seas if a foreign power were allowed to establish itself in N.Z. Interviews with his lordship followed, and, as the result, Captain Hobson was sent out in H.M.S. *Druid* to enter into a treaty with the native chiefs for the cession of the islands to Great Britain. The negotiations were concluded on 10th August, 1840, when the raising of the royal standard at Akaroa completed the annexation of the group. Five days later the French frigate *L'Aube*, followed by the *Comte de Paris*, arrived in the port, only to find that they had been forestalled in their plans, and that the French colonists, instead of taking up their residence in N.Z. as lords of the soil, could only remain as British subjects. Notwithstanding the large stake Angas had in the colony, he did not adopt S.A. as his home until 1851. Some members of his family had previously come out, and in January of that year he arrived in the *Ascendant*, by which vessel the official copy of the Constitution Act, establishing a partially-representative Government, reached the colony. Angas was expected to have this important document in his charge, and this would have been a graceful compliment to his labours on behalf of the colony, but was contrary to precedent, and the Colonial Office preferred another medium for the transmission of its despatches. The documents were missing for several days after the arrival of the ship, and rumour said they were ultimately found at the bottom of the captain's dirty-clothes bag. At this time Angas had reached the age when men usually prefer a quiet life, but his active disposition forbade his withdrawal from public duties. In August, 1851, at the request of the electors of Barossa, he offered himself as a candidate for the Legislative Council, and was returned unopposed. One of his earliest votes was against the continuance of the State grant in aid of religion, which was finally abolished by the votes of thirteen out of the sixteen representative members. In 1857 he entered the first Parliament under the new Constitution as a member of the Upper House, and was allowed to retain his seat on leave when, during the two following years, he was absent on a visit to Europe. He took an active part in the proceedings of the Council, where his speeches were marked by a plain business-like character, which, combined with clearness of statement, gave them considerable weight. He retired by rotation in 1865, and was immediately re-elected; but in the following year ill health compelled him to close his Parliamentary

career of fifteen years. As the colony progressed and prospered, his investments in it made him a very wealthy man; but he systematically devoted a portion of his income to charitable purposes. He assisted in the erection of churches throughout the colony, and was a generous contributor to Bible, missionary, and all kindred societies, not only in South Australia, but in other parts of the world. He gave considerable sums toward the building of schools, the Norwood and Bowden public schools in particular being largely assisted by him in their foundation; and such institutions as the Bushmen's Club and the Sailors' Home found in him a munificent helper. In addition, his private benefactions were extensive. During the latter years of his life Angas lived very quietly. He rarely appeared in public, but when he did he had the satisfaction of receiving the congratulations of his numerous friends. A long and useful career closed at Lindsay House, Angaston, on 15th May, 1879. One of his sons (George French Angas) has achieved an honourable reputation in connection with literary and scientific pursuits, and his beautiful illustrations of South Australian and New Zealand scenery are well known.

ANGORA GOATS. These animals were first imported into N. S. W. by Mr. Riley, of Raby, who drove a flock of them over the Lansdowne bridge (the first stone bridge built in N. S. W.,) on the day of its being opened by Governor Bourke, in 1836. A flock of seven were imported into V. by Mr. Sichel, of Melbourne, in 1856. The French Acclimatisation Society presented a flock of twelve to the V. Society in 1863. Mr. McCullough, of Maryborough (V.) contributed £600 to a fund raised by this Society, in 1866, for the importation of a larger flock, and ninety-one animals were purchased at Broussa and landed in Melbourne. In 1870, a culled flock of fifty were sent to Sir S. Wilson's station on the Wimmera, where they have since largely increased. The average value of each fleece is about 14s.

ANN ISLAND, at the entrance of Jervis Bay, N. S. W., named by Captain Grant, in 1801, from the Christian name of Mrs. King, wife of Governor King.

ANTI-TRANSPORTATION LEAGUE, formed in Tasmania in 1851, by the Rev. John West, Henry Hopkins, R. Pitcairn, and others. Its object was to secure the cessation of transportation thenceforward to any of the Australasian Colonies. John West, W. Aikenhead, and W. P. Weston were sent as delegates to V., and the Victorian branch was founded in January 1851. A liberal subscription list was opened, and thirty-five citizens of Melbourne subscribed 100 guineas each, many fifty guineas and lesser sums. A delegate was required to be sent to England, and the Council of the League selected J. C. King, Town Clerk of Melbourne, who sailed on the 3rd April. He held the post for three years. The deputation from Tasmania then went to Sydney,

where a third branch was formed, and an enthusiastic public meeting held. This unanimous feeling on the part of the colonies, combined with the discovery of gold, led to the stoppage of transportation. In 1853 a despatch from the Imperial Government announced the cessation of the system. The names of the first members of the League in V. are given in McCombie's *History*.

ANTILL PONDS, a district in the county of Somerset, T., sixty miles from Hobart Town, so called by Governor Macquarie in honour of Major Antill, of the 48th Regiment.

ANXIOUS BAY, on the W. coast of S.A., discovered and named by Flinders in 1801. It is about thirty-two miles in width, and fourteen miles in depth, but is exposed to all W. winds except those to the S. of S.W., and affords no secure anchorage.

APOLLO BAY, an indentation in the N.W. coast of Bass Straits, V., extending about ten miles, between Cape Patton and Pt. Bunbury, which form its N. and S. heads respectively. Into this bay fall the Wild Dog and other creeks from the thickly-timbered country inland. Several coal seams crop out on the coast in the neighbourhood; none of them, however, exceeding twelve inches in thickness. There is fine timber growing in this district, many of the blue gum trees reaching a height of 300 feet.

APSLEY RIVER, a river of N.S.W., in the district of New England, and a branch of the river M'Leay. The bed of this river is thus described by Oxley, who discovered and named it in 1818:—"This tremendous ravine runs nearly N. and S.; its breadth at the bottom does not, apparently, exceed 100 or 200 feet, whilst the separation of the outer edges is from two to three miles. In perpendicular depth it exceeds 3000 feet. The slopes from the edges were so steep, and covered with loose stones, that any attempt to descend them, even on foot, was impracticable."

ARAPILES, MOUNT, in the Wimmera district, V., discovered and named by Mitchell in his overland journey to Port Phillip, in 1836. It is a feature which may always be easily recognised, both by its isolated position, and by its small companion the Mitre Rock, situated midway between it and the lake to the northward, named Mitre Lake. Arapiles is the name of a village in Spain, where the Battle of Salamanca was fought.

ARARAT, a remarkable mountain in the Great Dividing Range in the N.W. of V., so named from its fancied resemblance to the Scriptural mountain. Its height is 2020 feet. At a short distance from its base stands a township of the same name, which was surveyed and sold in 1858. The plain on which it stands was then rich in alluvial gold, and a large mining population was gathered on the ground. The alluvial gold workings are now nearly exhausted, but there are some quartz reefs worked in the neighbourhood. Besides mining,

the agricultural, pastoral, and wine-making interests are well established. Ararat is the commercial centre of the grain and wool producing district of the north-west. In the neighbourhood are never-failing supplies of the best timber, of which immense quantities are annually sent over a large area. Ararat contains one of the Government lunatic asylums. It is fifty-six miles W. from Ballarat.

ARCHER, WILLIAM HENRY (1825—,) came to Victoria in 1852; in 1853 was employed in drafting a comprehensive system of legal and statistical registration, which was approved by Governor Latrobe, and next year published the *Statistical Register of Victoria*. In 1854, Major Norman Campbell was appointed Registrar-General and Archer his assistant. In 1857, he published for some time a paper called *Facts and Figures*, and was appointed a member of the Board of Education. In 1858, he was employed in discovering records in Sydney in relation to V., and found a large mass of documents affecting property. In 1859, on the death of Major Campbell, he became Registrar-General. In 1860, he published *Statistical Notes on the Progress of Victoria from 1835 to 1860*. In 1862, the Real Property Act came into force, and the duty of carrying out the measure devolved upon Archer, but after a year he resigned, not agreeing with the Attorney-General in the manner of doing this work. In 1868, he was again offered its administration, and succeeded in restoring order to the departments. In 1874, he was appointed Secretary for Lands and Survey. In 1867, he was called to the Bar. His services were dispensed with by the Victorian Government in 1878, on "Black Wednesday." He then went to Sydney, and established a Mutual Assurance Company, of which he is (1879) managing director.

"ARGUS" NEWSPAPER, Melbourne journal. On 5th July, 1878, the *Argus* published its 10,000th number, and gave the following history of its establishment:—"The date of its birth was Tuesday, the 2nd June, 1846, when the settlement was only eleven—orreckoningfrom Mr. Edward Henty's landing with Stock at Portland Bay, twelve—years old. The population of the province was 38,334, or about the same as that of Collingwood and Fitzroy; and Melbourne was a straggling town, loosely articulated, and by no means distinguished for its liveliness. People had a good deal of leisure for scandal and small talk, local events were few and unexciting, communication with the old world was slow and irregular, Sydney was distant nearly a week, there was little in the way of public amusements to beguile the tedium of the long winter evenings, the streets were unpaved and badly lighted, and the only season of real animation was when the annual clip of wool came down from the country, and the pastoral tenants of the Crown visited Melbourne to purchase stores and to indulge in such gaieties as the limited

resources of the place could supply. There was a theatre—almost as a matter of course; and there was Mr. George Coppin—quite as a matter of course. Even then he was taking farewell benefits, preparatory to his final retirement from the stage; and in *The Argus* of 7th July, 1846, we find it recorded that 'it is the intention of Mr. Coppin to erect a theatre upon that piece of ground in the rear of Elizabeth-street, which is now occupied by Mr. Armistead, the builder. Mr. Coppin's vow not to appear on any stage in the world after the night on which he delivered his farewell address, in the character of Billy Barlow, will not be broken by his treading the boards of the new house, as those stages only that were in existence at the time it was made were meant by Mr. Coppin.' Some other early theatrical and historical reminiscences are given, and the history proceeds:—"It is interesting to know that the practice of duelling was not altogether extinct in 1846. The last encounter of this kind which took place in England—that between Lieutenant Seton and Hawkey, in which the former was killed—had occurred in the year previous; and two duels were fought in Port Phillip in the month of June. Messrs. Sprot and Campbell, settlers in the Port Fairy district, having quarrelled, one of them challenged the other; and in order to elude the vigilance of the local magistrates, they rode into S.A., a distance of 200 miles, exchanged shots, and came back again, unwounded in body, but salved in honour. The other affair was quietly arranged for in the scrub near Liardet's Pier Hotel, at what is now Sandridge, the combatants being the Hon. G. Kennedy, grandson of the Marquis of Ailsa, and Mr. Ousely Cockburn, of the mercantile firm of Cruikshank, Latham, and Cockburn. Their seconds were Mr. J. Hunter and Mr. J. Allan. No blood was shed, and the incident called forth a letter from 'Bob Acres' in reprehension of 'that relic of a barbarous and feudal age—duelling.' The wages paid to skilled labour are not specified, but farm and station hands received 12s. a week and rations, while domestic servants were paid from £20 to £25 per annum. The upset price of land in Melbourne was £300, in St. Kilda £30, in Richmond £5, in Upper Hawthorn £2 10s., and at Essendon £2 an acre. The public expenditure for the whole province was under £40,000 a year, and the discrepancy between this amount, and what was raised by taxation, and by the sale or rent of Crown lands, engendered a feeling of discontent which had already given rise to an agitation in favour of separation from New South Wales. Provisions appear to have been very reasonable in those days. Beef and mutton were 2d. per lb., and butter 16d.; bread was 7d. the 4lb. loaf, and milk 3d. a quart; fowls were 2s., and ducks 3s. 9d., a pair; and a good fat turkey could be bought for 6s. 3d. Copper coins were by no means despised; for we learn that on the 27th October a drayman reaped a rich harvest by carrying parties across Elizabeth-street, at Townend's Corner, at a

halfpenny a head. The first number of the *Argus* was a four-page paper, containing about nine columns of advertisements, two-thirds of which were *Gazette* notices. Its local intelligence was meagre in character; but its editor made a strong point of his ability to anticipate the rival journals—the *Patriot* and the *Herald*—by half a day in the publication of the news brought from Sydney by the overland mail. A few names that are still familiar to us appear in the advertising columns; but out of about eighty signatures attached to a requisition for a public meeting, we are unable to identify more than ten or twelve as those of persons who are still living. Messrs. Stawell, Barry, and Williams were practising as barristers in the Supreme Court, and the late Judge Pohlman was Chief Commissioner of Insolvent Estates; but most of the names which are of frequent occurrence in the columns of the *Argus* during the first year of its existence belonged to men whose places know them no more." It must be added that the *Argus* owed its first celebrity and influence to the energetic editorial management and powerful writing of Edward Wilson, who remained one of the proprietors till his death. It is now universally acknowledged to stand second to no journal in the British dominions in point of literary ability, liberal management, mechanical execution, and all other journalistic details.

ARMIDALE, a town in N.S.W., is situated on the Dumaresq creek, 313 miles N. of Sydney. It was proclaimed a municipality 13th November, 1863. The district surrounding Armidale is principally pastoral and agricultural, with some alluvial gold diggings, within a few miles of the town. The scenery in the vicinity is rugged and picturesque, from the prevalence of mountains, among which are to be found several waterfalls of considerable height. Armidale is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop, and forms part also of the Anglican Episcopate of Grafton and Armidale. The Protestant Cathedral Church (St. Peter's,) is one of the most beautiful of its size in the Colony. The Roman Catholics have also a fine cathedral. Presbyterians and Wesleyans have also places of worship, and there are five schools.

ARNEY, SIR GEORGE A., Chief Justice of N.Z. in 1873, administered the Government of the Colony from 21st March to 14th June, after the departure of Governor Bowen and pending the arrival of Governor Fergusson.

ARNOLD, WILLIAM MUNNINGS (1820-1875), came to N.S.W. in 1839, and settled on the Paterson. In 1856 he was elected Member of the Legislative Assembly, and in 1858 was chosen Chairman of Committees. In 1860, he became Minister for Public Works in the Robertson Ministry, and shared in the carrying of the Land Act of 1861. The ministry resigned in 1863, but in 1865 Arnold again took office under the Cowper Ministry, but resigned on 31st October on being again elected Speaker of the Assembly.

In 1875 he was accidentally drowned in a flood in the Paterson, opposite his own door.

ARNHEIM LAND comprises all the northern coast of the continent lying to the eastward of N.W. Cape as far as the Gulf of Carpentaria, and southward to the fifteenth parallel of latitude. It was discovered and named after his native town in Holland, by Zaachen, in 1618. Arnheim Cape is the N.W. extremity of the Gulf, and Arnheim Bay lies to the westward. This bay was explored by Flinders in 1802.

ARTHUR, SIR GEORGE, fourth Lieutenant-Governor of V.D.L., arrived 12th May, 1824. Formerly superintendent of Honduras, he was extensively known as an officer of inflexible and energetic disposition; his administration there had occasioned considerable debate, and was made the subject of parliamentary and judicial enquiries. The public meeting at Hobart Town which adopted a farewell address to Governor Sorell, authorised a similar compliment to Arthur on his accession. It was couched in the language of cold respect; parting reluctantly with their late Governor, the colonists were less disposed to welcome his successor. The reply of Arthur was not less formal and cold; he took occasion to express his conviction that the moral example of the free population was essential to the improvement of a class less favoured; and that while employing his authority for the general welfare, he was resolved to maintain the rights of the Crown. Such sentiments and purposes were just; but were scarcely likely, at that moment, to be heard with pleasure. The arrival of Governor Darling, in 1825, was a time of festivity. He proclaimed the independence of the Colony and its severance from N.S.W. on 3rd December. While he was present, he was entitled to govern; but when he set sail, Arthur, who had previously been addressed as "Your Honour," assumed the authority of Governor-in-chief, and, responsible only to the home office, became "His Excellency." The colonists were less delighted with the possession than they had been with the prospect of a chief Governor. Arthur was, in point of fact, a man of reserved and austere manners, a martinet in discipline, and strictly obedient to the orders he received from Downing-street, which were often variable and self-contradictory. On the 7th May, Chief Justice Pedder proclaimed the charter of a Supreme Court. Differences speedily arose between the Governor and the Attorney-General, Gellibrand, whom Arthur authoritatively removed from office, and much personal altercation thence ensued. In November 1830, he set on foot the project of the BLACK WAR (which see) for the extermination of the native race. An expedition was sent out, which cost in all £30,000, and resulted in the capture of only two blacks! Arthur also attempted to extinguish the liberty of the Press, and had an act passed in 1827 which effectually secured that object. The colonists remonstrated, but, although the Governor stood firm, the Secretary

of State disallowed the Act. The charge of employing spies was also brought against Arthur. In 1828, a Constitutional Act was passed, giving the Governor the presidency of the Legislative Council. The discussions were private; and as the members were chiefly Government officers, the power of the Governor was supreme. When Batman made his expedition to Port Phillip in 1835, Arthur was anxious to make the new territory dependent on V.D.L., but Governor Bourke successfully asserted the prior claim of N.S.W. Free immigration, subsidised by the Home Government, set in about 1832, and this intrusion by the Crown broke the bond of Arthur's despotic system. It was not suited for freemen. Towards the close of his rule, he became increasingly unpopular, and public meetings were held to express disapproval of his continuance in office by the Home Government. At length his recall arrived, and on 30th September 1836 Arthur left the colony. "The difficult nature of his duties," says West, "the distance of his government from supervision, and the weakness of the free population, enabled him to assume and maintain, for many years, a discretion all but unlimited. He repressed the outrages of the lawless, and restored comparative tranquillity. Under his auspices the chief town, which he found consisting of a few frail dwellings, assumed the aspect of a commercial city. Many he received in chains were established in social happiness; many immigrants, who arrived with slender resources, had risen to opulence. During the twelve years of his rule, the population had increased from 12,000 to 40,000; the revenue from £16,866 to £106,639; the imports from £62,000 to £583,646; the exports from £14,500 to £320,679; mills from five to forty-seven; colonial vessels from one to seventy-one; churches from four to eighteen; and every branch of public and private enterprise exhibited the same general aspect." It should be added that Arthur was always regarded as a zealous co-operator by the leaders of the Anti-Slavery Society in England. He died in England in 1844.

ARTHUR'S SEAT, a conspicuous mountain at the eastern entrance to Port Phillip, V. It was named by Murray, in 1802, from its fancied resemblance to a famous hill of that name near Edinburgh.

ASHBURTON RIVER, in W.A., discovered and named after Lord Ashburton, by F. Gregory, in 1861.

ASPINALL, BUTLER COLE (1830-1875,) was admitted to the English bar in 1853, having been previously connected with the *Morning Chronicle* and other London papers. In 1854 he arrived in Victoria, under engagement to the *Argus* as law reporter. He was subsequently a contributor to the *Morning Herald*, *Age*, and *Melbourne Punch*, but commenced to practise as a barrister on leaving the *Argus*. His wit and ability as an advocate were of a high quality; and the talent

he displayed on behalf of the accused at the trial of the Eureka rioters gained him a colonial reputation. In 1856 he entered Parliament as member for Talbot, and became celebrated for his talents as a debater. He was a member of the Heales Government in 1861, and, when representative for Portland, was a member of the Macpherson Government in 1869. In 1868 he went to Sydney, and conducted the defence of O'Farrell, tried for the attempted assassination of Prince Alfred. He resigned his seat in Parliament in 1870, on account of failing mental health.

ATKINS, RICHARD, Deputy Judge Advocate of N.S.W. during the Governorship of Bligh. He presided at the trial of John Macarthur for rebellion in 1808, but his right to preside was challenged by the accused. Atkins threatened to commit him for contempt of court, but was himself threatened with committal by one of the six officers associated with him. Atkins then retired from the bench. The officers memorialised the Governor, stating their unwillingness to act with Atkins, on the ground that he had been notoriously a personal enemy of Macarthur for the last fourteen years. To this memorial Bligh replied by refusing to remove Atkins; and he had Macarthur arrested on a warrant signed by Atkins and three magistrates. This step led to the revolt against the Governor, and his subsequent arrest. When Johnston assumed the Government, with Macarthur as Secretary, Atkins was superseded, and Major Abbott was appointed in his stead. Bligh, although he supported Atkins in his office of Judge Advocate throughout the quarrel, spoke of his character in most disparaging terms in his despatches to the Secretary of State.

AUCKLAND, the most northern province of N.Z. It includes fully one-half of the North Island. It is about 400 miles long by 200 miles wide at its greatest breadth, and its area is one-third that of Victoria, or about half as much as England; that is, it contains 16,650,000 acres. Its boundary on the south is 39° S. lat. and the rivers Mokau and Wanganui; on the other sides it is surrounded by water. It has a coast line of nearly 1200 miles. This proportion of water frontage to the superficial area is one of its most striking peculiarities; and, in addition, it is remarkable for its rivers. These are numerous, and in many cases valuable as highways for the carriage of produce from the interior. Among them may be enumerated the Mokau, Oruawharo, Otamatea, Rangaitaiki, Waikato the longest and most important, Wairoa next in length, Waipa, Thames of Waiho, and the Whakatane. The population on 3rd May, 1878, was 82,661—44,800 males, 37,861 females. The Maori population is estimated at 24,698.

HISTORY.—The early history of the province is, in a great degree, identical with that of the colony. This portion of the country was the first in which a European landed; in this the missionaries began

and mainly carried on their enterprise; here was the scene of "the treaty of Waitangi," on which the British Government ultimately based their right of sovereignty over these islands; in this province a British governor first resided; and the locality in which the city of Auckland now stands was chosen by the first Governor as the site for the capital of N.Z.

NATURAL FEATURES.—The land is principally of two kinds—a light volcanic loam and a stiff yellow clay. Each of these soils has its own advantages, and, perhaps owing to the fineness of a climate to which long droughts and floods are equally unknown, there is comparatively little soil that can be called bad. The three great divisions of the province are the Northern Peninsula, the East Coast, and the Waikato country. The two latter are principally in the hands of the natives. Much of the Northern Peninsula is broken land, in parts densely timbered. The land is difficult and expensive to clear for cultivation, but well repays the trouble. The East Coast, comprising the Coromandel Peninsula, has been described as "one continuous rugged range of palæozoic rocks," much of which is auriferous. The Waikato country is well timbered, has fine soil admirably suited for farming operations, and is rapidly becoming settled. The climate is pleasant and salubrious, being free from extremes of heat and cold, and the temperature is lower than that of any of the other provinces. Owing to the large seaboard, and the prevalence of sea breezes, the summer heat is not nearly so great as in similar latitudes on the Australian continent. The same causes account for the absence of long droughts, and for the more abundant moisture. The climate is beneficial to asthmatic patients; and the northern portions of the province—particularly the Bay of Islands—are recommended for persons suffering from diseases of the lungs. The warm lakes and sulphur springs in the Rotorua district have become famous for the cure of rheumatism and kindred diseases. Gold, copper, lead, tin, iron, manganese, coal, and other minerals, exist in the province. The coal supplies are most plentiful; the coal burns freely, and is well suited for household purposes. Springs of kerosene oil have been found on the eastern coast. The principal gold-workings at present are in the Thames district, the whole extent of which, covering an area of 100 miles in length, is believed to be auriferous, traces of the precious metal having been detected in numerous places. Some of the claims on the Thames goldfield have vied with the richest of the Victoria fields. Up to 30th June, 1879, the total quantity of gold exported from the province amounted to 1,226,102 ounces. During the year ending 30th June, 1878, there were 75,434 ounces produced. A line of railway from the City of Auckland to Ohanpo, ninety-four miles, opens up the vast agricultural territory known as the Waikato country, famous for the fertility of its soil, and its adaptability for the production of cereals

and root crops. Another line from Riverhead to Kaipara opens up the fine agricultural district lying to the N. of Auckland. The export of wool is large and increasing. Kauri gum forms an important item in the exports. The kauri pine is the most famous of N.Z. trees; it is confined entirely to this province, and almost wholly to its northern extremity. For many years this timber has been largely exported for building purposes, and to H. M. Dockyards, to serve as spars for the Royal Navy. The great size of the trees, sometimes fifteen feet in diameter and 150 feet in height, and the valuable properties of the wood, render this a valuable article of export. Other trees, whose wood is of constructive value, are the kahikatea, the rimu or red pine, the totara, and the puriri. The native vegetation of the province is, without exception, evergreen. The forests, both in winter and summer, are leafy, and are covered for the most part, with a thick and almost impenetrable undergrowth. The N.Z. flax is an article of export. The scenery of the province is enchanting. Hill and valley, woodland, rough cliffs, and quiet little secluded bays; broad rivers, lakes, and rough mountain torrents; waterfalls, geysers, boiling springs, volcanic cones, beautiful natural terraces, and many other marked natural features, grouped in the most picturesque forms, and gilded with bright sunshine, tend to make N.Z. what it has frequently been called—the natural home of the poet and the artist.

THE LAKE DISTRICT.—In common with other parts of the North Island, the formation of Auckland shows a volcanic origin, and there is, in fact, an active volcanic island in the Hauraki Gulf, the gulf on which the chief city is situated; while at Taupo and other places are hot springs and lakes; and within a mile of Auckland city is an extinct terraced volcanic hill, Mount Eden, having a deep crater upon its summit. The warm lake and geyser scenery of the province is, in the opinion of geologists and travellers, the most remarkable in the world. These phenomena are of three kinds: Puías, which are geysers continually or intermittently active; Ngawhas, or inactive Puías, emitting steam, but not throwing up columns of hot water; Wairiki, or cisterns of hot water suitable for bathing. There are also mud volcanoes, and numerous creeks, and streams, either wholly hot or tepid, or having occasional hot springs breaking out in them. The principal districts in which these hot springs are found is round lake Taupo, where baths have been erected. Another remarkable feature of this district is the number of natural terraces in the neighbourhood of the lakes, each of the terraces containing hot or warm pools, filled at intervals by the overflow of the boiling puia at the summit. Conspicuous amongst the volcanoes is the great Ngahapu, or Ohopia, a circular rocky basin of about forty feet diameter, in which a violent geyser is constantly boiling up to the height of ten or twelve feet, and emitting dense clouds of steam. The

highest peaks of the range that intersects Auckland are Pirongia 2830 feet, Mount Edgecombe 2575 feet, and Little Barrier 2283 feet. A few miles south of the boundary the mountains and ranges rise to far higher altitudes than these. One feature of the province of Auckland is, that throughout the whole of its extent the settler can go scarcely twenty miles from navigable water, either salt or fresh. It is not a level country, covered with natural grasses; for the most part it is broken land, with low ranges of hills and broad shallow valleys, covered, in the majority of cases, with dense forest, more suitable for agricultural operations than for pastoral purposes. The fern tribe is seen to perfection in this province, upwards of 130 species being found, many of them unknown in any other country; the nikan, the ti-tree, and the ranpo are also profusely distributed. All the products of England also flourish here. The principal towns in the province are Auckland, the capital, Tauranga, Havelock, Shortland, and Grahamstown.

AUCKLAND, capital of the province of that name, is the largest city in N.Z., and was for some time the seat of Government. It is situated on the southern shores of Waitemata Harbour, one of the finest harbours in N.Z., an inlet of Thames Gulf. The island at this point is only six miles wide. A local description states: "Few cities can boast of scenery so picturesque as that surrounding Auckland. It lies on a narrow isthmus, separating the seas that wash the E. and W. shores of the island; the landscape dotted over with volcanic cones, mementoes of the days when subterranean fires poured forth a devastating deluge; it possesses that blending of land and water, of hill and dale, of sombre height and fertile undulating lowland, that contributes the charm of natural scenery. The best view is, perhaps, to be obtained from the lip of the crater of Mount Eden, an extinct volcano overhanging the city, at a distance of about a mile." Its position, for commercial purposes, is equally good, as, in addition to the harbour of Waitemata, there is a western harbour, Manakau, the two being only six miles apart. There are numerous wharves and jetties, with facilities for the loading and discharge of vessels, and a graving dock was opened in August, 1878. The leading buildings are Government offices, the post-office, and custom house, the supreme court, and the Government House, standing in the midst of grounds planted with English oak and other trees. There are several places of worship, among which are St. Paul's Cathedral, and St. James', Presbyterian. The city is in telegraphic communication with all the centres of both islands by means of submarine cables laid in Cook's Straits. A railway connects Auckland with Onehunga on the Manakau Harbour; the railway to Champo, ninety-four miles, brings the country southward into communication with the capital. During the year ending 30th June, 1878, there were 202 vessels, of a gross tonnage of 122,239, entered Auckland; owned at the

port are 218 sailing vessels, of 12,047 tons, and 42 steamers, of 3,083 tons. Most of the streets are flagged or asphalted, and lighted with gas. There is a good water supply, derived from the Western Springs. There is a theatre, and a well laid-out botanical garden in the Government Domain. The population of the city and suburbs is about 30,000. Auckland was founded by Captain Hobson on the 29th January, 1840; and the treaty of Waitangi was signed 5th February. The foundation-stone of St. Paul's Cathedral was laid by Governor Hobson 28th July, 1841; the first Supreme Court was opened 28th February, 1842; General Pitt arrived in Auckland in 1847; the city was visited by a cyclone 8th April, 1862; it was first lighted with gas 15th April, 1865; constituted a borough 5th May, 1871; the Post Office was burned down 19th November, 1872; and the foundation of the Waterworks was laid 27th March, 1875.

AUCKLAND ISLANDS, a group of islands to the south of N.Z. The largest measures thirty miles by fifteen. It has two good harbours, and is covered with the richest vegetation. The islands are valuable chiefly as a whaling station, being at the confluence, as it were, of the Pacific and Southern Oceans. In January, 1864, the shipwreck of the *Grafton*, Captain Musgrave, occurred on these islands. The shipwrecked crew remained there until 24th July, 1865, and then escaped to N.Z. in a boat. The *Invercauld* was also wrecked there in May, 1864. J. J. Shillinglaw, of Melbourne, edited the "Diary" of Captain Musgrave, and published it in 1865.

AUGUSTA (PORT), the northernmost of the S.A. ports, from which the township takes its name, situated on the shores of Spencer's gulf, is about three quarters of a mile wide, with good anchorage, eighteen feet deep at low water springs. The township is situated on the eastern shore. This place is the outlet for a large tract of pastoral and mineral country. Agriculture has been tried in the district, but from the frequency of dry seasons has proved a failure. Its pastoral capabilities support immense numbers of sheep and cattle, many of which thrive well and fatten on salt bush. Several copper mines have been opened, extending sixteen miles off Port Augusta to some 300 miles north.

AUSTIN, R., Assistant Surveyor-General of W.A. in 1854, was despatched on an exploring expedition by the Government. He was provided with twenty-seven horses and provisions for four months, and set out with his party of nine men from Northam on 10th July. His experience of the country was similar to that of Gregory in 1846, and Roe in 1848, and his course lay between the tracks of both. He met also with a further obstacle in the character of the herbage. The horses suffered from a poisonous plant; they fell down in their tracks, and kicked violently; in a short time their heads and bellies swelling to an enormous size. Seven of them died at Reerut Flats, and a retreat amid a shower of spears from

the blacks had to be made towards Shark's Bay, where a ship was to meet them. The subsequent disasters of the expedition until they returned to the Geraldine Mine, brought into prominence the energy, courage, and zeal of the leader, but added nothing to the first objects of the promoters, save the barren results of the exploration of a useless and arid country.

AUSTRALASIA. This name, etymologically equivalent to "Southern Asia," is variously given by geographers to the vast region extending from the south-eastern extremity of Asia for more than half-way across the Pacific Ocean, or, more restrictedly, to Australia and New Zealand, with the large islands as far as New Guinea and the New Hebrides. This latter is the definition given in the latest (the ninth) edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*. Wallace, in his book on "Australasia" (1879,) gives it the wider signification, arguing that "as defining one of the six great divisions of the globe, Australasia harmonises better with the names of the other divisions, and at the same time serves to recall its essential characteristics: firstly, that it is geographically a southern extension of Asia; and secondly, that the great island-continent of Australia forms its central and most important feature." In any case the word is merely a geographical name, having no historical significance. If the wider meaning be given to it, the portion of Australasia included in the present volume would require to be more strictly defined as "British Australasia."

AUSTRALIA. This name was first given to the great continent in the Southern Ocean by Flinders. It had previously been known as New Holland, New South Wales, and *Terra Australis*. In a foot-note to his "Voyage to Terra Australis," (vol. I., page 3,) Flinders says:—"Had I permitted myself any innovation upon the original term, it would have been to convert it into AUSTRALIA, as being more agreeable to the ear, and an assimilation to the names of the other great portions of the earth."

POSITION AND SIZE.—Australia is the largest island and smallest continent on the surface of the earth. It lies to the south-east of Asia, between the parallels of $10^{\circ} 39'$ and $39^{\circ} 11\frac{1}{2}'$ south latitude, and the meridians of $113^{\circ} 5'$ and $153^{\circ} 16'$ east longitude. Its greatest length from W. to E.—that is, from Dirk Hartog's Point to Point Cartwright—is about 2400 miles, its greatest width, between Cape York on the north and Wilson's Promontory on the south, is 1971 miles. Its coast line is about 7750 miles in length, and its extent is computed at about 2,983,200 square miles; or more nearly 1,909,366,720 statute acres, or including Tasmania and New Zealand, 1,993,280,320 acres. Some conception of the area of Australia may be better gathered by comparison. It is more than twenty-six times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, nearly six times as large as India, and only about one-fifth smaller than the

continent of Europe. Its nearest distance to England is about 11,000 miles. Its northern shores are washed by the waters of Torres Strait—which separate it from New Guinea—by the Gulf of Carpentaria, the Arafura Sea and the Indian Ocean. It is bounded on the south by Bass Strait—which divides it from Tasmania—and by the South Pacific Ocean; on the east by the South Pacific Ocean, and on the west by the Indian Ocean. A fair idea of Australia and the position of its several colonies may be gathered by considering it as divided into three parts—Western Central, and Eastern. The Western part consists entirely of the Colony of Western Australia; the Central, of South Australia and its allied Northern Territory; the Eastern, of the three colonies of Queensland, New South Wales, and Victoria.

PHYSICAL CHARACTERISTICS.—With a total area of 2,983,200 square miles—that is, rather less than Europe—the Australian continent forms a somewhat unshapely mass of land, with little-varied outlines, and a monotonous seaboard, washed on the west by the Indian, and on the east by the Pacific Ocean. In the north it is separated from New Guinea by Torres Strait, ninety miles in breadth; and in the south, from T. by the much-frequented yet dangerous Bass Strait. Parallel with, and about sixty miles distant from the east coast, stretches the Great Barrier Reef, which, throughout its entire length of 1200 miles, presents only a single safe opening for ships; and reaches northwards almost to the extremity of York Peninsula. This peninsula, which is the most distinctive geographical feature of the continent, forms, with the more westerly, but less boldly developed peninsula of Arnheim Land, the great northern bight known as the Gulf of Carpentaria. Corresponding with this inlet is the Great Australian Bight on the south coast, but neither of them materially affects the general character of the continent as a compact and but slightly varied mass of land. The west coast is, on the whole, richer in bights and inlets, and also possesses several good harbours. In the south, besides the already-mentioned Great Bight, nothing occurs to vary the monotony of the coast line except Spencer and St. Vincent Gulfs, with the neighbouring Kangaroo Island, and the narrow York Peninsula, not to be confounded with that of like name in the north. The conformation of the land is no less simple than the outlines of the coast. It rises generally from south to north, and from west to east. Mountains of considerable size are found in the east alone, where they stretch in several ranges parallel with the coast from Bass Strait northwards to the low-lying York Peninsula. But even in W.A. we meet with elevated uplands sinking abruptly in some directions. On the other hand, the assumption that Australia forms a vast table-land, with elevated borders, and sloping towards the interior, where its lowest level is that of Lake Eyre (seventy feet above the sea,) must be taken with considerable qualifications. It is,

however, so far true in a general way, that lowlands form the prevailing feature of the inland country. The Australian highlands themselves form no connected whole, being everywhere intersected by depressions of all sorts, to such an extent, that a mere rising of the sea-level of no more than 500 feet would probably convert the whole continent into a group of numerous islands, varying in size and elevation. These highlands generally present the appearance of hilly upland plains, and are mostly covered with park-like and grassy forests, but without the undergrowth, here called "scrub," elsewhere peculiar to Australia. Here the river valleys are generally fertile, and more especially adapted for agriculture. The cultivable land, however, is everywhere distributed somewhat disconnectedly, and in the form of isolated oases over the country. The gorges through which the streams mostly make their way from the hills, are usually deep and difficult of access, but are nevertheless distinguished, especially in the south, by a rich and almost tropical vegetation. Above the upland plains there often rise rocky mountains, in most cases forming connected chains, in many places presenting steep and rugged escarpments, elsewhere sloping gently and gradually down to the plains. Nor are terrace-like formations altogether wanting, though these are of limited extent and imperfectly developed. A further peculiarity of the Australian highlands is their distribution mainly along the coast, round about the interior, where no extensive mountain ranges have hitherto been discovered. Of distinct coast ranges six have already been determined, the most important of which is that of V. and N.S.W., in the south-east corner of the continent. The V. highlands form a hilly, upland, and mostly fertile plain, above which rise two distinct ranges, running north and south, the Grampians in the west, and the Pyrenees and Dividing Range to the east; while the southern slopes are distinguished by a series of low volcanic hills, with craters only recently extinct. Farther east these highlands are separated by a broad depression from the chain of the Australian Alps, or Warragong Mountains, culminating in Mount Kosciuszko (7308 feet,) just within the borders of N.S.W., and the highest elevation of the continent. Separated from them by upland valleys are the wooded but unfertile Blue Mountains and the Liverpool Range, running exceptionally east and west, and along whose northern slopes stretch the rich and lovely Liverpool Plains. East and west of them extend other more elevated plains, reaching far north, and forming the fine pasture-lands of New England, which stretch almost to the northern limits of the highlands. These consist of the Dividing Range, skirting the valley of the coast river Brisbane on the west, and sinking northwards down to the valley of the Burnett. On the western slopes of the Dividing Range lie the rich and pleasant grassy plains of the Canning and Darling Downs, watered by the river Condamine,

flowing inland. North of the two last-named rivers begin the Queensland highlands, stretching in a comparatively narrow chain in a north-westerly direction as far as the 17° S. lat., and divided into two formations by a depression in the valley of the Lower Burdekin. The greatest elevations are found at the northern extremity of this range, where it attains near the coast a height of 5400 feet, while between these and the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria is an elevated hilly tract about 2500 feet above the sea. The inland slopes of these mountains are generally very fertile, and towards the north, are often distinguished for their exuberant vegetation. Passing west of the Gulf of Carpentaria, we find an extensive tract of high table-land, which appears to attain its greatest elevation where the Alligator River flows between precipitous walls, said by Leichhardt to be of the enormous height of 1800 feet. This plateau becomes lower towards the Roper and Victoria Rivers, and then gradually emerges southward into the great central plains; but much of it appears to be of exceeding fertility, and full of varied and picturesque scenery. Among the least known regions are the highlands of the north-west, which are intersected by the Victoria River flowing into the Queen's Channel, and separated southwards by a low ridge from the desert lowlands of the interior. Northwards, the land descends in broad terraces, interrupted by mountain chains, and forming fruitful plains watered by the forks of the Victoria, while desolate lowlands again stretch away eastwards. The W.A. highlands are divided into two sections, which, though connected together, are of very different formation. The northern division consists of wide and mostly fertile plains, crossed by isolated chains running east and west, and intersected by the valleys of the Ashburton, Gascoyne, and Upper Murchison, all flowing westwards to the Indian Ocean. The southern section, beginning with the Middle Murchison, presents a very different aspect, of a character highly unfavourable to the development of social culture. With the exception of a few small oases with water, grass, and timber, the broad plains are here extremely unproductive, being almost entirely destitute of fresh water, and overgrown with thickets and low brushwood. There are but few mountain ranges, the elevations consisting more frequently of low disconnected hills. A prominent feature of the land are the large salt basins, containing either brackish water or else nothing but mud largely impregnated with alkalis. Many of these basins doubtless form connected river systems, though certainly of the most imperfect and defective character, such as those of the Upper Swan River, and of the Blackwood in the south; but in most cases their claim to be regarded as such has not yet been established. The western limits of these highlands towards the coast form a series of ridges, of which the most conspicuous is the Darling Range. Lastly, the S.A. highlands, which are the least in extent, stretch from the south coast northwards

along the eastern shores of the St. Vincent and Spencer Gulfs; and are limited eastwards by the lowlands, and on the north by the lacustrine region centering in Lake Torrens. Here the most important chain is the Flinders Ranges.

THE INTERIOR.—The Interior of Australia consists mainly of lowlands, which penetrate even to the coast at certain isolated points where the outer ranges are separated from each other. These lowlands are almost uniformly of an extremely unfavourable character, forming some of the most forbidding and desolate regions on the face of the globe. The flat and, rarely, hilly plains, though often interrupted by detached rocky mountains, have mainly a sandy, clayey soil of a red colour, more or less charged with salt. They are covered chiefly with thickets and "scrub" of social plants, generally with hard or prickly leaves. This "scrub," is chiefly formed of a bushy *Eucalyptus* which grows to a height of eight or ten feet, and often so densely covers the ground as to be quite impenetrable. This is the "Mallee scrub" of the explorers; while the still more dreaded "Mulga scrub" consists of a species of prickly *Acacia* which tears the clothes and wounds the flesh of the traveller. There is here, moreover, an extraordinary deficiency of water, and a total absence of springs; nothing in fact but the rare heavy downpours converting the land for the time being into an impassable swamp, which the long-continued ensuing drought again reduces to a stony consistency. Still there are sections of these lowlands presenting special individual features, besides which there exists in the very heart of the continent a connected series of upland plains and ranges, which may be grouped together as forming collectively a central Australian highland region. In the country immediately north of Spencer's Gulf is an extensive area which may be called the lake district of Australia, and which is nearly a thousand miles in length from south-east to north-west. First we have Lake Torrens, more than a hundred miles long, but not very wide. Lake Eyre farther north is much larger. To the west is the extensive Lake Gairdner, and to the east of Lake Eyre are Lakes Blanche, Gregory, and several others. All these lakes are salt, and are subject to great fluctuations in size, grassy plains being found in some years where extensive sheets of water at other times cover the country. Around them extends for the most part the dreariest country imaginable, consisting of sandy ridges, either bare or covered with scrub, and almost entirely without permanent supplies of water, although in some places small permanent springs have been discovered. Far to the north-west of Lake Eyre is the equally extensive Lake Amadeus, bordered by salt-crusts of treacherous mud which have proved disastrous to many of the explorers. To the north and north-west of Lake Eyre for ten degrees of latitude, the country is almost wholly destitute of permanent water, and this region is also marked by the

presence of the "spinifex" or porcupine grass,—a hard, coarse, and excessively spiny grass, growing in clumps or tussocks, and often covering the arid plains for hundreds of miles together. It is the greatest annoyance of the explorer, as it not only renders travelling exceedingly slow and painful, but wounds the feet of the horses so that they are often lamed or even killed by it. The tussocks are sometimes three or four feet high, they are utterly uneatable by any animal, and where they occur water is hardly ever to be found. If we draw a line from the western entrance of Spencer's Gulf on the south, to the mouth of the Victoria River in the north, we shall have on the west side of this line an almost unbroken expanse of uninhabitable country reaching to the settlements of West Australia. This vast area, extending from the north-west coast to the shores of the great Australian Bight, is, roughly speaking, about 800 miles square. It has been crossed by several explorers with the greatest difficulty; and although a few oases have been found at long intervals, its general character is that of a waterless plain interspersed with low and sometimes rocky hills, at times absolutely barren, but usually covered with dense scrub or spinifex. A little to the east of the same line, and nearly in the centre of the continent, is a group of highlands, the Macdonnell Ranges and Mount Stewart, among which are grassy plains, fertile valleys, and more or less numerous water-courses. These are continued towards the north by the Murchison and Ashburton Hills, till they merge into the northern plateau of the Victoria and Roper Rivers. Farther east is an unknown country, most of which is probably arid and uninhabitable where it is not absolutely desert, and this stretches away till we reach the more fertile plains of Western Queensland. It is thus evident that Australia abounds in basins of inland water, which, however, are mostly saline and are seldom flooded all the year round. They also differ from other lakes, in so far as they depend for their supplies mainly on the rainy monsoons, possessing no regular influents or even surface springs, and lying mostly in the centre of waterless, stony deserts. For Australia, in this respect more African than Africa itself, is essentially the land of wastes and steppes. As its most elevated regions lie to the windward of the continent, the trade-winds in surmounting these lofty ranges already lose a large portion of their moisture before reaching the interior. Hence the steppes begin to close to the western slopes of the eastern coast ranges. At first well watered grazing grounds, such as the Darling Downs, they gradually become drier and drier as we proceed westwards. The air is further heated in the heart of the continent by contact with the burning soil, preventing the condensation of the humidity that still remains in the easterly winds. Of constant recurrence in the journals of the wearied travellers crossing the interior of the continent is the remark, that the clouds gather, the heavens become overcast,

threatening a downpour every moment, but always with the same disappointing result. The clouds disperse before the vapours are sufficiently condensed to produce rain. The heated ground raises the temperature of the superincumbent air to such a degree that the already perceptible moisture is again dissolved into vapour. The fatal consequence is, that Australia possesses nothing but coast streams or intermittent water-courses in the interior, and although it appears on the maps as a large island, the heart of the country is occupied by deserts as arid as those of the great continents.

RIVERS.—Foremost among the river-valleys is the region of the Murray and Darling in the south-east of the continent, forming jointly a water system worthy to be compared with those of the Old and New Worlds. Like the Amazon, it sends out forks and ramifications crossing many degrees of latitude and longitude, and it gathers its waters from the most opposite quarters. All the inland rivers of E. and S.A., between the 26th and 36th parallels drain into one or other of the two main streams, whose joint course stretches across thirteen degrees of the meridian, forming a triangle the points of which might be represented in Europe by the cities of Turin, Königsberg and Belgrade. The volume of water flowing through the winding beds of these rivers and creeks, though at times swollen to enormous proportions, is usually far from considerable, and occasionally for months together very limited. As in this continent generally, the scenery of the Murray is cast on very grand lines. Pleasant, undulating, and graceful curves stretching away for interminable distances, and retaining the same character for days together, are succeeded in one place by bold mountain masses, in another by boundless plains, vast as the ocean, and relieved only by the shimmering and hazy reflection of some distant tree, or by the equally deceptive image of a few stunted shrubs exaggerated out of all proportion by the mirage and other atmospheric illusions. Seen from its high banks, the river presents almost everywhere the picture of a majestic stream, the grandeur of which is often enhanced by the numerous channels, lakes, and lagoons, adding animation to the surrounding riverain scenery. Nevertheless, this region consists largely of dreary, waterless plains, generally covered with dense bush, rarely relieved by low woodlands and open glades. It forms two distinct sections, that of the Murray on the south and the Darling on the north. The former, which is the most important of all Australian streams, rises in the Warragongs or Australian Alps, and after receiving the waters of the Goulburn and Loddon, is joined by the Murrumbidgee, swollen by the Lachlan from the north-east, whenever that stream does not run dry. A little farther on it forms a confluence with the Darling, also from the north-east, and which, like the Murray, is itself formed by the union of two head streams, collecting all the

waters flowing from the western slopes of the New England and other coast ranges. On the east coast the Fitzroy and Burdekin rivers are the most important, the latter draining an extensive area in a north and south direction, and about 200 miles inland. The northern rivers are numerous, but not important. The Flinders, which enters at the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria, is the most extensive, its tributaries having their sources in the elevated country about 300 miles to the south and south-east. In the north-west the only rivers of importance are the Roper and the Victoria, which flow through an elevated country, through deep gorges and among magnificent scenery, and the lower courses of which are navigable for considerable distances. On the west coast there are no rivers of importance; for though several of them have courses of 200 or 300 miles, they scarcely exist in dry seasons, and are only navigable for boats for very short distances. In the south there is a complete absence of rivers from near King George's Sound to Spencer's Gulf. The drainage of the interior is effected by numerous creeks and watercourses which only run after periods of rain, and which either lose themselves in the desert or terminate in some of the depressions which form the salt lakes. The most extensive of these inland rivers are the Barcoo and the Finke, which flow into Lake Eyre from the north-east and north-west respectively. These drain a great extent of country, but usually form mere series of water-holes. The rivers of Australia are, almost without exception, subject to excessive irregularities of drought and flood. In the eastern half of the continent especially, great floods occur at long intervals, when rivers rise suddenly, overflow their banks, and carry devastation over wide areas. At other times the rains fail for years together, and rivers which are usually deep and rapid streams become totally dried up. The state of the country is then deplorable; not a blade of grass is to be seen, and cattle perish in great numbers. A tract of country may thus be described as a flooded marsh, a fertile plain, or a burnt-up desert, according to what happens to be the character of the seasons at the period when it is visited.

CLIMATE.—Although Australia is such an extensive country, and is divided between the tropical and temperate zones, it has nevertheless much less variety of climate than might be supposed. It may generally be described as hot and dry, and, on the whole, exceedingly healthy. In the tropical portions the rains occur in the summer, or from November to April; while in the temperate districts they are almost wholly confined to the winter months. The greatest quantity of rain falls on the east coast, being 50 inches at Sydney, diminishing considerably inland, so that at Bathurst (96 miles from the sea) it is only 23 inches, at Deniliquin (287 miles) 20 inches, and at Wentworth (476 miles) 14 inches. In the south, at Melbourne, and Adelaide, the rain is about 25 and 20 inches;

in Western Australia about 30 inches ; in Queensland from 40 to 80 inches on the coast, but much less at a moderate distance inland. From Rockingham Bay northwards the rains are tropical. The temperature of course varies greatly with latitude and position. In the extreme south, at Melbourne, the temperature varies from about 30° to 100° Fahr. in the shade, the mean being 58°, or the same as Lisbon. At Sydney the mean is about 5° higher. At Adelaide, though farther south, the mean temperature is somewhat greater than at Sydney ; while at Perth, farther north, it is about the same. South Australia and Victoria, and in a less degree New South Wales, are subject to hot winds from the interior of a most distressing character, resembling the blast from a furnace. The thermometer then rises to 115°, and occasionally even higher when extensive bush fires increase the heat. Sometimes the hot winds are succeeded by a cold south wind of extreme violence, the thermometer falling 60° or 70° in a few hours. In the desert interior these hot winds, nearer to their source, are still more severe. On one occasion Captain Sturt hung a thermometer on a tree shaded both from the sun and wind. It was graduated to 127° Fahr., yet the mercury rose till it burst the tube ! The heat of the air must therefore have been at least 128°, probably the highest temperature recorded in any part of the world, and one which, if long continued, would certainly destroy life. The constant heat and drought for months together in the interior are often excessive. For three months Captain Sturt found the mean temperature to be over 101° Fahr. in the shade ; and the drought during this period was such that every screw came out of their boxes, the horn handles of instruments and combs split up into fine laminæ, the lead dropped out of pencils, their hair and the wool of the sheep ceased to grow, and their finger nails became brittle as glass. Notwithstanding the extreme heat and sudden changes of temperature, the climate of most parts of Australia is universally admitted to be exceptionally healthy. Epidemic diseases are almost unknown, and the death-rate for the whole white population is under 19 per thousand, that of England and Wales being 25. On the east coast, sea-breezes during the day render the heat less oppressive, while in the winter westerly winds prevail. On the west coast, the heat and dryness of summer are also tempered by sea-breezes and by occasional showers and thunderstorms : while in the four winter months north-west winds prevail, accompanied by abundant rains. Although subject to great occasional irregularities, the climate of Australia in the temperate zone is on the whole equable, storms and electrical disturbances being less frequent than in England.

WINDS.—In order to comprehend the nature and causes of the winds in this country, it will be well to consider, first, what would take place if the greater part of Australia were sunk beneath the ocean. The trade-wind would then blow

steadily over the northern portions from the south-east, and above it a steady return current would blow to the south-east, while strong westerly and southerly winds would prevail over the southern half of the country. Into this system of aerial currents Australia introduces an enormous disturbing element, of which the great interior plains, and the main chain of mountains running along the east coast, form the most active agencies in modifying the winds. The former, almost treeless and waterless, acts in summer like a great oven with more than tropical heating power, and becomes the chief motor force of Australian winds, by causing an uprush, and consequent inrush on all sides, especially on the north-west, where it has sufficient power to draw the north-east trade-wind over the equator and convert it into a north-west monsoon ; which has the effect of obliterating the south-east trades properly belonging to this region. The north-west monsoon being heated in the interior, rises up and forms part of the great return current from the equator towards the south pole. That there is a constant overhead current from north-west to south-east may be traced, day after day and month after month, by the small clouds which mark its lower limits passing in ceaseless streams to the south-east. The height of this current is generally about 5000 feet, but it is sometimes much lower, so that occasionally it is possible to fly a kite at Sydney, which rises into it and is carried away to the south-east, while the sea-breeze below is blowing from the east or north-east. These sea-breezes are also due, primarily, to the inflow towards the heated interior, but meeting with the mountain ranges they are usually diverted towards the south-west, and thus appear as north-east winds, a diversion partly caused by the friction of the great north-west current overhead. When the monsoon is most violent it carries off much of the sea-breeze with it, producing a depression of the barometer, when southerly winds rush in till the barometer rises again. Thunder and lightning usually follow these changes. The heated north-west monsoon has been felt in T. at a height of 5000 feet. In winter the heating influence of the interior ceases, the trade-winds move farther north, and the normal westerly winds prevail with storms and rain from the south. The well known southerly "bursters" are violent storms of wind occurring in summer (November to February,) when the weather is fine and hot with a north-east breeze. If then the barometer falls fast in the forenoon, a "burster" may be expected before night, usually accompanied by thunder and much electrical excitement. Its approach is indicated by an appearance as if a thin sheet of cloud were being rolled up before the advancing wind. Clouds of dust, which penetrate everywhere, announce the coming of the wind, which reaches its greatest violence in an hour or two, varying from thirty to seventy miles an hour, though sometimes reaching ninety, and on one occasion 150, when great damage was done. The

change is sometimes very sudden. It may be a fresh north-east breeze, and in ten minutes a violent gale from the south. They usually end with a thunderstorm and rain. In the autumn (February) the rainfall accompanying these storms is often excessive. On the 25th February, 1873, nearly nine inches of rain fell in about the same number of hours. At Newcastle, on the 18th March, 1871, the heaviest rainfall ever recorded in Australia occurred; ten and a half inches of rain falling in two and a half hours, accompanied by a fearful squall of wind and rain with thunder and lightning. During the whole storm more than twenty inches of rain fell in twenty-two hours. The hot winds, which are another remarkable feature of the meteorology of Australia, occur in N.S.W. usually from three to seven or eight times during the summer; but many more pass overhead, their only effect being a rise in the temperature. The temperature at Sydney varies from 80° to 110° , though it rarely reaches 100° . These winds are felt over the whole east and south of Australia, and they are even said to be distinctly perceptible as far as New Zealand. The hot wind generally comes on in the forenoon and lasts all day; but sometimes it only blows for an hour or two. It is preceded by very fine weather, with a gradually falling barometer and a diminishing sea-breeze. It sometimes passes away quietly, but is more usually ended by the southerly "busters" already described. Hot winds are oppressive, but not absolutely injurious to health, yet their effect on vegetable life is very marked. Plants all droop, and those with tender leaves shrivel up as if frost-bitten; and there is one instance on record in which all the wheat was destroyed over thirty miles of country on the Hunter River. In Victoria, and especially in South Australia, the hot winds are more frequent and last longer, and their effects are more injurious. They are evidently produced by the sinking down to the surface of that north-westerly current of heated air which, as we have seen, is always passing overhead. The exact causes that bring it down cannot be determined, though it evidently depends on the comparative pressures of the atmosphere on the coast and in the interior. Where from any causes the north-west wind becomes more extensive and more powerful, or the sea-breezes diminish, the former will displace the latter and produce a hot wind till an equilibrium is restored. It is this same wind passing constantly overhead that prevents the condensation of vapour, and is the cause of the almost uninterrupted sunny skies of the Australian summer. There is only one instance known of snow having fallen so as to lie on the ground in Sydney. On the 28th June, 1836, it snowed for half an hour, and lay on the ground in places for an hour. In other parts of the colony, however, the case is different. On the southern mountains and table-lands three feet of snow sometimes falls in a day, and in 1876 a man was lost in the snow on the borders of Gippsland

and N.S.W. In the Maneroo plains east of the Australian Alps in July, 1834, a snowstorm lasted three weeks, and on the mountains the snow lay from four to fifteen feet deep, burying the cattle in groups. The higher parts of the railway from Sydney to Bathurst have been seen covered with snow for forty miles continuously. At Kiandra in the Australian Alps, one of the highest and coldest towns of N.S.W., and 4600 feet above the sea, snow falls continually from May to November, sometimes for a month together. Many of the higher mountains are covered with snow all the winter, and in many of the valleys and ravines near the summits snow lies in patches all the summer. Below the summit of Mount Kosciusko a bed of snow forty feet thick was found on the longest day, and it accumulates in such large masses that some may always be seen from any elevated point commanding a good view of the higher mountains. On Mount Kosciusko it even forms glacier masses in the deep ravines, which are more or less permanent. Even at heights of 5000 feet, in situations favourable for the accumulation of snow, it remains all the year. Yet the highest mountain (7175 feet) is considerably below the line of perpetual snow for this latitude, since on Mont Blanc, nine degrees farther from the equator, the snow-line is 8500 feet above the sea. The difference is probably due to the presence of the warm oceanic current supplying abundance of moisture from below, while the rapid radiation through a pure and usually clear atmosphere above, lowers the temperature so as to condense the vapour into snow; thus affording an illustration of the well-known maxim, that heat to produce an ample supply of vapours is essential to the production of excessive falls of snow. The rainfall in all parts of Australia is very unequal, but less so on the west and south coasts than on the east and in the interior. At Sydney the annual rainfall has varied from twenty-two to eighty-two inches; the consequence of such irregularity being that the country is subject to alternations of droughts and floods. In the table-land west of the main range, and twenty-five miles south-west of Goulburn, at an elevation of 2260 feet above the sea, is situated Lake George. In 1824 it was twenty miles long and eight miles wide, enclosed by thickly-wooded steep hills. It gradually diminished in size, till about 1837 it became quite dry and was converted into a grassy plain. After a few years it gradually filled again, till in 1865 it was seventeen feet deep. Two years later it was only two feet deep; but in 1876 it was again twenty miles long and about twenty feet deep, and the old water-marks show that it has sometimes reached three feet higher. On the east coast of New South Wales hardly any rain fell in the years 1814 and 1815; and again in 1827, 1828, and 1829, there was a long period of drought, during which the beds of deep and rapid streams became dry for miles. Every blade of grass was destroyed over large tracts of country, and cattle perished by thousands. At intervals of a few years similar

droughts have occurred; in 1878 one of great severity. Alternating with these droughts are disastrous floods, caused by the enormous and sudden rainfalls already referred to. On 22nd March, 1806, the Hawkesbury river rose in some places ninety-three feet above its ordinary level. In 1809 there was another and greater flood; and in 1867 the river rose sixty-three feet at Richmond. Similar floods occur in the Hunter, Darling, Murray, and Murrumbidgee.

[NOTE.—The foregoing description of the continent is slightly abridged from that given in Wallace's "Australasia" (1879,) as being the latest and, scientifically speaking, the most authoritative account of Australia yet given to the world.]

ZOOLOGY, BOTANY, AND GEOLOGY.—For an account of the zoology of the continent see the article FAUNA; for the botany see FLORA; and for the geology see GEOLOGY.

HISTORY.—As the story of each of the Australian navigators will be given under its proper head, only a brief general summary is added here. Although first visited by French navigators, later on by the Dutch and Spaniards, and last of all by the English, this nation alone has established itself in Australia, and claims undisputed possession of all the mainland. The physical aspect of the land, as already described, sufficiently explains the fact that other less foreseeing peoples felt little inclination to make permanent settlements in a country which produced neither marketable slaves, nor spices, nor apparently any of the precious metals—nothing in fact but rich pasturages. Hence, when gold was discovered in 1851, drawing universal attention to the region, as it had to California a short time previously, other nationalities found that it was too late to form independent settlements anywhere on this continent, which had already been either permanently settled by the enterprising Anglo-Saxon race, or else formally declared to be attached to the Crown of England. Since that event the progress of discovery has been very rapid, and British colonies have been everywhere established, some of which have already risen to a high degree of material prosperity under the fostering influence of enlightened institutions modelled on those of the "mother of empires." The whole of the mainland is now parcelled out into five such colonies; more or less extensive tracts on the seaboard being actually inhabited, while much of the desert interior remains desolate and unpeopled. Each of these colonies possesses a separate administration under a special governor appointed by the Crown, and two Houses of Parliament, in most cases freely elected by the people. So practically independent and yet so loyally attached to the mother country, are these colonies, that for some years past the regular troops have been withdrawn, their immunity from foreign aggression being secured partly by bodies of local volunteers, but perhaps still more by the silent influence of the tremendous power symbolised by the presence of the British flag. The financial

condition of the colonies is extremely satisfactory the revenue being in most cases considerably in excess of the expenditure. Liberty of conscience is everywhere established as in England, and as in that country the Protestants are in a large majority. But the religious sentiment is perhaps less active than either in England or in America. Science and art, as might be expected, are still somewhat backward, nor is popular education as forward as it might be, while the industries are still in their infancy; hence many of the wants of the colonists are still supplied from the mother country. Under the name of Jave la Grand, Australia is represented on French maps dating as early as 1542; and a Provençal pilot named Guillaume le Testu, whose name is appended to a map dated 1555, is believed to have been its discoverer. But the earliest distinct reference to Australia in any book is the following passage from the *Descriptionis Ptolemæice Augmentum*, by Cornelius Wytfliet, printed at Louvain in 1598:—"The *Australis Terra* is the most southern of all lands, and is separated from New Guinea by a narrow strait. Its shores are hitherto but little known, since after one voyage and another that route has been deserted, and seldom is the country visited, unless when sailors are driven there by storms. The *Australis Terra* begins at one or two degrees from the equator, and is ascertained by some to be of so great an extent, that if it were thoroughly explored it would be regarded as a fifth part of the world. It is evident, therefore, that the northern part of the country was tolerably well known long before Torres." (WALLACE.) The precise period of the discovery is doubtful. In 1606 Fernandes de Quiros, a Portuguese navigator, sighted what he believed to be some part of what is now called Australia, naming it Terra Australia del Espíritu Santo, but which is now considered to have been one of the islands of the New Hebrides; and Torres, in the same year, sailed through the straits separating New Guinea from the continent, and skirted the mainland at its northernmost extremity. Both vessels had originally formed a part of the same expedition. About the same time, the Dutch ship the *Duyfhen* found its way from Java into the Gulf of Carpentaria. Some of its crew landed and were killed by the natives. In 1616 Dirk Hartog coasted along the north-west portion of the continent, and named it the Land of Concord. In 1618 Zaachen further explored this coast. In 1619 Captain Jan Edels explored the western side of the island, and named a portion of what is now W.A. The south-western extremity of Australia was discovered in 1622 by the captain of a Dutch ship, and by him named Cape Leenwin (Lioness) after his vessel. In 1628 General Carpenter, in the employ of the Dutch East India Company, explored and called after himself a part of the Gulf of Carpentaria, and in 1642 Tasmania was discovered and named by Abel Jansen Tasman, who shortly afterwards also discovered and named the islands of N.Z. In the year 1664 the continent

received the name of New Holland. In 1669 Dampier, in the *Roebuck*, visited and explored the north-west coast of W.A. In 1770 N.Z. was visited by Captain Cook, and in April of the same year a point of land at the southern extremity of the continent was sighted and named by him, and soon after Cape Howe, Port Jackson, and other prominent features were discovered and named, and formal possession was taken by the hoisting of the British flag. In 1788 the first settlement in Australia was formed at Botany Bay, in N.S.W. In 1803 Tasmania or Van Diemen's Land was first settled as a penal colony, Lieutenant Bowen being sent from Sydney with a few soldiers and convicts, encamping on the spot upon which Hobart Town now stands. In 1825 Queensland, under the name of Moreton Bay, was settled as a portion of N.S.W., being raised into a separate colony in December 1859. The Swan River Settlement, the first settlement of W.A., was formed in 1829. In 1851 it became a penal settlement, and so continued until 1868, when transportation ceased. Victoria, then known as Port Phillip, and forming part of N.S.W., was first colonised in 1834, partly from N.S.W., partly from T. (although a convict settlement had been attempted and abandoned so early as 1803,) and on 1st July 1851 the colony was separated from its parent, N.S.W. South Australia was colonised by emigrants from Great Britain in 1836, and N.Z. in 1838, although the first settlement of Europeans was made there in 1814. In 1840 N.Z. was separated from N.S.W., and made into a distinct colony. The Fiji Islands, which have been settled on for some years past by English, Australians, and Americans, for the cultivation of cotton, were ceded to Great Britain in 1874, Sir Hercules Robinson, Governor of N.S.W., taking formal possession from the native King Thakombau.

EXPLORATION. (See the article EXPLORERS.)

PROGRESS.—In 1788 the first settlement in Australia, consisting of 1030 persons, was formed at Botany Bay. At the end of 1876 the aggregate population in A. and N.Z. was estimated at 2,414,733, of whom 1,332,802 were males and 1,081,931 were females. The births during the year were 85,429, the deaths 38,788, and the marriages 16,958. As regards the nationality of the people, the principal proportion of them are, as might be expected, from the British Islands. The native-born population are now a large section. After these come the Chinese, who, on the goldfields, and particularly in Northern Queensland, are very numerous. Next in numbers to these is the German element, which, in some parts, especially of South Australia and Queensland, is largely represented. The number of immigrants who proceeded from the United Kingdom to A. and N.Z. from 1825, when the first official returns commenced, to the end of 1877, is stated at 1,186,699; more than one-third of that number were sent out at the expense of

colonial funds, or under the direct control of the Emigration Commissioners, between the years 1840 and 1869 inclusive. The number of immigrants who arrived in the colonies during 1876 was 131,805. Of these 26,404 had the whole or part of their passage paid; the rest received no assistance from the emigration funds. The birth-rate per 1000 for the year 1876 was—T., 29·85; V., 31·85; W.A., 33·60; Q., 36·89; N.S.W., 36·69; S.A., 38·33; and N.Z., 40·51. That of England and Wales is usually stated at 35·5. The death-rate for the year was—N.Z., 12·28; W.A., 14·01; S.A., 14·19; V., 16·13; T., 16·40; N.S.W. 17·77; and Q., 18·53. In England and Wales the rate on an average of thirty years appears to be 22·3.

RESOURCES.—The staple productions of Australia are gold, copper, tin, wool, and other pastoral products, and meat. Gold was first discovered in N.S.W., in May, 1851. Since then it has been found, more or less, in all the colonies, especially V., Q., and N.Z. It is estimated that one-third of V., or about 28,942 square miles, contains gold-bearing rocks. These rocks occur also throughout the eastern side of N.S.W., farther north in Q., and scattered over the middle and north-western part of the Middle Island, and the north-eastern part of the North Island, of N.Z.; but no estimate has been formed of the extent of auriferous land in any of the last-mentioned colonies. There are extensive coal-fields in N.S.W., N.Z., and Q. Coal is found also in V., but no payable seams have yet been developed. S.A. is known for the rich copper and silver mines she possesses. Tin mines of great value have been opened in Q., and rich deposits of excellent iron ore have lately been found in T. Other valuable ores and minerals have been found, as well as diamonds and precious stones, in different parts of the continent and islands. Wool, however, is the general and great staple. For the production of wool of excellent quality the Australian pastures are unrivalled, and it is considered that there is something in the climate that improves the fleece. In all the colonies—except, perhaps, the districts within the tropics, and some parts of W.A.—sheep depastured on the natural grasses improve in a remarkable manner. Other important articles of export are preserved meat, tallow, skins, hides, wheat, cotton, tobacco, and wine. Besides these exported products, the cereals of Europe, and maize, have been extensively cultivated. Barley and oats are generally grown for making hay, but lucerne is mostly preferred. Potatoes yield abundantly. The native fruits are few and unimportant, but nearly all the valuable fruit trees of Europe, and many belonging to the semi-tropical and tropical climates, have been introduced with great success; and luscious fruits, beautiful flowers, and good culinary vegetables prevail all over the colonies. The cultivation of sugar and cotton is in progress in Q., the north-eastern part of N.S.W., and Fiji; and tobacco is grown by the settlers in many parts, and is mostly used as sheepwash, not being able to compete with

American produce. The indigenous trees are of great variety and abundance, and the timber they yield is strong, durable, admirably adapted for constructive purposes, and, in many cases, beautiful. Palms and ferns grow in some parts, and flax abounds in N.Z. On 31st March, 1878, there were 5,259,182 acres of land under cultivation. The average yield per acre was :—Wheat, 11'69 bushels; oats, 26'34 bushels; barley, 19'69 bushels; maize, 31'93 bushels; potatoes, 3'38 tons; hay, 1'17 tons. In N.Z. the average yield of all the cereal and root crops was considerably higher than in the other colonies, owing to its colder climate. In addition to the crops above enumerated, large areas were utilised for the growth of tobacco, arrowroot, cotton, bananas, the sugarcane, and other productions not cultivated in Great Britain. The aggregate stock returns of the seven Colonies, at the end of 1877, were :—934,903 horses, 7,124,678 horned cattle, 57,767,770 sheep, and 730,184 pigs. The total number of stock of all descriptions to the square mile was 21'44. At the close of the same year 69,129,855 acres of Crown lands had been either sold or disposed of by land grants. The purchase money varied from 5s. 7½d. (W. A.) to £1 13s. 7¾d. (V.) the average price being about 18s. per acre. The extent of unalienated land at the end of 1877 was 1,917,367,745 acres.

SUMMARY TABLES.

I.—POPULATION.

Colonies.	Area. English Sq. Miles.	Population. Dec. 31, 1877.	Average Number of Individuals per Sq. Mile.
New South Wales	323,437	662,212	2
New Zealand ...	104,900	417,622	4
Queensland ...	669,520	195,092	$\frac{1}{3}$
South Australia ...	903,690	225,677	$\frac{1}{4}$
Tasmania ...	26,215	107,104	4
Victoria ...	88,198	867,634	10
Western Australia	1,057,250	27,876	$\frac{1}{8}$
Total ...	3,173,210	2,503,217	1

II.—FOREIGN COMMERCE.

Colonies.	Total Imports in 1877.	Total Exports in 1877.	Total Commerce in 1877.
	£	£	£
New South Wales	14,606,594	13,125,819	27,732,413
New Zealand ...	6,973,418	6,329,251	13,302,669
Queensland ...	3,201,665	3,615,685	6,817,450
South Australia ...	4,105,634	4,792,657	8,897,291
Tasmania ...	1,308,671	1,416,975	2,725,646
Victoria... ..	16,362,304	15,157,687	31,519,911
Western Australia	362,706	373,351	736,057
Total ...	46,920,992	44,811,425	91,732,417

III.—TRADE WITH GREAT BRITAIN.

Colonies.	Imports from Great Britain in 1877.	Exports to Great Britain in 1877.	Total trade with Great Britain in 1877.
	£	£	£
New South Wales	5,415,217	5,126,872	10,542,089
New Zealand ...	3,320,121	3,720,093	7,040,214
Queensland ...	1,072,891	976,840	2,049,731
South Australia ...	2,338,439	2,624,992	4,963,431
Tasmania ...	269,125	497,769	766,894
Victoria... ..	6,724,495	8,584,299	15,308,794
Western Australia	145,430	177,277	322,707
Total ...	19,285,718	21,708,142	40,993,860

IV.—FINANCES.

Colonies.	Public Revenue in 1877.	Public Expenditure in 1877.	Public Debt, 31st December, 1877.
	£	£	£
New South Wales	5,751,879	5,530,056	12,539,910
New Zealand ...	3,790,545	3,822,426	20,691,111
Queensland ...	1,212,530	1,205,671	5,253,286
South Australia ...	1,491,225	1,415,703	4,337,000
Tasmania ...	361,771	348,650	1,589,705
Victoria... ..	4,855,666	4,979,762	17,011,382
Western Australia	165,412	182,159	161,000
Total ...	17,629,028	17,484,427	61,583,394

V.—AGRICULTURE.

Colonies.	Land under Cultivation in 1877.	Cattle in 1877.	Sheep in 1877.
	Acres.	Number.	Number.
New South Wales	513,840	2,746,385	20,962,244
New Zealand ...	787,826	494,917	11,704,853
Queensland ...	85,569	2,079,995	7,316,910
South Australia ...	1,514,916	219,480	6,197,880
Tasmania ...	332,558	126,882	1,818,125
Victoria ...	1,420,502	1,174,176	10,114,267
Western Australia	45,933	54,050	899,494
Total ...	4,701,144	6,895,885	59,013,773

VI.—COMMUNICATION.

Colonies.	Railways open for Traffic in 1877.	Lines of Telegraph in 1877.	Shipping Inwards and Outwards in 1876.
	Miles.	Miles.	Tons.
New South Wales	650	8,472	2,127,725
New Zealand ...	718	3,170	786,514
Queensland ...	298	4,633	874,342
South Australia ...	292	4,150	732,330
Tasmania ...	175	850	277,484
Victoria ...	931	2,885	1,657,088
Western Australia	78	1,567	154,126
Total ...	3,142	25,727	6,609,609

AUSTRALIA DEL ESPIRITU SANTO (Australia of the Holy Spirit,) the name given by Quiros to the land which he supposed was the great southern continent, but now universally held by geographers to have been one of the New Hebrides Islands.

AUSTRALIA FELIX, the name given by Mitchell to the Port Phillip District, now V., in his overland expedition in 1836. He says: "We traversed in two directions, with heavy carts, meeting no other obstruction than the softness of the soil, and, in returning over flowery plains, and green hills fanned by the breezes of early spring, I named this region **AUSTRALIA FELIX**, the better to distinguish it from the parched deserts of the interior country, where we had wandered so unprofitably and so long." The designation has never been officially adopted.

AUSTRALIAN AGRICULTURAL COMPANY, founded in London in 1824. Its objects were the production of pure merino wool as an export to Great Britain; the cultivation of the olive, vine, and such other productions as might be adapted to the soil and climate; to encourage and assist the emigration of useful settlers and female servants, and to promote a system of useful industry. The amount of capital to be invested was £1,000,000 sterling, divided into 10,000 shares of £10 each; and in return for the outlay the Company was to receive a grant of land in the colony to the extent of a million acres. Amongst the principal members of the company were the Attorney-General and Solicitor-General of England, twenty-eight members of Parliament, including Lord Brougham, Joseph Hume, the Governor, Deputy-Governor, and eight directors of the Bank of England, the Chairman and Deputy-Chairman and five directors of the East India Company, besides many other eminent bankers and merchants in England. All the shares were speedily taken up except 500, which were reserved. Sir Edward Parry, the Arctic Navigator, arrived in Sydney with Lady Parry, from London, in the *William*, to take charge of the Company's property in N.S.W. 24th December 1829. Operations on a large scale had been commenced in 1825. The Government transferred to the Company, on very easy terms, the coal mines at Newcastle; but this monopoly was given up in 1847. The Company is still in active existence, but no very marked success nor very serious disaster has marked its career. The granting of the coal monopoly was an act of short-sightedness and improvidence on the part of the Government.

AUSTRALIAN ALPS, a range of lofty mountains, part of the E. portion of the great Dividing range, extending E. and W. for about seventy miles, forming the dividing line between Gipps Land and the Murray district. It has numerous spurs to the N. and S., the principal of which are the Bogongs and the Buckland and Benambra ranges, all running N., and the Limestone and Birregun ranges to the S. The principal peaks are Mount

Kosciusko (6510 feet high,) Mount Selwyn, the Twins, Mount Smyth, Mount Tambo, Forest hill, and the Cobboras. The ranges are covered with snow for the greater part of the year, and have passages over the shoulders of some of the lower levels. Some of the peaks are from 5000 to 6000 feet above the level of the sea, and are laid down on nautical charts as "snowy mountains visible twenty-five leagues at sea." The ranges are covered with large timber, scrub, and heath, of various kinds. Numerous creeks rise in the gullies, and are fed by the snow which melts nearly all the year round. These mountains were first seen by Hume and Hovell on 6th November 1824, and were explored and named by Strzelecki in 1839.

AUSTRALIAN BIGHT, the great indentation on the southern coast of the continent, extending from the Recherche Archipelago to Spencer Gulf. The coast line is, for the most part, cliffs of from 400 to 600 feet high, and the country inland is the terrible riverless and arid desert traversed by Eyre.

AUSTRALIAN PYRENEES, a conspicuous mountain range in V., the westernmost part of the broad and irregular system which traverses the colony from east to west. They were first seen, and named after the celebrated European mountains, by Mitchell, in his overland journey in 1836.

AUSTRALIND, the name first given to the settlement at Swan River, W.A., by the immigrants of 1829. It is now the name of a small post-town in the district of Wellington, seven miles from the port of Bunbury. Auriferous quartz has been found in the vicinity.

AVOCA, a mining township in V., situated on the river of the same name, six miles E. of the Pyrenees range, and 120 miles N.W. of Melbourne. Both alluvial and quartz mining are carried on in the district, but not to any considerable extent; and the plain, at the base of the Pyrenees, is well adapted for agriculture.

AVON RIVER (also called the Dunlop,) is a fine stream in Gippsland, V., rising in Mount Wellington, and flowing S.S.E., about fifty miles, into Lake Wellington. It is very wide and deep for a distance of about twelve miles to the Nuntin Plains, below which it averages about twenty feet in depth and 120 yards in width. It is but seldom flooded, and then only for a short time, although the upper parts have risen to a height of twenty-five feet above summer level, inundating all the plains beneath. It is fed by several creeks and the Perry River, the junction of which, at one mile from its mouth, forms a navigable estuary. The overflow of the Avon forms a swamp at its mouth, known as the Clydebank morass. The township of Stratford, and the police head-quarters, are situated on this river, and the country through which it flows, for the greater part of its length, consists of open forest of gum and stringy-bark, with fine agricultural land. There is a remarkable cliff of red clay on the east bank. It stands in an overhanging precipice, and is corrugated by the trickling

of the rain into numberless columns, the water below appearing quite red, from the shadow cast down by the red cliff above. (2.) A river in the Wimmera district, V., having its source in the Bald Hills. It flows in a N.W. direction nearly fifty miles, and empties itself into a swampy lake having no outlet, named Buloke. It is periodically supplied by Richardson River, and Middle and Irwell creeks, and subsides in the dry seasons into a chain of waterholes. (3.) A river in W.A., which falls into the Swan at its junction with the Toodyay.

AYERS, SIR HENRY (1821—) was brought up to the law, and came to S.A. in 1840, where he continued to follow his profession until 1845, when he took the management of the Burra Mines. In 1857 he was elected a Member of the Legislative Council; joined the Dutton Ministry, without office, from 4th July to 15th July, 1863, when he formed a Ministry, of which he was Chief Secretary and Premier, which position he retained until August 1864; until March, 1865, he was a member of the Blyth Ministry; to September, 1865, in the Dutton Ministry; and, until October, 1865, in his own Ministry, retaining the Chief Secretaryship; he formed another Ministry in May 1867, which lasted until September 1868; and, for a seventh time, in a Ministry which existed until November 1868; he was again in office from January 1872 till July 1873; and from July 1876 until October 1877 in the Colton Ministry; as Chief Secretary on every occasion. He was knighted in 1872.

B.

BABBAGE, BENJAMIN HERSCHEL, explorer and Government geologist to S.A., was sent out with an exploring party in 1856 to examine the country N. and E. of Adelaide for gold. He found no indications of the precious metal. In a second expedition the same year, accompanied by Bonney and three miners, he made a further search to the north of Adelaide, by way of Mount Remarkable and beyond the head of Spencer's Gulf, to Mount Arden and Mount Seale. In October he discovered a fine stream of water which he called after the Governor, "Macdonald Creek." In 1858 Babbage started on a third expedition, with a well-equipped party. He left Adelaide in February, intending to proceed to the N.W. Babbage discovered the remains of Coulthard, who was lost in March 1853, near Steep's station, Mount Remarkable; examined the whole eastern shore of Lake Gairdner, Lake Finnis, Lake Blyth, Lake Macfarlane; the eastern and western shores of the Island Lagoon or "Great Salt Lake," and Red Lake, Lake Heart, Lake Hanson, Lake Younghusband, Lake Reynolds, &c. Some of these had been previously discovered by Macfarlane, Seymour, and Smith when searching

for country. Major Warburton (with Charles Gregory as second in command) was sent out to recall and supersede Babbage, and reached him on the western shore of Lake Gregory in November, 1858. In searching for Babbage, Warburton found Mount Hamilton and some fine springs.

BACKHOUSE, JAMES, a Quaker missionary, who visited Australia in 1832, and spent six years in traversing the various colonies. He arrived in Hobart Town 9th February, stayed two years in V.D.L., and went in succession to N.S.W., Norfolk Island, S. Australia, and W. Australia. He was accompanied by George Washington Walker, who subsequently settled in Hobart Town. They were devoted ministers of the Gospel, and thoroughly estimable men, moved by purely Christian and philanthropic impulses. They traversed most of the territory on foot, holding religious services wherever they could find opportunity. Backhouse returned to Europe in 1838, and wrote a "Narrative" of his journeys, which is one of the most interesting works on Australia given to the world up till that date. (London: 1843.)

BACKSTAIRS PASSAGE, a narrow strait lying between the mainland of S.A. and Kangaroo Island, and leading from the ocean to Gulf St. Vincent. The tides in this passage run very strongly, as rapidly as five knots on some occasions, and it is supposed that the flood from the W. and the ebb from the E. meet somewhere near a group of small rocks, lying in the passage known as the Pages. The Yatala bank or shoal lies in the S. part of this passage, eight miles N. of Cape Willoughby. The narrowest part of Backstairs Passage measures nearly eight miles in width from Cape Jervis to the nearest point of Kangaroo Island, and has soundings varying from twelve to twenty-two fathoms between the shores.

BAIRD PLAINS, in the district of Wellington, N.S.W., near the Lachlan River, were named by Oxley, after General Sir David Baird, to whom Colonel Molle once acted as aide-de-camp, and whose glory he shared in the Peninsular campaign.

BAKER, EZEKIEL ALEXANDER (1823—) came to N.S.W. in 1853 as mineralogist to a mining company. He was, in 1860, at Lambing Flat goldfield at the time of the Chinese riots. He refused to take part in the attempt to drive the Chinese off the goldfield by physical force, but was yet chosen by the miners to proceed to Sydney with a petition to Governor Young, not to proclaim martial law at Burrangong, as had been threatened. In 1870 he was elected to the Assembly for the Southern Goldfields, and re-elected eight times. The same year he was appointed a member of the Goldfields Committee. On the resignation of Garrett as Minister for Lands in the Robertson Ministry in 1877, Baker accepted office in his place. This Ministry fell in March of that year, and, Robertson forming a new administration, Baker took office as

Minister for Mines. This Government lasted five months. Parkes formed a Government in December 1878, and Baker became Minister of the Mining Department.

BALBOA, NUNEZ DE. In 1513 this enterprising Spanish navigator first saw the Pacific Ocean from a peak in Darien; gave to it the name of the South Sea; and took possession of it on behalf of the King of Spain. He was publicly executed by the Spanish Government, as a reward for his splendid services to the nation!

BALLANCE, JOHN, journalist, was a member of the N.Z. Parliament in 1878, and accepted office in Sir George Grey's Ministry as Treasurer, but resigned in 1879.

BALLARAT, the leading goldfield of V., and the next city in importance to Melbourne. It owes its position to having been the centre of perhaps the richest gold-yielding district in the world. It lies 100 miles W.N.W. of Melbourne, at an elevation of 1437 feet above the level of the sea, and consists of Ballarat E. and Ballarat W., the Yarrowee Creek dividing them. Each is a distinct municipality, under the government of a mayor and councillors since December 1855. It is the centre of an extensive agricultural district, and also a great railway centre. Ballarat W. (the old township) is laid out on sloping and elevated ground, and has several wide streets built at right angles, and containing a number of fine buildings constructed of freestone and bluestone, many of them vieing with those in Melbourne. The town hall is a noble structure, having a peal of bells in the tower. Sturt-street, with its enclosed gardens extending through the centre for the whole length, is the handsomest street in the colony. There is an hospital, a benevolent asylum, an orphan asylum, about forty churches and chapels, a noble mechanics' institute, a fine music hall and theatre, banks, iron foundries, breweries, a woollen mill, and other manufactories. Ballarat E. contains a handsome and well-stocked free library. Special mention must be made of the school of mines, a most useful public institution, designed to instruct young men in all the branches of the mining industry. The population is about 47,000, of whom 1300 are Chinese. Ballarat is a diocese of both the English and Roman Catholic Churches. The first was constituted in 1874, and the Rev. Dr. Samuel Thornton was appointed first bishop. The R. C. Diocese was constituted somewhat earlier, and the first bishop was the Rev. Dr. Sheil. The municipality of Ballarat W. was proclaimed on 17th December 1855, that of Ballarat E. on 5th May 1857.

HISTORY.—In August 1837 a party consisting of Thomas Livingstone Learmonth, and five others, left Melbourne to explore the still unknown country to the N.W., and got as far as Mount Buninyong, when they returned. In January 1838 Learmonth started again, and reached Lake Burrumbet, having named the Peak of Ereldoune

(after the old Scottish Border-keep of Thomas the Rhymer,) and Mount Misery. In the course of 1838-40, the whole country westward was taken up for pastoral settlement, the brothers Learmonth establishing their homestead at Buninyong. The name Ballarat (or, more properly, Ballaarat,) signifies a camping or resting place, and was a favourite spot of the natives. It continued to be a pleasant pastoral district till 1851, when the announcement of the discovery of gold changed, as if by magic, the whole face of things. The discovery was first made at a spot called Golden Point in August of that year, by prospecting parties. A rush from Geelong, Melbourne, and other parts of the colony, at once set in. On 19th September, Commissioners Doveton and Armstrong arrived to take charge of the new community. "This, the richest gold-field, perhaps, that the world has ever known," says Westgarth, "was already at the outset so promising, that ere the first month expired, the Government had established the armed escort service for the safe conveyance of the gold to the shipping ports of Melbourne and Geelong. Nearly ten thousand diggers, of all classes of society, who had rushed promiscuously to the attractive scene, were upon and around the famous Golden Point, the original nucleus of Ballarat mining. But hardly was this miscellaneous crowd settled at work, ere it commenced shelving off to Mount Alexander, which rumour proclaimed to be a still richer gold-field. In October and November, Mount Alexander lived in a blaze of predominant fame, but was in turn dimmed by the superior lustre of Bendigo, which made good its pre-eminence during several subsequent years." Governor La Trobe visited Ballarat in October, and reported that there were 500 cradles at work, 2,500 persons on the ground, and 500 were arriving daily. At the first arrival of the Commissioners, the exaction of the license-fee of thirty shillings per month proved most offensive to the diggers; nevertheless it was doubled in December! For three years this exorbitant tax was exacted with even needless rigour and severity, with consequences of a memorable and most disastrous kind. The township of Ballarat was proclaimed in 1852. Population rapidly increased, until it reached 30,000 or 40,000. In February 1853, the first large nugget, weighing 1620 ounces, was unearthed at Canadian Gully. The "Welcome Nugget," weight 2217 ounces, was found at Bakery Hill, in June 1858; and the "Welcome Stranger" nugget, weight 2280 ounces, at Mount Moliagul, in February 1869. A rich bend in the gutter, called the "Jeweller's Shop," yielded an immense quantity of the precious metal in 1853 and subsequent years; many sudden fortunes were made. The Koh-i-noor Company commenced operations in 1857, the Band of Hope and Albion Consols in 1858, the Prince of Wales Company in 1859, the St. George Company about the same time. Particulars of the yield of these and other great mining companies will be found under the article GOLD MINING

Of late years the alluvial drifts of Ballarat have not been very prolific, and almost all the great companies have ceased working. But auriferous reefs have been found at a considerable depth in various localities, and the work of quartz-mining is now being carried on with great spirit and success. Ballarat, like Sandhurst, will probably yet become famous and prosperous as a reefing district.

BALLARAT RIOTS. Towards the close of the year 1854, a digger named Scobie, late one evening knocked at the door of Bentley's Hotel, at Ballarat. Finding the place closed for the night, he tried to force an entrance, and continued his clamour so long that Bentley became angry, and sallied forth to chastise him. A crowd gathered round to see the fight, and, in the darkness, Scobie's head was split open with a spade. Whose hand it was that aimed the blow no one could tell; but the diggers believed that Bentley was the murderer. He was, therefore, arrested and tried, but acquitted by Dewes, the Police Magistrate, who was said by the diggers to be secretly his partner in business. A crowd assembled round the hotel, and a digger named Kennedy addressed the multitude, pointing out the spot where their companion's blood had been shed, and asserting that his spirit hovered above them and called for revenge. The authorities sent a few police to protect the place, and for an hour or two the mob remained harmless. But a boy having thrown a stone and broken the lamp in front of the hotel, the police made a movement as if they were about to seize the offender. This roused the diggers to anger, and in less than a minute every pane of glass was broken; the police were roughly beaten; the doors were broken open. The crowd burst tumultuously into the hotel, and the rooms were soon swarming with men drinking the liquors and searching for Bentley, who had escaped on a horse to the camp. As the noise and disorder increased, a man set fire to the place, after which the crowd quietly dispersed. For this outrage, three men—Fletcher, McIntyre, and Weatherly, were apprehended and taken to Melbourne, where they were tried, convicted, and sentenced to imprisonment. But Bentley was also re-arrested, tried for manslaughter, convicted, and sentenced to three years hard labour on the roads. Dewes was dismissed from the magistracy, and Sir C. Hotham did everything in his power to conciliate the diggers. They were not to be thus satisfied, however, and they held a stormy meeting at Ballarat, at which they appointed a deputation, consisting of Kennedy, Humffray, and Black, to demand from the Governor the release of the three men condemned for burning Bentley's Hotel. He received them kindly, but declined to accept their message, because, he said, the word "demand" was not a suitable term to use in addressing the representative of Her Majesty. They were, however, informed that a proper memorial on behalf of the prisoners would receive consideration.

At the conclusion of the interview Kennedy entreated his Excellency to allow the men to return with them, in order to prevent a riot; but he was informed that the course suggested would be destructive of the authority of the Government; and that it would be impossible to set aside the most important principle in the British Constitution—the verdict of a jury. In order to be prepared for any disturbance, the Executive began to concentrate all the forces, military and police, at its disposal upon Ballarat. On 29th November a party of soldiers, belonging to the 40th, marching along the Geelong-road to Ballarat, were assaulted by the people. They turned and charged their assailants, but got the worst of the fray, and had to seek shelter in the Camp. The day this occurred witnessed a similar scene near the Eureka, where another detachment was attacked, and several of the men severely injured. On the 30th a great meeting was held at Ballarat, attended by crowds of armed diggers. The chair was occupied by T. Hayes, and the principal speakers were Kennedy, Humffray, Ross, Murnane, Wheatley, Black, Quinn, Vern, Brady, Lalor, Weeks, and Reynolds. Resolutions were passed denouncing the license-fee, and declaring that the people would pay so obnoxious a tax no longer, but take immediate steps to abolish it by burning all their licenses; that they would forthwith adjust any disputes about their claims by arbitrators, to be mutually chosen; that a reform league should be established, and all members of it be protected. The meeting strongly protested against bodies of armed soldiers marching about the diggings, and firing upon the people under any circumstances, without the previous reading of the Riot Act; and declared, if such an unconstitutional practice were continued, the league now formed would not be responsible for the consequences. The Government officials, so far from being intimidated by this meeting, had detachments marching about the diggings at the time, and several skirmishes occurred; the camp was barricaded and guarded by breastworks of sand-bags, and the whole military and police were kept under arms; the roads were covered with bodies of military and police hastening to strengthen the position of the Government at the camp of Ballarat. When violent counsels guided the movements of the disaffected diggers a number of the more moderate left them, and nothing short of a total overthrow of the existing Government was, after this, aimed at. The Australian flag, of blue with a white cross, was hoisted; a provisional Government was formed, and supplies were levied in its name. An express arrived at Melbourne, on 4th December, announcing that a party of diggers were on the road to the metropolis, in order to get up an agitation on their own behalf. The Government issued circulars to the largest employers of labour, and, having communicated this startling information, requested them to communicate with their workmen in order to

discover how far they sympathised with the diggers, and to ascertain, if possible, what concessions it was deemed advisable for the Government to make. On the same day a proclamation appeared, declaring the whole district around Ballarat placed under martial law. That day, also, the intelligence of the engagement between the military and the diggers arrived, and all classes were alike overpowered with sorrow that the line of demarcation between constitutional agitation and illegal resistance by physical force had been passed. A strong reactionary movement in favour of a compromise between the Government and the insurgents set in ; and it was this sympathy on their behalf, which the Executive was at a loss to understand, that prevented the authorities from treating them with the greatest severity after they had managed to suppress the revolt. On the night of the 1st December lights were observed in the tents of the diggers ; signals were repeatedly exchanged, and shots fired at the sentries, who were driven in. The officer in command found a large number of insurgents organising, drilling, and equipping themselves. The spies had seen their leaders telling them off in companies, and heard one of the commanders say to the people that those who had no other arms should get an iron spike placed on a pole, as "that would find the tyrants' hearts." The officer in charge issued a public notice that no light would be allowed after eight o'clock : that no discharge of fire-arms would be tolerated upon any pretence ; and that persons disobeying these orders would be fired at. On the same day Commissioner Amos arrived at the camp at Ballarat, with information that the diggers were occupying an intrenched camp at the Eureka, in considerable force, with the avowed intention of intercepting the troops under the Major-General, then hourly expected to arrive from Melbourne. During the whole of that day the insurgents had possession of the diggings, and were busy levying contributions on all classes, giving the orders of their 'minister of war' in payment. The officer in command prudently refrained from molesting any of their detached parties. He was unable to attack the insurgents during the day, as he could not leave a force behind to protect the Camp, and resolved upon a night surprise. Circumstances favoured this bold attempt. The insurgents had not contemplated any active measures on the side of the authorities until the main body of troops and the commanding officer had arrived. It was Sunday morning, and a very great portion of them were away, and those who remained had dined late, and some, no doubt, had drank deep. They were surprised by the commander of the Queen's troops, Captain Thomas, who resolved to seize the favourable opportunity of delivering a most effectual blow. The insurgents were posted in a very advantageous position, in a fortified stockade, at the Eureka. It rested on a gentle eminence, and was of considerable strength. The leaders were, however, not very

deeply skilled in military engineering, for it was much too large, and was not protected by proper bastions or outworks to aid the defenders in a general assault. Under all disadvantages, the diggers would have repulsed the military had the attack not been made at a time when it was totally unexpected, and when the great body were absent. The officer on whom the responsibility of this enterprise rested was Captain Thomas, and he planned and carried it out with ability and vigour. He was assisted by Captain Pasley, R.E., who bravely advanced with the skirmishers and directed the assault. The military were fortunate in having Commissioner Amos to act as their guide ; being well acquainted with the locality, he led the troops to the exact spot where the operations were to commence. The force under Captain Thomas reached the ground just as the morning began to dawn. There were present thirty men of Her Majesty's force, under Lieutenants Hall and Gardyne ; seventy mounted police, under Sub-Inspectors Furnell, Langley, Chomley, and Lieutenant Cossack ; sixty-five men of the 12th regiment, under Captain Quendo and Lieutenant Paul ; eighty-seven men of the 40th regiment, under Captain Wise and Lieutenants Bowder and Richards ; twenty-four foot police, under Sub-Inspector Carter : making a total of 100 mounted and 176 foot. When the body arrived at about three hundred yards from the entrenchments the detachments of the 12th and 40th regiments extended in skirmishing order ; the mounted force moved to the left of the position and threatened the flank and rear of the insurgents. The main body now advanced boldly to the attack. The exact number of men in the stockade is not known, but they could not have outnumbered the Queen's force. They stood to their arms manfully as soon as the alarm was sounded. The alarm was given within ; the insurgents rushed to their posts, and poured a heavy volley upon the advancing soldiers, killing twelve men. The attacking party wavered a moment, but again became steady, and fired with so calm and correct an aim that, whenever a digger showed himself, he was shot. Lalor rose on a sand heap within the stockade to direct his men, but immediately fell, pierced in the shoulder by a musket ball. After the firing had lasted for twenty minutes there was a lull, and the insurgents could hear the order "Charge !" ring out clearly. Then there was an ominous rushing sound—the soldiers were, for a moment, seen above the palisades, and the conflict became hand to hand. The diggers took refuge in the empty claims, where some were bayoneted and others captured ; whilst the victors set fire to the tents, and soon afterwards retired with 125 prisoners. The engagement lasted about twenty-five minutes ; the rebel leaders fought well, Peter Lalor having been wounded in the breach and left for dead in the stockade, and several others cut down at their posts. The loss to the Queen's force was considerable, including

Captain Wise, who, in leading his men to the attack, was severely wounded and died a few days afterwards; Lieutenant Paul was also severely wounded. The loss amongst the insurgents was twenty-six killed on the spot, and a great many wounded. The commander-in-chief of the "forces of the Republic of Victoria," as they were styled, named Vern, a Hanoverian by birth, escaped, and a reward of £500 was offered for his apprehension. Lalor, the other leader, who fell within the stockade, lost his left arm in the engagement. On Tuesday the troops under the command of the Major-General, arrived at Ballarat; and they were not there a minute too soon, for a large body of insurgents were in arms at Creswick. The victory at the Eureka had raised the spirits of those who supported the Government, and in a corresponding degree dispirited the insurgents. The Legislative Council presented an address of sympathy to the Governor, which was of the following tenor: that, having been placed in a painfully embarrassing position since his arrival in the colony, he was entitled to the sympathy and support of the Legislature. Sir Charles Hotham replied that the firm resolve to suppress the incipient revolution was softened by the readiness with which he offered to redress the grievances the diggers had complained of; it would be his constant endeavour to conduct the Government with the utmost possible temper; the time for military rule had passed; but when there was an outbreak, and that caused by foreigners—men who had not been suffered to remain in their own country in consequence of the violence of their character—then Englishmen must sink all minor differences, and unite to support the authorities. The Government, however, fared differently when a direct appeal was made to the people. A public meeting had been called by requisition, to consider the best means for protecting the city during the crisis at the diggings. The principal agitators in this matter seemed to be the members of the Legislature, who took a large share in the proceedings of this public meeting. The resolutions proposed were received with such ill-concealed dissatisfaction, that, after the Mayor had declared two of them to be carried, the opponents of the Government interfered, and such confusion prevailed that the gentleman who presided vacated the chair, which was occupied by Dr. Embling, and a series of resolutions diametrically opposed to the proceedings of the Executive, and demanding an immediate settlement of the differences between the Government and the diggers, were carried with the utmost enthusiasm. Frencham, one of the discoverers of gold in Victoria, spoke on behalf of the diggers, and told the people they "must go forth with their brother diggers to conquer or die." The Government demonstration having terminated in so unsatisfactory a manner, another meeting was convened on the following day "for the assertion of order and the protection of constitutional liberty." It took place on a large open space of ground

near St. Paul's Church, at the corner of Flinders-lane. From 4000 to 7000 people were present, the chair being filled by Henry Langlands, one of the largest employers of labour in Melbourne. The speakers were David Blair, Owens, Fawkner, Fulton, Frencham, Grant, Cathie, and Embling. The resolutions condemned the whole policy of the Government, and declared that, while disapproving of the physical resistance offered by the diggers, the meeting could not, without betraying the interests of liberty, lend its aid to the Executive until the coercive measures they were attempting to introduce should be abandoned. The result of this meeting had very considerable weight with the Executive, and the same afternoon a *Government Gazette* extraordinary appeared, in which was a proclamation revoking martial law on Ballarat. The repulse at the stockade did not depress the diggers, and a body of about 1000 armed men was, at this time, collected together on the Creswick road. Sir Robert Nickle, who now assumed the command, was an old and experienced officer. He immediately restrained the violence of the police and military, and held parleys with the disaffected diggers, in which he strongly urged them to return to their duty. This exhibition of good feeling, in conjunction with the resignation of Chief Secretary Foster, and the appointment of a commission, calmed the excitement. The magistrates were lenient with the prisoners by order of the Executive, and only convicted in glaring cases, expressing no ill-feeling towards those who were in the custody of the police. Meetings were held in Geelong, Bendigo, and other places, and resolutions strongly condemning the policy of the Government towards the diggers were carried. A meeting was also held at Ballarat, and resolutions were passed, praying the military officials to enforce the martial law with as much forbearance and humanity as the circumstances of the case would admit of. Humffray, who was bearer of the resolutions, was arrested upon presenting himself at the Camp, but liberated after it had been discovered that he was a moral and not a physical force-opponent of their measures. On 8th December, Foster officially announced that he had resigned the office of Colonial Secretary, and declared that the charge made against him, of abusing the patronage of the Government, was quite unfounded. That day a proclamation appeared nominating William Clarke Haines (the new Colonial Secretary,) William Westgarth, John Pascoe Fawkner, John O'Shanassy, William Henry Wright, and James Ford Strachan, to be commissioners for enquiring into the state of the gold-fields and the grounds of the complaints, with a view to ascertain how far they were well-founded; and to devise and carry out a system which, making due provision for an adequate revenue, with the least possible expenditure of public funds, should afford every facility for the development of the mineral wealth of the colony, and prove the least harassing

and vexatious to the miners; and to enquire into the manner in which the law had been administered, in order to ascertain if unnecessary harshness or undue partiality had been shown; and further to enquire into all complaints relating either to the privileges or pecuniary interests of the mining population. The Commissioners reached Ballarat on 17th December, and proceeded to collect evidence upon the multifarious subjects with which they had to deal. The terrible concomitants connected with the insurrection were now apparently concluded. When Sir C. Hotham engaged in the affair at Ballarat, he could not foresee the consequences, because he misunderstood the temper of the people of the colony. Perhaps it was fortunate for his Government that the insurgents were not more moderate in their views and more considerate in their measures. He had been led to believe that the spirit raised by the arbitrary conduct of his officials on the diggings reached no farther than the tents of Ballarat and Bendigo. Those with whom he came into contact had studiously impressed upon his mind that no sympathy existed in the two principal cities with the agitation; but he was grievously disappointed. Instead of a cordial and pleasing harmony of opinion, favourable to the Government, there was a jarring dissonance; instead of pleasure at the discomfiture of the diggers, a melancholy regret, and a general fear for the ultimate result pervaded all classes, except, perhaps, the adherents of the Executive Council. The rash and despotic misgovernment of Sir C. Hotham, which precipitated the revolt, proved fatal to himself. It was the sympathy of the people in the large towns with the miners that saved the colony from anarchy and revolution. If anything had been wanting to convince the Government of the real state of public feeling, the result of the State trials must have sufficed for the purpose. The law officers indicted thirteen of those who were taken prisoners in the stockade, and against whom they possessed sufficient evidence to ensure convictions, as they thought, for high treason. The jury were citizens of Melbourne and small farmers in the adjoining country, and had no particular sympathy with the diggers. So thoroughly were they convinced of the misgovernment and misconduct which had been apparent in the management of the goldfields, that, notwithstanding very great exertions made by the Crown lawyers, the prisoners were one by one acquitted. So excited were the spectators who thronged the court, that cheers rang through the building when the verdict was returned in the case of a poor negro who was the first of those who were brought to trial, and the shouts were taken up outside and re-echoed with great earnestness. The officers of the court attempted to suppress the demonstrations, and two unfortunate fellows were seized and punished by the Chief Justice with seven days' imprisonment for so flagrant a contempt of court, His Honour pithily remarking that the demonstration was an insult

to the jury, because, if it was a conscientious verdict, they had done no more than their duty, and if it were not so, no popular applause would recompense them.

BALLINA, a seaport town on the north side of the entrance of Richmond River, N.S.W., 330 miles north of Sydney. The river was opened about forty years ago, by sawyers adventuring into the dense brushes in search of cedar; and, until about twelve years since, little was exported except cedar, tallow, and hides, which were shipped to Sydney by sailing vessels, of which there were then about twenty employed. Since that period a large trade has sprung up with the neighbouring colonies for the supply of cedar, pine, and beach; and the cedar brushes of the Richmond have produced some of the finest supplies of these timbers, as well as a larger quantity than has been shipped from all the other rivers of the colony. Along the coast, both north and south of the Richmond, fine gold, in payable quantities, is washed from the sand and gravel for a short distance beyond high-water mark, leading to the supposition that gold-bearing quartz reefs are covered by the sea in the neighbourhood.

BALONNE RIVER, in N.S.W., discovered by Sir T. L. Mitchell, in 1846. The banks were then thickly peopled by natives. The Upper Balonne is only inferior to the River Murray in breadth and depth; it separates into various channels, the first branch being the Bulgoa, falling into the River Darling, about thirty miles above Fort Bourke; the remainder, or Minor Balonne, again spreads its waters into the Narran, Bokhara, Ballandoola, and Biree. The latter three again unite, and fall into the River Darling, forty or fifty miles above Fort Bourke.

BAMPTON AND ALT. The south-east coast of New Guinea was visited in 1793 by William Bampton, master of the *Hormuzeer*, and Matthew B. Alt, master of the *Chesterfield*, two British merchant vessels, who, in their endeavours to find a passage to the north-west while beating up the Great Bight of that island, added some valuable information to what was previously known of that part of the coast. On 10th July, an armed party of forty-four men from the ships, under the command of Dell, chief mate of the *Hormuzeer*, landed on Darnley Island, in Torres Strait, and after hoisting the Union Jack, took possession of that and the neighbouring island of New Guinea, in the name of King George III. A party consisting of Shaw, chief mate of the *Chesterfield*, Carter, and Captain Hill of the N.S.W. corps, had gone to the island armed, eight days before, and had not returned. Dell's party obtained full proof that they had all been murdered by the natives. The account of Bampton and Alt's perilous voyage of discovery through Torres Strait is given by Flinders, in the introduction to his first volume. Dalrymple published two charts of their discoveries in 1798-9.

BANKING IN AUSTRALIA. The first banks established in Australia were the Bank of N.S.W., 1817; the Bank of V.D.L., 1823; the London Chartered Bank, 1825; the Bank of Australia (Sydney), 1826, which failed in 1843; the Bank of Australasia, 1835; the Union Bank, 1837; and the Banks of S.A. and W.A., in 1841. The Bank of V. was opened in 1855; the Bank of N.Z., in 1861; the Q. National Bank, in 1872; and the Australian and European Bank, Melbourne, in 1872. In 1879, the Provincial and Suburban Bank of Melbourne suspended payment. There was a run at the same time on the A. and E. Bank, which closed its doors for a short time, but called up fresh capital from the shareholders, and again resumed operations. Subsequently this bank was merged in the Commercial Bank.

BANKS, SIR JOSEPH (1743-1820), the famous President of the Royal Society of London, who accompanied Captain Cook in his voyages from 1768 to 1771; he sailed with Cook round the world in the capacity of naturalist, and wrote the botanical descriptions for the first voyages. His career is too well known to require detailed account here. He was President of the Royal Society from 1777 to 1820, and in 1781 was created a baronet. He was mainly instrumental in inducing the British Government to colonise N.S.W. He bequeathed, at his death, his fine library to the British Museum, and amongst its treasures was the original journal kept by Tasman on his first voyage of discovery into the Southern Ocean.

BANNISTER, SAXE, first Attorney-General of N.S.W., arrived in Sydney, with the New Charter for the establishment of a Supreme Court, early in 1824. The Charter was formally proclaimed on 17th May of that year.

BARGO RIVER, in N.S.W., in the County of Camden, has a sure and never-failing stream, murmuring over a rocky bed, on its way to the Nepean, which it joins.

BARKER, CAPTAIN COLLET, a fellow-officer of Sturt's in 39th Regiment, was murdered by the blacks in 1831 while exploring the country round Lake Alexandrina. Kent then took charge of the expedition; but it failed in its main object of finding a sea-mouth for the Murray.

BARKER, DR. EDWARD, Albert Brodribb, and Edward Hobson, with two blackfellows, were the first to travel on foot, in June 1841, from Melbourne into Gippsland, and thence to Port Albert and back to Melbourne. They suffered great hardships, being for days without any food. Their supplies, carried on their backs, were soon exhausted, and they lived on what animal food the blacks could procure for them.

BARKER, FREDERICK, D.D. (1808—), second Bishop of Sydney, was educated at Cambridge University, took his B.A. in 1829, and was ordained in 1831. He was appointed to succeed Dr. Broughton, the first Bishop, in 1854, and arrived in Sydney in 1855. He established the

Synod of the Diocese in 1866; formed a Church Society, designed to aid the clergy in their operations; and promoted the establishment of the dioceses of Goulburn and Bathurst. The diocese of Newcastle has also been twice divided by the formation of the diocese of Brisbane in 1864, and that of Grafton and Armidale in 1867. So that the Bishop of Sydney is now the metropolitan of thirteen dioceses—Sydney, Tasmania, Adelaide, Melbourne, Newcastle, Maitland, Brisbane, Perth, Goulburn, Grafton, Armidale, Bathurst, and Rockhampton—all formed out of what in 1836 was only an outlying district of the diocese of Calcutta. The working of Synodical Church Government has also led to the introduction of rural deaneries, and generally promoted organisation of the Church.

BARKLY, SIR HENRY (1815—), son of a Ross-shire gentleman, who had become an eminent West India merchant, on leaving school entered his father's counting-house, where he soon displayed much business ability. In 1845 he entered the British house of Commons as member for Leominster, and became a firm supporter of Sir Robert Peel's commercial policy. In 1849 the Whigs sent him out as Governor of Guiana, where he had large estates. So successful was his administration, that he was speedily transferred to Jamaica. From thence he was promoted to Victoria, the rising importance of which was more evident to Sir William Molesworth, then Colonial Secretary, than to most contemporary statesman. Sir Henry Barkly arrived on 23rd December 1856, was installed on the 26th, and held his first levee on New Year's Day, the attendance being very large, and his reception exceedingly cordial. He created a very favourable impression; and his popularity remained unabated during his seven years tenure of office. Sir Henry, soon after his arrival, received a heavy blow by the death of his wife in premature confinement, brought on by an accident that occurred whilst she was driving in her carriage over Prince's Bridge. An omnibus, from which the horses had broken away, struck the carriage and overturned it. Lady Barkly was taken up fainting, and conveyed to Toorak, where she died in a few days. By her earnest request no penalty was inflicted on the driver of the omnibus, to whose careless driving the accident was due. As the facts oozed out, admiration for the nobility of the woman, and sympathy with the sorrow of the husband, had full sway. This great blow struck Sir Henry when engaged with the entanglements of a ministerial crisis. His first ministry had been defeated over its Land Bill. The defeat took place upon an amendment moved by O'Shanassy, who was in due course sent for, and who formed a ministry comprising Chapman, Foster, Duffy, and others, which did not last two months. It was defeated upon a motion of no confidence, which was carried by thirty-four to nineteen. Haines again became Chief Secretary, with a slight change of coadjutors.

Since then, up till 1880, there have been twenty successive ministries and eleven Parliaments. The longest-lived was the first McCulloch administration, which lasted for five years. Only once did Sir Henry's conduct as Governor divide the opinions of the people. This was on the occasion of his granting a dissolution to a new ministry he had summoned in 1861, the Assembly then in being having proved hostile to his choice. The ministry in question had extreme democratic views, including "Protectionist leanings;" and it was argued that the Governor should not promote departures from the home model, although he might see reason in not opposing them. Exception was generally taken to his course at the time, more especially as the newly-elected Assembly, as well as its predecessor, rejected the Protectionist ministry. However, as some of the more prominent men persisted in keeping up a tone and bearing of animadversion on the subject, they provoked a counter-demonstration from the general public, which amply attested the Governor's popularity. The bulk of the people were decidedly with Sir Henry, and against his opponents, foremost amongst whom was O'Shanassy. In 1863 Sir Henry Barkly's term of office expired, and he was removed to the Mauritius. He left V. amid the regrets and respectful farewells of the whole population. He had previously taken as his second wife the daughter of General Sir Thomas Pratt.

BARLEE, FREDK. PALGRAVE (1827—,) served in the Ordnance Department from 1844 to 1855. He was then appointed Colonial Secretary of Western Australia, and member of the Executive and Legislative Councils. He resigned his seat in the Council in November 1875; and in 1877 was appointed Governor of British Honduras.

BARLOW, CAPTAIN, Governor of the settlement founded at Melville Island, on the N.W. coast of the continent, in 1824. The settlement proved a failure, and was abandoned in 1829, on account of the unhealthiness of the locality.

BARMOUTH BAY, on the coast of N.S.W., was discovered and named by Bass in 1797.

BARNARD ISLANDS, a group situated on the N.E. coast of the continent. They form a group of small rocky islands extending in a straggling direction for six miles to the southward of Double Point.

BARNARD (MOUNT), a mountain close by Avenel in V., named by Mitchell after Sir Andrew Barnard, the commander of the Light Division during the latter part of the Peninsular War.

BARNEY, COLONEL, R.E. In January 1847 the staff of the new penal colony, to be called North Australia, headed by this officer, was settled on the shores of Port Curtis, on the east coast of Australia. After five months' occupation, and an expenditure of upwards of £15,000, the attempt was abandoned as impracticable.

BARREILLER, LIEUTENANT, of the 39th Regiment, made an unsuccessful attempt to cross the Blue Mountains from Sydney in 1802.

BARRIER REEF, an immense coral reef extending along the north-east coast of the continent for nearly 1300 miles, at a distance from the shore of from 10 to upwards of 100 miles. The reef is, in general, precipitous, and in many places rises out of great depths, lines of 280 fathoms having failed to reach the bottom on the outer side. Formerly, ignorance of anything like its precise extent and character led to a large number of shipwrecks; but in 1844 Captain Blackwood, in H.M.S. *Fly*, made a minute survey of the reef, and laid it down accurately on charts. In the course of its length there are several breaks or passages in it. In the voyage from Sydney to Torres Strait, the inner route is usually taken. It is narrow and requires delicate steering; but it is safe, and not so much exposed as the outer route, which enters Torres Strait by Flinders Entrance.

BARRINGTON, GEORGE, the celebrated pick-pocket, was the first prisoner released in N.S.W., in 1792. Barrington was a man of some ability. He has been made the hero of more than one work of fiction, and figures as a principal character in Lever's *O'Donoghue*. He was the reputed author of the *Narrative of a Voyage to New South Wales*, and of a *History of the Colony*; but Barrington denied the authorship of both works, although his name stands on their title-pages. He is also said to have written the famous prologue delivered at the opening of the first theatre in Sydney in 1796, wherein occur the lines—

True patriots we, for, be it understood,
We left our country for our country's good.

Barrington lived to a very old age, and died at Parramatta, N.S.W.

BARRINGTON, a river of N.S.W., flowing through the county of Gloucester, and emptying itself into the Gloucester River. Its course is very tortuous; and recently rich deposits of gold have been found along its bed.

BARROW ISLAND, situated off the N.W. coast of the continent. It is about twelve miles broad and twenty miles long, and was named after the secretary to the Admiralty, Sir John Barrow.

BARROW'S VALLEY is situated in the district of Liverpool Plains, N.S.W., to the northward of the river Peel. It was named by Oxley, after Sir John Barrow.

BARROW, a mountain of Tasmania, 4500 feet high, thirteen miles from Launceston.

BARRY, SIR REDMOND, K.C.M.G., M.A., LL.D., &c. (1813—,) was called to the Irish Bar in 1836, and came to Australia in 1839. He landed in Sydney, but after a stay of a few weeks went to Melbourne, where Mr. Latrobe was Superintendent. All civil cases had then to be taken to Sydney, but in 1842 two new tribunals were

established—the one a branch of the Supreme Court of Sydney, presided over by Judge Willis; the other a Court of Requests, of which Barry was appointed Commissioner. In 1850 he became Solicitor-General, with a seat in the Legislative and Executive Councils, and the following year was created a judge of the Supreme Court. During the absence of Sir William A'Beckett he filled the post of Acting Chief Justice. In 1860 he was knighted, and in 1862 acted as representative of V. at the International Exhibition in London, having obtained twelve months leave of absence. He obtained from the English and some of the Continental Governments 6000 volumes for the Public and Supreme Court Libraries. He may be looked upon as the father of the Melbourne University, of which he was appointed the first Chancellor in 1855; and the Melbourne Public Library is almost peculiarly his own creation. To him the people of V. are mainly indebted for the works of art that have been got together in their National Gallery, as well as in many of their parks and gardens. He successfully advocated technological education, and has given invaluable aid on the occasions of the Intercolonial Exhibitions. When Commissioner at the London Exhibition of 1862 he was made LL.D. of Trinity College, Dublin, and on his return received the degrees of LL.B. and M.A. of the Melbourne University. He is a member of the Royal Society of Dresden, of the Society of Northern Antiquaries at Copenhagen, and corresponding member of the Royal Dublin Society. In 1876 he was one of the Victorian Commissioners at the Centennial Exhibition at Philadelphia, and amongst the results of his visit were large contributions to the Public Library. During his stay in Europe he was made Knight of the Order of Sts. Michael and George. In 1876-7, when the Governor and Chief Justice were simultaneously absent from the colony, he was Administrator of the Government. He has been on the bench for a longer period than any other judge in Her Majesty's dominions.

BASS, GEORGE, navigator and explorer. When Captain Hunter, who commanded the First Fleet, was sent out from England, in 1795, to succeed Governor Phillip, there were amongst those under his command two very remarkable men—Matthew Flinders, midshipman, and George Bass, surgeon. Whilst on the voyage Flinders and Bass planned an expedition; and a month after the arrival of the *Reliance* in Sydney Harbour, preparations were made for carrying it out. They bought a small boat, eight feet long—named it the *Tom Thumb*—and embarked in it, with a crew consisting of one small boy, to make marine discoveries on the Australian coast. A sail was hoisted, which Flinders managed, while Bass steered, and the boy was kept to bale. They tacked to and fro about the harbour to test their sailing capabilities, and then stood boldly out of the Heads into the ocean. The *Tom Thumb* danced about like a feather on the waves, but she made her way to Botany

Bay. Their first exploration was ascending the George River to about twenty miles beyond a point which Captain Hunter had named in his survey. They then returned to sea, and got back safely to Sydney. The *Reliance* was then ordered on a voyage to Norfolk Island, and, as the surgeon and midshipman could not be spared from the ship, exploring had to be given over. In March 1796 the *Reliance* returned, and the *Tom Thumb* was again launched. Bass and Flinders sailed from Port Jackson on 25th March, and drifted about till they reached Red Point, where they found some natives. They had a very dangerous passage back, but the *Tom Thumb*, with its two intrepid adventurers, arrived safely in Sydney. After their return, Flinders was sent on a surveying expedition. Bass, of too energetic a temperament to continue idle, started off to explore the Blue Mountains. Here his courage and daring were signally displayed. Arming his feet and hands with iron hooks, he made repeated and desperate efforts to climb the craggy precipices and cross the yawning caverns; but after fifteen days of unparalleled exertions and fatigue he was compelled to return. When he came back to Sydney he drew up a memorial to the Governor, asking for means for another expedition along the coast. His request was granted, the more readily as he only needed a whale-boat, a crew of eight men, and provisions for six weeks. With this slender equipment he started from Sydney 3rd December 1797. Clearing the heads of Port Jackson, the crew found themselves in the broad Pacific. At a point, named afterwards Point Bass, there was a spacious bay, surrounded by hills, with a fine river running into it. This bay was too shallow to be of much value, and was called Shoal Haven. After passing this he discovered in succession Barmouth, Jervis, and Twofold Bays. The coast now seemed to trend to the south-west, and he was burning to decide the question whether or not Tasmania was united to Australia. The weather was rough, and there was not a chance of shelter upon that shore; but there was an open sea before them, and every heavy roller which came from the west sent a thrill of pleasure through Bass; for he knew that the straits which now bear his name were discovered. At last higher land became visible, jutting out from the coast, which received the name of Furneaux's Land. While they beat backwards and forwards, scrutinising each inlet, they observed men hailing them from the shore. These were not natives, for they were clothed, and were in a most emaciated condition. They were prisoners who had escaped with a boat from Port Jackson, and had eked out an existence on shell-fish and sea-weeds, some of their number had died, others were on the point of death. Bass could do very little to relieve them; he had over-stayed his time, and there were hardly enough provisions to carry the crew back to Sydney. He however, took two sick ones into his boat, gave the others what he could spare, and told them to

follow the coast line until he could send them assistance. It has never been learnt whether they were heard of subsequently. Bass did not give a favourable account of the country he had seen to the southward of Furneaux's Land, or (as it has since been named) Wilson's Promontory. Proceeding westward, he discovered the fine harbour of Western Port; but time, and the provisions at his disposal, did not enable him to examine it. He then returned to Sydney, without finally settling the question whether Tasmania was separated from the continent, but having made sufficient observations to render it nearly certain that it was an island. The subsequent voyage of Bass and Flinders round the island settled the question for ever. When Bass brought back to Sydney his report of a strait existing between the continent and V.D.L., a small-decked vessel, of twenty-five tons (the *Norfolk*) was put under the command of Flinders and himself, and they were instructed to complete the exploration of the southern coast. They sailed on the 7th October 1798, and on the 11th anchored in Twofold Bay, where they made a survey of the shores. On the 17th they reached a group of islands now known as Kent's Island. On 4th November V.D.L. was sighted on the north side, which had never been seen before. The fine harbour, and the river in which it was found to end, were named Port Dalrymple and the River Tamar. On the 20th the *Norfolk* left Port Dalrymple and proceeded to the westward; but the wind changing they were driven back to Furneaux Islands until 3rd December. At noon on the 4th the farthest land to be seen to the west was a small flat-topped island, which was found to be connected with the mainland, and called Circular Head, and a near projection Rocky Cape. A cluster of islands at this point was named Hunter's Isles. The extreme north-west cape of Tasmania was found to be a steep head, and was named Cape Grim. On the 12th they saw the tops of the mountain which Tasman had erroneously named De Witt's Isles; Flinders named the highest of them Mount De Witt. After passing several places of smaller note, the *Norfolk* entered Headsman's Cove, a little inlet at the mouth of the Derwent. Beyond this the crew proceeded in the boat, imagining that one tide would enable them to reach its source. Scenes of surprising beauty struck their gaze at every fresh bend of the river. On 3rd January 1799 the *Norfolk* left the Derwent, and after sailing along a coast already described, reached Sydney on the 12th. Thus was solved one of the great problems of Australia. The merit of this discovery belongs entirely to Bass and Flinders, who had put to proof what Cook and D'Entrecasteaux had only guessed. At this point the honoured name of Bass drops out of the history of Australia. He returned to England as mate of a trading vessel, and then disappeared for ever. George Bass was born at Aswarby, near Sleaford (in England,) where

his father had a farm, and died when he was a boy. The widow and son afterwards went to reside at Boston. From his boyhood he showed a strong inclination for a seafaring life, to which his mother was much opposed. He was apprenticed to Mr. Francis, a surgeon, at Boston, and at the end of his apprenticeship walked the hospitals, and took his diploma with honour. But his inclination for the sea being unsubdued, his mother yielded to his wish, and expended a considerable sum in fitting him out and buying a share in a ship, which was totally lost. She was a noble-minded woman, of no ordinary intellect. Her son wrote her long letters containing full accounts of his discoveries. These came into possession of Miss Calder, on the death of Mrs. Bass. The last time his mother heard of Bass he was in the Straits of China. She expected him many years, thinking he might be taken prisoner; but at last gave up all hopes, concluding that he had been wrecked and drowned. He had only been married three months when he sailed away, never to return. It is affirmed that some friends at Sydney persuaded him to join them in making their fortune by carrying contraband goods into South America, in spite of the Spaniards. They were unfortunate; their vessel was captured, and Bass was sent to the silver mines, where he was completely lost from sight. He who entered these dreary mines was obliterated for ever from human knowledge; and what became of Bass no one now can tell. After all his hardships and adventures, his enthusiasm and his self-devotion, he passed away from men's eyes, and no one was curious to know whither he had gone. Flinders, in 1799, writes:—"Of the assistance of my able friend Bass I was deprived, he having quitted the station to return to England." Such is the sole record remaining of one of the bravest and noblest men whose names illuminate the history of geographical discovery!

BASS STRAITS, between Australia and Tasmania; the west entrance, formed by the islands off the N.W. point of T. and Cape Otway, is 108 miles wide. King's Island, lying nearly midway, occupies thirty-five miles of the space, and leaves to the N. of it a passage of forty-seven miles, and to the S. of it one of thirty-seven miles. The history of its discovery is given in the previous article.

BATAVIA, a river of N.A., in Yorke's Peninsula. Lat. 15° S. to the N. of Duyfhen Point.

BATEMAN BAY, on the coast of N.S.W., at the mouth of the Clyde River, 170 miles S. from Sydney.

BATES, WILLIAM (1826—), came to Adelaide in 1850, and to Melbourne the following year. In 1852 he joined a party to go to the Bendigo gold-field, and worked there for some time, but abandoned that occupation at the latter end of 1853, under the impression that the goldfields of Victoria were worked out. He commenced business in Melbourne in 1853, and continued it till 1868, when he was returned member of Parliament for

Collingwood. In 1870 he joined the McCulloch Ministry as Commissioner of Public Works, and on going for re-election was returned without a contest—the only time any member had that privilege. He continued member for Collingwood till 1874, when he made a visit to England, returning in 1876. He contested the election for Fitzroy in January 1877, but was unsuccessful, because he refused to accept the nomination of a “caucus.” Bates is a member of the Congregational body, and has taken a very active part in all its institutions, besides subscribing liberally to all its objects. He was a leader in the successful movement for the abolition of State-aid to religion. On the occasion of his departure for England in 1874, the following testimonial was presented to him:—“Congregational College of Victoria, Melbourne. 4th February, 1874. To the Hon. William Bates.—Dear Sir,—The committee of the Congregational College avails itself of the occasion of your intended departure to express to you its deep sense of obligation, for the long and valuable services you have rendered to promote its interests by all the means within your power. It remembers with gratitude that it was your handsome offer to defray the cost of the board and education of a student for three years, together with your promise of liberal annual subscriptions, which gave definiteness to the original college scheme. Previously, it could be called only ‘a movement.’ It was your liberality which caused the movement to become an accomplished fact. Associated with it, as treasurer, from its foundation, it must be a source of much gratification to you, while watching as you have done the marvellous growth of this colony, to observe also how many of the former students of the college are located in different parts of it, viz., at Emerald Hill, Sandhurst, Warrnambool, Landsborough, Eldorado, and elsewhere, while others are labouring successfully in New South Wales, Tasmania, and New Zealand. The great object to which you have so liberally devoted your time and means has thus been realised, if not so fully as you might have desired, nevertheless you have seen a goodly band of devoted men go forth from the college, and more are prepared to follow. In bidding you farewell for a season, the committee presents to you its assurances of undiminished interest in your welfare. It rejoices that the separation will be but temporary; and it earnestly prays that Mrs. Bates, yourself, and family may be preserved from all danger in your various journeyings, and, in due time, return to your numerous friends in the fulness of the blessing of the Gospel of Christ. Believe us, dear Sir, to remain, on behalf of the college committee, sir, your's very faithfully, Anketell M. Henderson, president; Richard Connebee, secretary.”

BATHURST, the principal town in the W. district of N.S.W., so named by Governor Macquarie, in May 1815, in honour of Earl Bathurst, then Secretary of State. It is situated on the south bank of the Macquarie River, on high ground,

2333 feet above the sea-level, surrounded by hills, and is distant from Sydney 122 miles, nearly due west. It is in direct communication by rail with Sydney. Bathurst may be considered the third town of the colony, and its importance is steadily increasing. It has numerous well laid-out streets of ample width, crossing each other at right angles, with a square in the centre. The public buildings are numerous and handsome. Bathurst was proclaimed a municipality in November, 1862. The population is about 6000. It is the seat of a Church of England and a Roman Catholic Bishopric. The former was established in 1869, and Dr. Marsden was appointed the first Bishop. There are several tanneries, a coach factory, and five flour mills. Soap, candles, glue, boots and shoes, are also manufactured extensively. Since June 1872, the city has been lighted with gas. It is better provided with colleges, schools, and other educational establishments, than any other town of the same population in the colony. The country surrounding Bathurst may be described as agricultural and pastoral, consisting of extensive fertile plains, very productive, and especially suited to the growth of cereal crops, but mining is also largely carried on, though not in the immediate vicinity. Gold is found principally in quartz veins. In the neighbouring goldfields of Wattle Flat and Sofala, Hill End and Tambaroora, Chambers and Cheshire's Creeks, Trunkay, Tuena, the Abercombie, Caloola, and Rockley, as well as at the copper mines of Cow Flat and Campbell's river, a large number of persons are resident, computed at many thousands. In August 1824 there were great depredations committed by the surrounding blacks, and martial law was proclaimed. Captain Fennell was appointed commandant at Bathurst in January 1825. The town was visited by Governor Darling, accompanied by Captain Dumaresq and Lieutenant De La Condamine, in November 1829. An outbreak took place amongst the prison population in the district in September 1830; the insurgents consisted at first of only eight persons, but shortly afterwards, by intimidation and persuasion, eighty collected. In the conflict Lieutenant Brown had two men and five horses killed, but the prisoners were at length subdued and ten men were convicted and hanged at Bathurst.

BATHURST BAY is situated on the N.E. coast of the continent, near Cape Melville. It is nine and a-half miles deep, and thirteen miles wide. The western side is formed by Flinders Group.

BATHURST ISLAND is situated to the S.W. of Melville Island, N.W.A., from which it is separated by Apsley Straits. The principal bay in this island is Gordon Bay, and the point at the S.W. extremity is Cape Fourcroy. It is 100 miles in circumference, and separated from the mainland of Australia by Clarence Straits.

BATHURST LAKE is situated in the county of Argyle, N.S.W., 129 miles from Sydney. It is

from three to five miles in diameter, and its size varies with the mountain torrents, to which it serves as a reservoir. Its waters are pure; and, although sixty miles distant from Jervis Bay—the nearest part of the coast—it contains an animal resembling a seal, about three feet long, and rising every now and then to the surface to breathe. It was discovered and named by Hume in 1817.

BATHURST PLAINS. The plains of Bathurst are situated in the county of Bathurst, N.S.W., near the town of Bathurst, and are about nineteen miles in length, and from six to eight in breadth, containing about 120 square miles of naturally clear land. They consist of a series of gentle elevations, with intervening plains of moderate extent, the surrounding forest country being generally very thinly timbered, and patches of forest stretching at irregular intervals a considerable distance into the plains, like points of land into a lake. The plains are traversed in the direction of length by the river Macquarie, which pursues a meandering course along them, having its banks occasionally ornamented with the handsome swamp oak. They are upwards of 2100 feet above the level of the sea, an elevation which compensates for 10° of lat. This elevation is remarkably conducive to the general health of the Bathurst district, it being unquestionably the Montpellier of N.S.W. This transalpine country was considered inaccessible until 1813. It consists in general of broken table-land, in some places forming extensive downs, without a tree, such as the Plains, which include 50,000 acres. Occasional open downs of this description extend along the banks of the Macquarie River for full 120 miles. They are not unlike the Brighton Downs of England, but with this remarkable peculiarity—that on the summits of some of the elevations or knolls, there are found dangerous quagmires or bogs, resembling sometimes a pond that has been dried, but at other times concealed by a rich verdure. Fairy rings are frequent, in which are found fungi of a very large size. Adjacent are the Warwick, King's, Dunn's, and Pretty Plains. A remarkable natural tunnel was discovered here by Mr. Davidson, about 1846. It is thus described:—"The tunnel lies about forty-five miles to the W. of Bathurst, on the Grove Creek, about four miles above the confluence of that stream with the Abercrombie. On descending from the hills, we found ourselves in a small valley, which contained just sufficient room for us to leave our horses; and pursuing our course to the right, a short distance down the creek, the mouth of the tunnel opened to our view. On first entering all was darkness, but advancing a few paces, a gleam of light was visible at the further extremity; and as our eyes became less and less affected by the sudden diminution of light, every part became more and more distinctly visible. The roof is thickly covered with stalactites, which display a rich

variety of colour, some hanging down to a length of twenty feet. The sides, especially on the left, have the appearance of galleries raised one over another, and supported, if it may be so called, by natural carved work, and ornamental pillars, and adorned with splendid stalagmites of every form and appearance. The whole length of this grand archway is about 300 paces, and its northern entrance seventy feet broad and fifty feet high, towards the centre it increases in breadth, to about ninety feet, and in its most lofty part reaches a height of 100 feet, and at the southern extremity it is fully one hundred feet broad, and seventy or eighty feet high, and the *coup d'œil* from this end is truly magnificent. Almost close to the entrance, at the N. end is the mouth of a passage, making nearly a right angle with the main archway, in an easterly direction. This, for about the distance of 100 feet, is broad and lofty, after which it gradually contracts, until at the distance of seventy or eighty feet more it is terminated in a low archway, about two feet high. The latter portion of this passage abounds in handsome stalactites, and on creeping through the archway at its extremity we found ourselves in a spacious apartment, the most prominent features in which are two massive stalagmites, resembling a pulpit and a tomb. After quitting the passage, we continued our search, and not many yards further down the grand archway, on the same side of it, we found a second cave, not of large dimensions, and about the centre of the tunnel, on the opposite side, another long passage of 500 or 600 feet in length which, also gradually contracting, terminated in a narrow arch, opening to another cavern, lofty but not large, in which roots of grass were also visible. Parallel to this is another long passage, separated from it by a stone partition, through two low apertures in which it is approached. These caverns had, in all probability, never before been visited by any human beings; the bats were very numerous, and appeared to be much annoyed at our intrusion."

BATMAN, JOHN (1800-1839,) the founder of V., was born in 1800, at Parramatta, N.S.W. His father was one of the famous band of missionaries first sent to the South Sea isles, but forced to leave Tahiti through a desolating war. William Batman, like several others, fled to the nearest British settlement, that of Sydney, in 1797. He betook himself to business, and continued in the colony till his death. In a Sydney magazine of February, 1834, there is this notice of his decease:—"At Parramatta, William Batman, aged sixty-nine years. He resided in the colony thirty-seven years, was highly respected, and his loss will be long felt by a numerous circle of friends and acquaintances." Mrs. Batman, sen., outlived her son a few months, dying in 1839. About 1820 a love of adventure led to his leaving home and settling in Van Diemen's Land. He directed his attention to farming on the northern side of the island. But powerful in frame, well proportioned, of goodly stature, robust in health, full of spirits, with a love of adventure,

he was not the person for quiet routine of duty, or steady pursuit of a business. He was passionately fond of hunting, and of exploring new tracks in the dense forests of his island home. All who knew him assert that he was the finest bushman of their acquaintance; no danger appalled him, no difficulties turned him. It is not surprising then that, as he always sided with law and order in the community, he should take part with other colonists in hunting down the bush-rangers of the period. For such services he received a grant of land. But in a more important work he was next engaged. The Tasmanian blacks and colonists came into open and active warfare. Fearful atrocities marked the conduct of both combatants. Batman, in 1829, was put in command of a party. Unusual success attended his efforts, and ample rewards followed the performance of such dangerous work. The historian of Tasmania has this noble record:—"Among those distinguished for their knowledge of the bush, compassion for the natives, and skill in pursuing them, Mr. Batman is the subject of frequent and approved mention." His domestic relations are not without interest. A romantic attachment for a beautiful girl, under circumstances appealing to his pity and gallantry, and enlisting the warm sympathy of the Governor of the Colony, ended in a marriage. The fruit of the union was one son and several daughters. "It is pleasing to record the fact," says Bonwick, "that their home, under Ben Lomond, at the fine farm of Kingston, was a very happy one." J. H. Wedge, a companion of Batman's in V.D.L., gives the following account of their first conversation on the subject of attempting a settlement at Port Philip:—"My recollection of the project of Batman and myself crossing the Australian continent is fresh in my mind. We became acquainted with each other in the latter part of 1824 or beginning of 1825, on the occasion of my marking his grants of land on the Ben Lomond rivulet. The subject of an exploring expedition into the interior of New Holland was then mooted, and its practicability discussed; and we seldom, if ever, met afterwards without adverting to the subject. But it was not till some time before we accompanied Sir George Arthur to George's Bay, on the east coast, in 1831, that we determined on the plan of effecting our object. Our idea was to take three or four white men (Batman's servants, on whom he could depend,) and some Sydney natives, and go by sea to the Gulf of Carpentaria, and to travel overland from thence to Sydney. Our motive for adopting this course was that the Sydney natives would not be so likely to leave us as if we commenced our journey from Sydney; the more especially as we should be in a portion of the country occupied by tribes with which they were unacquainted, and amongst whom they would be afraid to risk themselves without the protection of white men. We mentioned our scheme to Sir George Arthur one evening in

my tent, which was pitched at Falmouth, V.D.L. Sir George entered warmly into the plan, and said he would submit the proposal to the Secretary of State, and recommend that our services should be accepted. Lieut. Darling (afterwards Governor of Victoria) was of the party who had previously expressed a wish to join us. He then volunteered to go with us. We naturally expected to hear the result of Sir George's communication in due course; but, after waiting about a year, either Batman or myself—I forget which—spoke to him on the subject, and to our surprise, and no little disappointment, we learnt that he had never written on the subject. Batman and myself then fell back upon our original scheme, and determined to carry it out as a private enterprise. The plan Batman and myself had first arranged, founded on information we had obtained from parties who had been there, was to land at Portland Bay, and to examine the country from thence; but we were induced to abandon this idea from fresh information obtained by Batman, in reference to the country around Port Phillip." He had this intelligence from the sealers. These venturesome prowlers of the straits were continually wandering about the southern coast and islands of the Continent. They had settlements on several spots, providing themselves with wives after the approved classical fashion, by stealing the ladies from their husbands and brothers of the dark tribes on the mainland. These rough fellows were either runaway sailors or bolting convicts. Communicating through safe *media* with Launceston, much valuable knowledge was picked up about the opposite shore. Batman had quick ears for such news as this. The report of Hume and Hovell's overland trip from Sydney to the southern shores, towards the end of 1824 and beginning of 1825, gave a great impetus to Batman's ideas. Hovell believed he saw Western Port, while Hume regarded the "Geelong" of the blacks to be a part of Port Phillip Bay. But the Australian's report was less regarded than that of his official companion. When, therefore, the N.S.W. Governor determined to establish a colony on the plains of Geelong, he sent Captain Hovell with a party of prisoners to Western Port. This proved a failure; and Home orders coming out for concentration, Western Port was abandoned in December 1826. At this time, becoming acquainted with Gellibrand, Batman's thoughts were fixed upon the deserted field. It was resolved to apply to the N.S.W. Governor for land there; and the solicitor drew up a letter, asking for a grant of land at the abandoned settlement, and offering to bring over stock worth from £4000 to £5000. The request was refused. Batman, however, was not a man to relinquish anything which he took in hand. He carried on his project of making a settlement in Port Phillip, and by the middle of 1835 had formed an association with that purpose. Its members were John Batman, Joseph Tice Gellibrand, James and William Robertson, Henry Arthur, John Sinclair,

Charles Swanston, James Simpson, John Thomas Collicott, Anthony Cotterell, Thomas Bannister, John Helder Wedge, W. G. Sams, M. Connolly, and George Mercer. It was determined by the association that Batman should at once cross over to Port Phillip with the view of "secretly ascertaining the general character and capabilities of Port Phillip as a grazing and agricultural district." He embarked at Launceston in his craft the *Rebecca*, fifteen tons, Captain Harwood, on Sunday, 10th May 1835. He was accompanied by his own servants and some Sydney blacks, but through contrary winds did not sail until the 18th. He ultimately reached Port Phillip Heads on Friday, 29th May. On Tuesday, 2nd June, he approached what, from its description, may be supposed to be the site of Williamstown, and prepared for a run up the Saltwater river. The next day he went off on his expedition with the Sydney blacks. Walking many miles, and wanting fresh water, one of the party managed to find some by digging a little well with a stick. On Thursday morning he named Mounts Wedge and Sams, after two members of the association. He traversed the Keilor Plains and the Deep Creek, and calculated he had been thirty miles that day. On Friday he took a W.N.W. direction, crossing more creeks, one of which he called, after his wife, Eliza. Smoke was seen to the eastward, and he travelled round to it. On 6th June they started with the expectation of coming up with the natives; they were alongside Merri Creek, named Lucy, after one of Batman's daughters. Here, on the banks of the Merri or Lucy Creek—about the site of Northcote, and the adjoining sands of Collingwood Flat—he made his memorable treaty with the aborigines, the history of which he relates as follows:—"After some time, and full explanation, I found eight chiefs amongst them who possessed the whole of the territory near Port Phillip. Three brothers, all of the same name, were the principal chiefs, and two of them men of six feet high, and very good looking; the other not so tall, but stouter. The other five chiefs were fine men. After a full explanation of what my object was, I purchased two large tracts of land from them—about 600,000 acres, more or less, and delivered over to them blankets, knives, looking-glasses, tomahawks, beads, scissors, flour, &c. &c., as payment for the land; and also agreed to give them a tribute, or rent, yearly. The parchment the eight chiefs signed, delivering to me some of the soil, each of them, as giving me full possession of the tracts of land." The Sunday journal relates:—"Detained this morning some time drawing up triplicates of the deeds of the land I purchased, and delivering over to them more property. Just before leaving, the two principal chiefs came and brought their two cloaks, or royal mantles, and laid them at my feet, wishing me to accept the same. On my consenting to take them, they placed them round my neck and over my shoulders, and seemed quite pleased to see me

walk about with them on. I had no trouble to find out their secret marks. One of my natives (Bungett) went to a tree, out of sight of the women, and made the Sydney natives' mark. After this was done, I took with me two or three of my natives to the principal chief, and showed him the mark on the tree. This he knew immediately, and pointed to the knocking out of the teeth. The mark is always made when the ceremony of knocking out the teeth in the front is done. However, after this I desired, through my natives, for him to make his mark; which, after looking about some time, and hesitating some few minutes, he took the tomahawk and cut out in the bark of the tree his mark, which is attached to the deed, and is the signature of the country and tribe." Only those acquainted with native habits in the wild state can appreciate the action of Batman. He was so popular with them that not a few secrets would be imparted to him. His daughters stated that he had been once admitted into some of their mysteries, and made a chief. In Tasmania, his long residence amongst the blacks, his agreeable manner with them, his curiosity and enterprise, with many years experience, made his knowledge of them beyond that of perhaps any man in the country. The deed drawn up by Gellibrand was intended, by its formal language, primarily to satisfy the scruples of the civilised. Thus it ran:—"Know all persons that we, three brothers, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, being the three principal chiefs, and also Cooloolock, Bungarie, Yanyan, Moowhip, Monmarmalar, being the chiefs of a certain native tribe called Dutigallar, situate at and near Port Phillip, called by us, the above-mentioned chiefs, Iransnoo and Geelong, being possessed of the tract of land hereinafter mentioned, for and in consideration of twenty pairs of blankets, thirty knives, twelve tomahawks, ten looking-glasses, twelve pairs of scissors, fifty handkerchiefs, twelve red shirts, four flannel jackets, four suits of clothes, and fifty pounds of flour, delivered to us by John Batman, residing in Van Diemen's Land, Esquire, but at present sojourning with us and our tribe, do, for ourselves, our heirs, and successors, give, grant, enfeoff, and confirm unto the said John Batman, his heirs and assigns, all that tract of country situate and being in the bay of Port Phillip, known by the name of Indented Head, but called by us Geelong, extending across from Geelong Harbour about due south for ten miles, more or less, to the head of Port Phillip, taking in the whole neck or tract of land containing about 100,000 acres, as the same hath been before the execution of these presents delineated and marked out by us, according to the custom of our tribe, by certain marks made upon the trees growing along the boundaries of the said tract of land, with all advantages belonging thereto, unto and to the use of the said John Batman, his heirs, said tract of land, and place thereon, sheep and cattle, yielding and delivering to us and

assigns, to the meaning and intent that the said John Batman, his heirs and assigns, may occupy and possess the same, and our heirs and successors the yearly rent or tribute of fifty pair of blankets, fifty knives, fifty tomahawks, fifty pair of scissors, fifty looking-glasses, twenty suits of slops or clothing, and two tons of flour. In witness thereof, we, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, the three principal chiefs, and also Cooloolock, Bungarie, Yanyan, Moowhip, and Monmarmalar, the chiefs of the said tribe, have hereunto affixed our seals to these presents, and have signed the same. Dated, according to the Christian era, this 6th day of June, 1835.—Signed, sealed, and delivered in the presence of us, the same having been fully and properly interpreted and explained to the said chiefs.

(Signed)	{	JAGAJAGA, his × mark.
		JAGAJAGA, his × mark.
		JAGAJAGA, his × mark.
		COOLOLOCK, his × mark.
		BUNGARIE, his × mark.
(Signed)	{	YANYAN, his × mark.
		MONMARMALAR, his × mark.
		JAMES GUMM.
		WM. TODD.
		JOHN BATMAN.

Be it remembered that on the day and year within written, possession and delivery of the tract of land within-mentioned was made by the within-named Jagajaga, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, Cooloolock, Bungarie, Yanyan, Moowhip, Monmarmalar, chiefs of the tribes or natives called Dutigallar-Geelong, to the within-named John Batman, by the said chiefs, taking up part of the soil, and delivering the same to the said John Batman, in the name of the whole.

JAGAJAGA,	BUNGARIE,
JAGAJAGA,	YANYAN,
JAGAJAGA,	MOOWHIP,
COOLOLOCK,	MONMARMALAR.

In the presence of JAMES GUMM,
(Signed) ALEXANDER THOMSON,
WM. TODD."

The other deed was almost precisely similar, and it is only necessary to give the first paragraph:—

"Know all persons, that we, three brothers, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, Jagajaga, being the principal chiefs, and also Cooloolock, Bungarie, Yanyan, Moowhip, and Monmarmalar, also being the chiefs of a certain native tribe called Dutigallar, situate at and near Port Phillip, called by us, the above-mentioned chiefs, Tramoo, being possessed of the tract of land hereinafter mentioned, for and in consideration of twenty pair blankets, thirty tomahawks, one hundred knives, fifty pair scissors, thirty looking-glasses, two hundred handkerchiefs, and one hundred pounds of flour, and six shirts, delivered to us by John Batman, residing in Van Diemen's Land, Esquire, but at present sojourning with us and our tribe, do, for ourselves, our heirs and successors, give, grant, enfeoff, and confirm unto the said John Batman, his heirs and assigns,

all that tract of country situate and being in Port Phillip, running from the branch of the river at the top of the port, about seven miles from the mouth of the river, forty miles north-east, and from thence west forty miles across Tramoo downs or plains, and from thence south-south-west across Mount Vilumarnatar to Geelong Harbour, at the head of the same, and containing about 500,000, more or less, acres. (Signed, as above.)"

The territory thus purchased included all the western side of Port Phillip Bay. Leaving Batman's Creek, named "after my own good self," and the chiefs with whom he had made his treaty, he passed along Maria's Valley, named after his eldest daughter, and reached a forest. This, from the description, must be what is now the Royal Park. Anxious to get to his vessel, lying at the mouth of the Saltwater River, he found, as he descended from the highland, that he would have to cross what is now known as Batman's Swamp. On Sunday, 7th June, he came upon the Varra, which he named after himself, the Batman. He determined to leave three white men, with three Sydney natives, at Indented Head, with three months supply, whilst he returned to V.D.L. Taking with him, therefore, on board, the presents of spears, wommeras, boomerangs, and stone tomahawks, he tried to get from Williamstown waters. But the winds were adverse, and too active to lose time, he took a row up the Yarra. He writes: "The boat went up the large river, which comes from the east, and I am glad to state about six miles up found the river all good water and very deep. *This will be the place for a village.*" Hastening back from the future Melbourne Wharf, he landed at Indented Head on Tuesday. All his Sydney men wanted to stay, so he permitted two to remain with the rest—eight in all. They were directed to plant garden seeds, fruits, and potatoes. He left apples and oranges with them and also six dogs, and gave them written authority to put off any person or persons that might trespass on the land he purchased from the natives. Shaking hands all round, the sea party got through the heads on Sunday evening, ran eighty miles that night, and entered Georgetown at six on Thursday morning, with a fair wind up to Launceston, on 18th June 1835. The story Batman had to tell his partners was highly satisfactory; but to their application for a recognition of the treaty with the natives, Governor Arthur, though personally favourable to the settlement, was compelled to give an official refusal, and quoted the decision of the British Government on a somewhat similar application of the Hentys for recognition of their claims to land at Portland. His decision was subsequently upheld by Lord Glenelg, the Colonial Secretary. But the dis-favour shown by Arthur to the project had no effect. The spirit of enterprise was awakened. The crew of the little pioneer *Rebecca* talked to other people at Launceston Wharf. Robson, the mate, told Captain Lancey how they had found a river and splendid country, and Lancey, Fawcner

and others had long been thinking of trying their fortunes across the straits. In April 1836 Batman returned with his family, and bringing the rest of his party from the Indented Head, established himself on a hill at the western end of Collins-street, Melbourne, which, until it was levelled in 1870, for the purpose of increasing the accommodation of the Government Railways, bore his name, and was the site from which the latitude and longitude of Melbourne was determined, until the erection of the Observatory. The opinion of British lawyers was sought as to the right of the King to oust the Association. It was unfavourable to the colonists. All admitted their good motives, and praised them for their kind feelings towards the natives. Compensation for their outlay and trouble was requested, as the least that could be done. This was allowed some years after. At a land sale they bought 7416 acres on the Geelong side of the Bay for £7919, and £7000 of the amount was remitted for the losses they had sustained. Batman for a time was the ruling spirit of the little settlement. The *Sydney Gazette* for April 1836 calls him "the *locum tenens* of the Lieutenant-Governor." But the old evils of a rude civilisation followed his prosperity, ruined his health, disordered his family, brought him to an early grave in 1839, and scattered as well as blasted his once beautiful and happy home. No one bears his name. His daughter Elizabeth was married to William Weire, Town Clerk of Geelong, and had a large family. No son was left to his brother Henry, though he left daughters. It is curious to note that Fawcner never had a child to inherit his name, and his rival has left no one to take the deservedly honoured name of Batman. West speaks thus of him—"To Batman belongs the praise of mingling humanity with severity, of perceiving human affections in the creatures he was commissioned to resist. He certainly began in the midst of conflict and bloodshed to try the softer influence of conciliation and charity—being one of the few who entertained a strong confidence in the power of kindness." Melville says of him that he "proceeded not with the sword, but with the olive branch," in his dealings with the natives.

BAUDIN, NICHOLAS, French navigator. When Flinders was sailing down into Bass Straits in 1801, he fell in at Encounter Bay with a French expedition, consisting of two ships, the *Naturaliste* and *Geographe*, sent out by the first Napoleon to make discoveries in Australia. Baudin, the commander, had loitered so long on the coast of V.D.L., that Flinders had been able to complete the examination of the southern coast before he even approached it. Yet he sailed into the same bays which Flinders had already mapped, and gave them French names, and took the honour of their discovery. He had passed Port Phillip without noticing the entrance. Some months later the two explorers met again in Port Jackson, where Flinders obtained for them the most hospitable treatment. Flinders showed his charts, and the

French officers allowed that he had carried off the honour of nearly all the discoveries on the south coast; but, in spite of that, Baudin sent home to France a report in which Flinders' claims were quite ignored, and he himself was represented as the discoverer. Some time after, Baudin called at the Mauritius; but, instead of procuring the release of Flinders, he persuaded the Governor to confine him more rigorously. Then, after having taken copies of Flinders' maps and charts, he sailed to France, where he published a book, and the French nation called him the greatest discoverer of the present century, while Flinders, the real discoverer, was spending the weary hours in confinement in Mauritius! Later geographers have exposed the frauds of Baudin, and done full justice to the genius and enterprise of Flinders.

BAUDIN ROCKS is the name given to two high rocks with a reef to the mainland, showing heavy breakers, lying ten miles to the S. of Cape Jaffa, and forming the W. shelter of Guichen bay, S.A. They are four and a-half miles N. by W. from Cape Lannes, and are visible seven miles.

BAUER CAPE is the name of the S. and E. head of Streaky Bay, S.A. At a distance of four miles and three-quarters E., lies a rocky island called Olive Island, surrounded by reefs; there is, however, a passage into the bay, between the cape and island. This cape forms the W. head of Gibson's Peninsula.

BAXTER, JOHN, accompanied Eyre in his journey from Adelaide to King George's Sound in 1841, and was killed by two natives who also accompanied the expedition.

BAY OF INLETS, on the N.E. coast of the continent, between Capes Palmerston and Townshend, comprehends in its extent the openings named Shoalwater Bay, Thirsty Sound, and Broad Sound.

BAY OF ISLANDS, on the N.E. coast of the Province of Auckland, N.Z., one of the finest harbours in the world, was discovered and named by Cook on his first visit. In 1814 the Rev. S. Marsden visited N.Z., and, on his representations, the Church Missionary Society established a mission, the headquarters of which were located at the Bay of Islands. From this time traders from N.S.W. began to establish agencies for commercial purposes; and individual Europeans, who were employed by Sydney merchants, or who traded on their own account, became attached to numerous native villages, where they were treated with respect, and regarded as the valuable property of the particular chief who had the good luck to secure their residence among them, accompanied by the various advantages which flowed from their presence. Then numerous whaling and lumbering establishments were planted by the Sydney merchants on the coasts of both Islands. These consisted of the very roughest specimens of the sailor class, of runaways from ships, or refugees from the prisons of Botany Bay. Alliances were

contracted between these men and native women, from which sprang a numerous progeny of half-castes. These whalers and sawyers had many fine characteristics about them; they were brave and hardy, pretty well disciplined in all that concerned their business, and many of them experienced in mechanic arts. As the whaling fleet of the Pacific increased, hundreds of ships made Kororarika, in the Bay of Islands, the only town or village then established by Europeans, the place of their periodical refreshment. Their crews, released after a long detention on board ship, plunged into the lowest dissipation, in which the natives became their partners, and the town of Kororariki, which had grown into a considerable place on the strength of the whaling trade, was, at times, turned into a veritable pandemonium. Exactly opposite, at Pahia, on the other side of the beautiful bay, in one of its pleasantest coves, with a bright beach of golden sand, washed by the ripple of the sea, stood the mission station, with its church and printing-office, and there the Scriptures were translated and printed in the Maori language, as quickly as it could be mastered by the missionaries who had undertaken the work of converting the Maori race. Thus, as everywhere, flowed alongside of each other the tides of good and evil, and the choice between the two was offered to the Maori. The irregular kind of colonisation which was thus going on was attended with innumerable evils, and was beyond all control. It was not possible that the expediency of interference could long escape the attention of the Imperial Government, whose subjects were principally engaged in it. They appointed a "Resident Magistrate," Rev. Mr. Kendall, one of the missionary body; then a "Resident," Mr. Busby. But these "wooden guns," as the natives called them, were entirely without power, and the effect of their presence was very little felt by either Maoris or Europeans. The Colonial Office of the day did foolish things about recognising the Maori people as an independent nation, and bestowing on them a national flag, thus abandoning the right of occupation resting on Cook's discovery, and rendering it necessary, at a later period, to accomplish a surrender of sovereignty by the natives (though sovereignty was a thing they had never known,) in order to prevent the French from taking possession. The action of the Government was also hastened by that of the N.Z. Company, which, wearied out by long negotiations, at last precipitated, without the co-operation or consent of the Government, that systematic colonisation which has since peopled the islands with a British population. The head-quarters of the mission remains at the Bay of Islands; but the population of the place has not increased during the last thirty years. Captain Hobson arrived here on 29th January 1840; on 7th February, N.Z. was proclaimed a British colony, and the treaty of Waitangi was executed on that day at a grand convention of the chiefs. Hobson took up his residence here, with

his staff, and a detachment of the 80th regiment; but in January 1841 he removed the seat of Government to Auckland.

BAYLEY, LYTTLETON HOLYOAKE, attorney-general of N.S.W. in 1859. He succeeded Martin, and his appointment gave offence to the bar, because of Bayley's recent arrival in the colony. In the Assembly, D. H. Deniehy moved a series of resolutions condemning the appointment, but failed to carry them.

BAYLY, NICHOLAS PAGET (1814—) a native of N.S.W. In 1828 he went to England to complete his education, and remained four years. Shortly after his return he took charge of Lawson's stations at Mudgee, Coolah and Liverpool Plains. Having gained experience, he began the formation of flocks of his own by the purchase of stud sheep, consisting of rams imported by Lawson from the flocks of George III., and from ewes imported by Lawson from Saxony, and became one of the most successful Australian breeders. He some years since challenged the Colony of V. to compete with N.S.W. in the quality of wool, and himself gained the prize.

BEAGLE BANK is situated off the N.W. coast of the continent. The position of this dangerous bank is well marked by white sand and dead coral, from which a reef extends two and a-half miles in a N.N.W., and one mile in a S.S.E. direction. The reef rises fifteen feet above the level of the sea, and may be seen six miles off.

BEAMES BROOK, a beautiful stream of N.A., discovered by Leichhardt, and named after Walter Beames of Sydney, who assisted his expedition. It flows into the Gulf of Carpentaria, to westward of Flinders River; and its banks are lined by a rich and verdant brush of pandanus, the palm, and several other varieties of trees.

BEDOUT ISLAND, on the N.W. coast of the continent, is a circular islet, twenty-feet high, and half a mile in extent.

BEDOUT CAPE, the westernmost point of Kangaroo Island, S.A.

BEECHWORTH, a mining township, 171 miles by rail N.E. of Melbourne, and about twenty-five miles from the Murray River. It is the principal town of the Murray district and of the celebrated Ovens goldfields. It is situated on high land, 1725 feet above the sea-level. The town possesses numerous public buildings. The population is about 3167. Chinamen have lately selected in various parts of the district with a view to growing tobacco in conjunction with other crops. The district is essentially a mining one, formerly alluvial, but now much more of the reef character, and likely to be permanent. The value of the plant in the mining division is estimated at £53,260. The number of distinct quartz reefs is 769, and 311 square miles of auriferous ground are being worked by 5176 miners, of whom 1969 are Chinese. The water supply is derived from Lake Kerferd,

BEETE, CAPTAIN, was Acting Lieutenant-Governor of W.A. from 11th to 24th May 1834.

BELANGLA, a mountain range in the county of Camden N.S.W., fourteen miles from Berrima. On this range are found excellent coal, alum, and other minerals.

BELFAST, a seaport town in the county of Villiers, V., at the mouth of the River Moynes, 180 miles W.S.W. of Melbourne. The harbour is called Port Fairy. Sea-going vessels drawing nine feet of water are loaded and discharged at the wharf stores in the middle of the town. Belfast mainly depends on the fertile farms in the neighbourhood for support; and a large trade in wool, grain, and general produce is done with the Penshurst, Hamilton, and Coleraine districts. It is the principal shipping port of the western district, and quantities of produce find their way to Melbourne. The town is quadrangular in form, and contains a number of good buildings. The population of the borough is about 3000. The Tower Hill, a remarkable volcanic mountain, with a perfect extinct crater, standing in the Tower Lake, is nine miles N.N.E. of Belfast. It is entirely surrounded with water, and is much frequented by sightseers. Port Fairy was discovered in 1827 by Wishart. An extensive special survey was soon after taken up by Atkinson, of which Belfast (named by him after the well-known capital of the North of Ireland,) was the outpost. In 1848 it contained only fifty houses and 269 inhabitants.

BELL RIVER, in N.S.W., borders the county of Wellington on its western side, and joins the Macquarie River at Wellington Valley. It was named by Oxley in compliment to Major Bell, 48th regiment.

BELL, JOSHUA PETER, (1826—) came to N.S.W. in 1830, and in 1847 went to Q., where he bought a property named Jimbour, and gained fame as a wool-grower. He entered Parliament in 1863, and, on the formation of the Palmer ministry, in 1871, accepted office as treasurer, which position he held until 1874. He represented Dalby uninterruptedly in Parliament till his appointment as President of the Legislative Council in March, 1879.

BELMORE, EARL OF, SOMERSET RICHARD LOWRY CORRY (1835—) Viscount and Baron Belmore of Castle Coole, county Fermanagh, in the peerage of Ireland, succeeded to the title in 1845, and was elected one of the representative Irish peers in the House of Lords in 1857. In 1867 he was appointed Governor of N.S.W. During his term occurred the visit of the Duke of Edinburgh, and the attack on the Prince's life at Sydney. Nothing of any importance, politically, took place during Lord Belmore's government, which lasted from 8th January 1868, to 22nd February 1872.

BELYANDO, a river of N.A., discovered by Mitchell in 1846. He traced it across two parallels

of latitude. To his great disappointment he then found that this river had been previously discovered by Leichhardt, and named by him the "Cape."

BENALLA, a township on the Broken River, V., 122 miles N.E. of Melbourne, the centre of an agricultural and pastoral district. Wheat and oats are principally grown on the farms. The vine is also cultivated. The town was laid out in 1846, but was of small growth until 1854, when it sprang into importance as the centre of a district admirably suited to the growth of grain, and of most of the fruits of the temperate zone. An Agricultural Society is in existence, whose first show was held in September 1878. Tobacco is grown by Chinamen on the flats of the King River. The population of the town is about 2000.

BENDIGO DIGGINGS, the original name of the Sandhurst gold-field. The name is a corruption of "bandicoot," that animal being very numerous at the creek on which gold was first struck. It so happened that "Bendigo" was the name of an English pugilist of the period, and the erroneous idea spread that the place was called after him.

BENNETT, GEORGE, M.D. (1804—) a distinguished naturalist and man of science, is a native of Plymouth, England. In 1819 he visited Ceylon, and on his return to England he studied for the medical profession. After obtaining his diploma he took charge of the scientific department of a circumnavigating expedition, the results of which are laid down in various papers printed from time to time in the *Asiatic, United Service, London's Magazine of Natural History*, and other scientific journals. In 1832 he revisited N.S.W. to investigate the natural history of Australia. Bennett's observations on the Platypus, of which he was the scientific discoverer, are of the greatest importance to science. He was the first to discover the Nautilus in a living state, and supplied Professor Owen with the specimen described in the catalogue of the Royal College of Surgeons, London. After a visit to Java, Singapore, and China, he recorded his observations in his first work, *Wanderings in N.S.W., Singapore, and China* (London: 1834,) and eventually settled in Sydney for the practice of his profession in 1836. He was the first secretary to the Australian Museum, in Sydney, and was ever alert when new discoveries were made. His liberality in purchasing these objects and making them known to the world has often been acknowledged. The Cassowary which bears the doctor's name, the tooth-billed pigeons, and numerous other zoological and palæontological objects which Gould, Selater, Owen, and other eminent naturalists constantly refer to in their works, show what a single liberal-minded man can accomplish, even though much occupied with an extensive practice as a medical man. In 1878, during a visit to England and the Continent, Bennett was elected a member of the Geographical

Society of Rome, and of the Literary and Philosophical Society of Liverpool. After a long stay in Europe he returned to Australia in April 1879. His other works are *Gatherings of a Naturalist* (London: 1860,) and numerous contributions to scientific and medical journals. He is M.D. of Glasgow; F.R.C.S., M.R.C.S., Hon. Gold Medal, 1834 (Middlesex Hospital, London); Silver medal Zoological Society, London, and Acclimatisation Society, Melbourne; F.L.S., F.Z.S., Corr. Memb. Imp. Royal Zool. Soc., Vienna; and of many other foreign societies.

BENNETT, SAMUEL (1815-78) came to Sydney in 1841, under engagement to the proprietors of the *S. M. Herald*, and continued in that office with Kemp and Fairfax during their partnership, and afterwards with John Fairfax, being for seventeen years superintendent of the printing department. In 1859, in partnership with William Hanson, he purchased the *Empire* newspaper, which had been first started by Henry Parkes in 1850; and the firm Hanson and Bennett conducted that paper for several years as a daily and also as a weekly journal. Bennett then became sole proprietor; and whilst continuing the paper started first, the *Evening News* in 1867, and in 1870 the (weekly) *Town and Country Journal*. Bennett also wrote *The History of Australian Discovery and Colonisation*, which is an excellent manual of its subject.

BENT, JEFFREY HART, first judge of the Supreme Court in N.S.W., arrived in July 1814. Hardly had he taken his seat on the bench when a serious disagreement took place between him and Governor Macquarie, and Bent was sent back to England.

BENT, ANDREW, journalist, established the *Hobart Town Gazette*, the first permanent newspaper in V.D.L., under the immediate patronage and control of the Government. The first number appeared 1st June 1816. On the arrival of Governor Arthur, Bent threw off the Government trammels, and a quarrel ensued between the Governor and the journalist. Bent changed the title of his newspaper to the *Colonial Times* in August 1825. The Governor tried to crush the press by an Act of the Legislature passed in 1827; and Bent then started the *Colonial Advocate*, a monthly magazine, on 1st March 1828. The colonists protested against Arthur's despotic act, and the Secretary of State disallowed it. Arthur then prosecuted Bent for libel; he was found guilty, and cast in damages and expenses amounting to £500. The monthly magazine, being issued at five shillings per number, did not suit the circumstances of the population, and it was dropped after the issue of a few numbers.

BERKLEY, GEORGE, was Acting-Governor of W.A. from 3rd September to 7th October, 1874.

BERLIN, a mining township in V., on the Kangdrara Creek, four miles south of Kingower,

133 miles N.W. from Melbourne, deriving its existence from the prolific gold-fields and agricultural land in its neighbourhood. Here, on 31st May 1870, a large nugget was unearthed; it weighed 93 lbs. 8 ozs., and yielded 1105 ounces of pure gold. It was named after the Governor—"Viscount Canterbury." In October of the same year, another weighing 896 ounces was discovered. Other nuggets have also been found, principally in Catto's paddock. The celebrated Blanche Barkly nugget, weighing 145 lbs., was found at Kingower Flat, a few miles distant. Two other large nuggets were found in 1871, one called the Precious, weighing 143 ozs., and the other called the Kum Tow (17th April,) weighing 66 lbs. The diggings are very nuggetty, the gold lying on or near the surface.

BERNIER ISLAND, off W.A., at the entrance of Geographie Channel, between Kok's Sound and Dorre Island.

BERNIER CAPE, on the S.E. coast of T., opposite Maria Island.

BERRIMA, a township on the Wingecarribee River, N.S.W., on the main Southern-road, at an elevation of about 2300 feet above the sea-level, eighty-three miles from Sydney, S.W., with which the connection is Moss Vale railway station, distant four miles. The population is about 500. A rich mineral district surrounds Berrima, which has yet to be properly developed. Seams of coal have been opened out, and kerosene shale has been found, and is being worked. Much land in the district has been taken up for agricultural purposes, the soil in some parts being very suitable. Berrima was first explored by the brothers Hume, in 1814.

BERRY, ALEXANDER (1781-1873) a native of Scotland, where he studied for the medical profession. He went out to India in the service of the E.I. Company, and remained some years in that country. He then entered on mercantile pursuits, and first visited Sydney in 1808, as captain of the ship *City of Edinburgh*. In 1809 he visited N.Z. to procure a cargo of spars for the Cape of Good Hope. Being informed that a ship had been taken by the natives at Wangaroa, he succeeded by great exertions in rescuing the survivors from the vessel—a woman, two infants, and a boy named Davies. After this voyage he settled in Sydney, in partnership with Edward Woolstoncraft. In 1820 he explored the valley of the Shoalhaven River, where he obtained a large free grant of land. In 1825 he cut a dyke from the river to Crookhaven. His partner died in 1832. Berry was one of the nominee Members of the first Legislative Council, and was a Member of the Upper House from 1856 till 1861.

BERRY, GRAHAM (1822—) came to V. in 1852; was elected member of the Assembly for E. Melbourne in 1860, and re-elected in 1861 and 1864, but was several times defeated both previously and subsequently. In 1866 he bought a share in the *Geelong Register*, and removed to that

town, and in 1868 was elected for Geelong W. In 1870 he became Treasurer in the short-lived Macpherson Ministry, and the next year was Commissioner of Customs in the Duffy Ministry, when he brought in and carried a protective tariff imposing *ad valorem* duties of twenty per cent. on all imported manufactures. Soon afterwards he resigned, under circumstances which formed the subject of an inquiry by a select Parliamentary Committee, the report of which was never published. In 1874 he was once more elected for Geelong W., and on the fall of the McCulloch Ministry, in August 1875, became Chief Secretary and Treasurer of a new Administration, which, however, was defeated on the question of imposing a land tax, after a few months existence, and was obliged to resign. In May 1877 Berry was again elected, and on the resignation of the McCulloch Ministry, as the result of the general election then held, he was once more Chief Secretary. A quarrel then arose between the two houses in reference to the question of payment of members, and the Council laid aside the Appropriation Act for the year. The Assembly, at Berry's suggestion, appointed himself and Professor Pearson as a deputation to the Secretary of State, praying for such an alteration in the Constitution Act as would make the Assembly supreme on all matters of finance. The deputation left in December 1878, and as the result of several conferences with the Secretary of State (Sir Michael Hicks-Beach,) Berry returned to the colony (June, 1879) with a despatch, containing a recommendation to both parties to adopt moderate and conciliatory counsels. In July the parliamentary session opened, and Berry laid on the table of the Assembly a Reform Bill proposing the substitution of a nominee for an elective Upper House, with a *plebiscitum* in all cases of disagreement. Failing to carry this measure, he asked for and was granted a dissolution. The result of the general election that followed, in February 1880, was adverse to the Ministry, and Berry at once resigned without meeting Parliament. Service was then commissioned to form an Administration, and Parliament was called together in June. The first act of the new Ministry was to lay their Reform Bill before the Assembly. It was rejected on the second reading, and the House was again dissolved. The result of the general election, in July, was against the Ministry, who resigned, and Berry again became Chief Secretary.

BETHANGA, a township on the Mitta Mitta River, V., 200 miles N.E. of Melbourne, with a population of about 1000. The discovery of a silver lode was made here in October 1877, and it is now being worked, as is also copper, which is looking well; the lodes are two feet to three feet thick, and two furnaces are now at work.

BICKERTON ISLAND, in the Gulf of Carpentaria, between Groote Eylandt and the mainland.

BIGGE, JOHN THOMAS, was sent out by the Imperial Government to N.S.W. in 1819, as a special commissioner from His Majesty "to examine into all the laws, regulations and usages of the settlement of the territory and its dependencies, and into every other matter or thing in any way connected with the administration of the Civil Government, the superintendence and reform of the convicts, the state of the judicial and ecclesiastical Establishments, the revenue, trade and resources." The mission originated in a conviction which the Imperial Government entertained, that the time had arrived when N.S.W. might be raised from the position of a penal into that of a free colony. Bigge arrived in Sydney in September. His investigations extended over nearly two years, and in January 1822 his reports (three in number) were printed by order of the House of Commons. The first report dealt with the question of Penal Discipline; the second with the Judicial Establishment; and the third with Ecclesiastical matters, and Trade and Agriculture. The result was that the Commissioner did not advise the discontinuance of the penal system, but only a modification of the system of discipline. With reference to the Judicial business, he recommended that the salaries of the judges should be increased, instead of receiving a portion of the Court fees, which they were then allowed to do. Bigge was accompanied by Thomas Hobbes Scott, as Secretary. He embarked for England in H.M. Ship *Dromedary* in February 1821. His painstaking report diffused a better knowledge of the colony than had previously prevailed in England.

BILLABONG, a township in N.S.W., 250 miles W. of Sydney, on the main road to the Bogan. Population about 300. Within a radius of one mile there are twelve gold-bearing quartz reefs, some of which are being worked. Much land has been taken up by free selectors in the vicinity. The auriferous ground extends over a large area. The agricultural land is unsurpassed, and unequalled for fruit and vine growing.

BINDON, SAMUEL HENRY (1812-79) was a graduate of Trinity College, Dublin, and in 1838 was called to the Irish bar. At that time it was expected that he would inherit his father's estate; but in consequence of the famine of 1846, the property had to be sold in the Encumbered Estates Court. In 1846, Bindon visited the Continent, where he found, in Belgium, some extremely curious books published by Irish exiles of the period of Cromwell. These he republished with a well-written preface in the *Library of Ireland*. From an early period in his career he took great interest in antiquarian researches, and was a member of the Celtic Society and Archaeological Society of Ireland. In 1855 Bindon came to Victoria, where he soon acquired an extensive county court practice. During the absence in Europe of Justice Williams (from 1859 to 1861,) and when Pohlman

was holding *ad interim* the office of puisne judge of the Supreme Court, he acted as county court judge. In 1864 Bindon entered political life. At the general election he was returned for Castlemaine, and took his seat among the supporters of the M'Culloch Ministry; moving the address of the Assembly in reply to the Governor's speech. In the course of the session he advocated economy in the public expenditure, the creation of a Ministerial department of industries, and economic instruction. He supported the action of the Government in their "tack" of the protective tariff to the Appropriation Bill; and obtained the passage of a resolution in favour of a grant to meet the expenses of a series of intercolonial exhibitions of industry and art. From his efforts in this direction arose the International Exhibition of 1866. On M'Culloch's appeal to the country in January 1866 Bindon was again elected for Castlemaine. During the year he carried a bill to protect the rights of inventors, and advocated a revision of the Commission of the Peace, on the ground that men had been appointed magistrates rather for political services than because they possessed the necessary qualifications: the periodical removal of Crown prosecutors and district surveyors from one district to another; and the imposition of a property tax. He was on the select committee appointed to prepare an address to Sir Charles Darling, which recommended a grant of £20,000 to Lady Darling; and he took part in the conference between the two Houses of Parliament which smoothed the way to the passage of the Tariff Bill. In July 1866 Bindon succeeded Michie as Minister of Justice in the M'Culloch administration. He filled that position until May 1868, when the short-lived Sladen Ministry took the reins of government; and on M'Culloch resuming office in July 1868, Bindon did not receive a portfolio. During his term of office he reduced the number of police magistrates, and sought to effect other economical reforms in his department. In 1867 he submitted to Parliament a bill to establish a Board of Agriculture and Industries, under which the old Board of Agriculture would have been abolished, and a new and more efficient organisation substituted. The Assembly, after passing the first clause, abolishing the Board, struck out all the other clauses which provided for the creation of a new one. The bill in that state went to the Upper House, and was rejected, but the Board subsequently passed out of existence, and the present department of Agriculture was established. Bindon also introduced a Fees of Court Bill which, however, did not go to a second reading, but the idea it embodied—that of collecting court revenues by means of stamps—was carried into law in 1869. He also carried a resolution for the appointment of a commission to promote technological and industrial instruction amongst the working classes. He induced the Assembly to agree to an address to the Governor, submitting that the rules and regulations with

reference to precedence on state and other occasions, compiled by direction of the Secretary of State for the Colonies for the guidance of Governors, were "inconsistent with that religious equality which is by law declared and established in this country." Viscount Canterbury referred the matter to the Imperial Government, and in a despatch Earl Granville intimated Her Majesty's pleasure "that no bishop or other ecclesiastical dignitary, of whatever persuasion, hereafter appointed in the colony shall be entitled to any precedence under the regulations of 1867." In October 1868 Bindon resigned his seat in Parliament, and was created county court judge by the M'Culloch Ministry, which position he occupied until Black Wednesday, when all the county court judges were removed from office. Bindon, with two others, was shortly afterwards reinstated. He was a member of the Technological Commission of 1867, a trustee of the Public Library, Museum, and National Gallery of Victoria, and chairman of the Industrial and Technological Museums Committee. In accordance with the resolution moved by him in the Assembly in 1868, a commission was appointed in 1869 for promoting technological and industrial instruction. This body, of which he was the chairman and moving spirit, established a large number of schools of design throughout the country. In Exhibition movements he took an active part, and was one of the commissioners of the exhibitions of 1866, 1872, 1875, and 1880. He was likewise a member of the Penal Commission of 1870, chairman of the Novel Industries and Forest Commission of 1871, member of the Acclimatisation Society of Great Britain, member of the Council of the Acclimatisation Society of Victoria, a naturalist, and a keen sportsman.

BIRDS OF AUSTRALIA. "Among the temperate countries of the world, Australia stands unrivalled for the variety of form, the beauty of plumage, and the singularity of habits, of its birds. Its parrots and cockatoos are more numerous and beautiful than those of many tropical countries. The golden-yellow and velvety-black regent-bird, and the intensely vivid metallic plumage of the rifle-birds, are almost unrivalled; many of the pigeons are exquisitely beautiful, while some of the warblers and fly-catchers, the curious little Mahuri or Australian wrens, and many of the finches, are unsurpassed for beautiful combinations of vivid colour. The strange, yet elegant tail of the lyre-bird, is altogether unique; while the curious habits of the brush-turkeys and the bower-birds are equally remarkable. Taking the Australian birds as a whole, there is little of that marvellous isolation from the other continents that is so prominent a feature of the mammalia. All the chief orders, and most of the important and wide-spread families, are well represented; yet there are certain deficiencies of great importance. Two great families which range over almost all the rest of the globe—the vultures and the

woodpeckers—are quite unknown in Australia. The pheasants are also wanting, as well as two families excessively abundant in tropical Asia—the bulbuls and the barbets. But these deficiencies are more than compensated by the presence of a number of families which are altogether peculiar to Australia and the surrounding islands. These are the Meliphagidæ, or honey-suckers; the Platycercidæ, or broad-tailed parroquets; the Trichoglossidæ, or brush-tongued lorries; the Megapodiidæ, or brush-turkeys; and two small families, the Menuridæ or lyre-birds, and the Atrichidæ or scrub-birds. Australia is pre-eminently a land of flowers; its largest forest-trees—the Eucalypti—having blossoms like a myrtle, while the flowering shrubs are innumerable. No less remarkable is the paucity of soft and juicy fruits; and, in accordance with these peculiarities, we find that an extensive and varied family of birds have been developed, which frequent blossoms almost as constantly as do the humming-birds of America, and for the same purpose—to feed upon the secreted honey and the small insects attracted to it. Their organisation is, however, totally unlike that of the humming-birds, the Meliphagidæ having a brush-tipped tongue, and exceedingly powerful grasping feet, with which they cling to the flowers while rifling them of their sweets. Being thus specially adapted to its flora, we may consider the honey-suckers as the birds which more than any others characterise Australia. A group of honey-sucking parrots—the Trichoglossidæ, or brush-tongued parroquets—are also peculiar to the Australian region, but abound more in the tropical islands, from the Moluccas to the Pacific. Next to these, as a special Australian type (or even before them, as some may think,) come the brush-turkeys or mound-makers—birds of low organisation, and allied, though remotely, to the curassows of South America. There are three species of these birds in Australia, the Talegalla or brush-turkey, the Leipoa or scrub-pheasant, and the Megapodius, which is only found in the tropical parts of the continent. All these birds have the curious reptilian character of never sitting on their eggs, which they bury under mounds of earth or refuse vegetable matter, allowing them to be hatched by the heat of the sun, or that produced by fermentation. Their eggs are enormously large in proportion to the size of the bird, and are laid at intervals of several days. The parrots of Australia are wonderfully varied, and very beautiful. There are white, and rose-crested, and black cockatoos; gorgeous broad-tails; pretty lorries, and elegant grass-parroquets and love-birds. The pigeons are hardly less beautiful; the green fruit-doves, the bronze-wings, the crested pigeon, and the “magnificent” fruit-pigeon, being the most notable. The emu and the cassowary are the well-known Australian representatives of the ostrich tribe. The kingfishers are of strange forms or brilliant colours; while the enormous mouths of the Podargi, called “more-porks” from their singular cry, render them one of the strangest and

most unsightly of birds. Song-birds, too, are not wanting. There are many musical warblers equal to our English favourite songsters; while the wonderfully modulated whistle of the piping-crow or musical magpie, and the mocking notes of the lyrebird, are unequalled amongst European birds. Not less remarkable on account of their habits are the satin-birds, or bower-birds, which construct bower-like structures of twigs and branches, and decorate them with coloured feathers, bones, and shells. Some of these bowers are the resort of many individuals, both male and female, which run in and out as if for amusement. If we consider the limited area of Australia, the great extent of its desert interior, and its isolation from all the great continents, the abundance and variety of its bird-life are very remarkable. It possesses about 630 distinct species of birds; whereas Europe with a much larger area has less than 500; and North America, with its enormous area and its immense accessions of migratory birds from the arctic regions and from the tropics, has only 720. Of the land birds of Australia, not more than one-twentieth are found elsewhere,—an amount of specialty not equalled by any other continent or extensive tract of country.” (WALLACE.) The magnificent work of Gould on the “Birds of Australia” contains all that the naturalist or the man of taste can require to know on this very interesting subject.

BIRDS OF NEW ZEALAND. “Birds form the most interesting class of animals in N.Z., since they are tolerably numerous, and present a number of beautiful and interesting forms. The elegant black parson-bird, with its white throat-tufts, is beautiful and lively, and is an excellent mimic, imitating the notes of other birds and the cries of animals. There are several fair songsters; some of the pigeons and parrots are very handsome; and there are a good number of fine aquatic birds. In all, there are 145 different kinds of birds known, of which the larger proportion belong to the aquatic and wading groups, only fifty-seven being true land birds. Almost all these are peculiar to the islands, and of the thirty-four genera in which they are classed, sixteen, or nearly half, are also peculiar. Among the most remarkable is the singular starling, the ‘huia’ of the natives. It is a glossy black bird, the size of a chough, with handsome orange-coloured wattles. The beak is quite different in the two sexes, that of the male being straight, while the female’s is longer and excessively curved in a sickle shape. Such a remarkable difference in the sexes does not occur in any other known bird. Another remarkable bird is the owl-parrot, of a greenish colour, and with a circle of feathers round the eyes, as in the owl. It is nocturnal in its habits, lives in holes in the ground under tree roots or rocks, and it climbs about the bushes after berries or digs for fern roots. It has fully-developed wings, but hardly ever flies, and has lately exhibited a singular taste for flesh, picking holes in the backs of sheep and

lambs. It was exterminated in the North Island by the natives, who hunted it with their dogs, and it is now only found in the southern and western parts of the South Island, and will probably soon become extinct. Most remarkable of all the birds of N.Z. is the 'Kiwi,' or Apteryx, of which there are three or four species in the two larger islands. These are totally wingless and tailless birds, with feathers resembling hairs, and altogether unlike our usual idea of a bird. They are about the size of a small domestic fowl, with long curved beak, something like that of a curlew. They are entirely nocturnal, feeding on insects, worms, and seeds, and as they have no protection from dogs, they become rapidly exterminated in all the settled districts. But the existing Kiwis are only the last survivors of a race of wingless birds of various sizes, the largest exceeding in bulk and height the largest living ostrich. Remains, more or less complete, of eleven species of these birds—called Moas by the natives—have been found. They differ considerably in structure, proportions, and size, the largest being 10½ feet high, and the smallest about 3 feet. Some perfect skeletons have been found, and even remains of skin and feathers. A perfect egg, 10 inches long and 7 broad, was found in a native grave, as well as moa bones in old native cooking-places; so that there is every reason to believe the traditions of the natives, that their ancestors hunted these enormous birds for food. Some remains, however, have been found in caves under thick layers of stalagmite, and others under several feet of alluvial deposits, and these, no doubt, indicate a period long before the present race of Maoris came to N.Z." (WALLACE.)

BISHOP, CAPTAIN, was sent by Governor Darling from Sydney, in 1827, to found a military post at Illawarra. Darling was apprehensive of the French taking possession of points along the eastern coast of the continent.

BLACK, GEORGE (1817-1879) came to V. about 1852, and having spent some time in trade at the Ovens, returned to Melbourne and purchased the *Diggers' Advocate*, which had been started by George Thompson and Henry Holyoake, brother of the well-known writer on Co-operation. The editor of this gold-fields weekly was H. R. Nicholls, afterwards of the *Ballarat Star*, who had just arrived in the colony. E. Syne, who had also arrived a short time before, wrote articles for the *Advocate*, nearly the whole of the writing being done by Nicholls and him. Black was at Ballarat at the time of the Eureka outbreak, which he did something to bring about, but was not in the stockade at the time of the attack. The proclamation—a very wordy and inflated one—which was read to the "troops" was not written by George Black, but by his brother Henry, who was afterwards killed by the explosion of a blast whilst quartz-mining at Staffordshire Reef. After the stockade affair had been suppressed by the

prompt action of the Government forces, he remained in hiding for some time, a reward of £200 having been offered for his capture. Subsequently he resumed the publication of his paper, but without success, and it was soon dropped. He contested Ballarat East and Grenville in 1856 unsuccessfully, and then retired from public life.

BLACK, NEIL (1804—1880) a native of Argyleshire (Scotland,) where his father was an extensive sheep-farmer. Up to the age of thirty-three, Black lived with his elder brother, Walter, and acquired a thorough knowledge of the breeding and management of stock. He then determined to visit Australia, and on hearing that he was about to emigrate, several gentlemen were desirous that he should take out money to invest for them, and an agreement was drawn up between himself, Mr. Finlay of Toward Castle, Argyleshire, William Ewart Gladstone (now Premier of England,) and Mr. Stewart of Glenormiston, all of whom entered into a partnership for five years, on equal shares, and entrusted Black with the management of the joint funds, together with the selection of the territory, the sole condition being that he should pay cash for everything he bought. He arrived in Adelaide in 1839. He had a look at the country there, then visited Port Phillip, and finished up with an inspection of N.S.W. Port Phillip pleased him best, so he took up a run of 43,700 acres in the Portland Bay district, within a few miles of Lake Terang. To the original run of Glenormiston, named after the estate of Mr. Stewart, he afterwards added the Sisters, acquired by purchase. He had much trouble with the blacks at first, but nothing would induce him to abandon the magnificent estate he had secured. In 1843 Black went home to report progress, and the partnership was renewed. He had an interview with Lord Stanley, Secretary of State for the Colonies; his object being to obtain for the squatters a more certain tenure than they then possessed, but his mission did not succeed. On his return to the colony he bought a third station—Warreanga—near the borders of S.A., and stocked it with sheep, which he afterwards replaced with cattle. In the *Squatters' Directory* for 1849 he figured as the holder of 85,600 acres. Warreanga, 16,640 acres, was sold in 1865, and in 1868 the partnership, after lasting for twenty-nine years to the profit of all concerned, was dissolved. One division of the original run fell to Black, viz., Mount Noorat, and the other became the property of Mr. Finlay. Both stations are regarded as two of the finest grazing freeholds in the Western district of V. From the earliest days Black was an enterprising importer of the best breeds of stock. In 1841 he introduced Cotswolds and pure merinos. Experience convinced him that the runs were better adapted for cattle than sheep, and he took to importing stud cattle, sparing no money to obtain high-class animals. From that time the quality of the Mount Noorat shorthorns has held an exalted place in the estimation of stock buyers,

and probably it now contains as fine a collection of animals as can be anywhere found. Black was a first-class judge of cattle, and by his enterprise as an importer, and carefulness as a breeder, did as much as any man could do to improve the quality of colonial stock. The first important event in the political history of the Port Phillip district was the agitation for separation from N.S.W., and Black took an active part in the movement. Next came the erection of the district into the colony of V., followed in 1856 by the proclamation of a new constitution and the election of two Houses of Legislature. Black made his first effort to obtain a seat in the Council in 1858, but was unsuccessful. In February 1859 he was returned for the Western Province, and held the post till his death. He was the projector and first chairman of the Australasian Association of London. In 1867 Black entertained the Duke of Edinburgh, who made a short stay at Glenormiston while on his tour through the Western district. After 1868 Black resided at Mount Noorat. In the pursuit of stock-breeding he found a satisfying occupation, and earned a high reputation for skill, sound judgment, and enterprise.

BLACKALL, COL. SAMUEL WENSLEY, Governor of Queensland in succession to Sir George Bowen, from 14th August 1868 till his death, 2nd January 1871. He received the Duke of Edinburgh upon his visit to the colony in 1869. Governor Blackall was a man of fine talents and amiable character, and during his brief rule won the respect of all classes.

BLACK THURSDAY, the name given in V. to the 6th February 1851—a day of tremendous heat and destructive fire. Early in the morning the wind increased to a hurricane, and bush fires swept across whole districts with the speed of lightning; crossing roads and wide streams; destroying men, women, and children, cattle and sheep, crops, fences, houses, and, in fact, everything that stood in its way. The devouring flames spread everywhere, careering along the dried herbage on the surface, dancing up the large forest trees, and wantoning in the excess of devastation. When the flames first appeared, many brave men attempted to impede their progress, and avert the ruin of their hopes. They endeavoured to meet the devouring element, and beat it back with green boughs; but these attempts were useless, for the fire swept over them with a giant's strength, as if in mockery of such puny efforts, leaving them charred and lifeless lumps on the ground where they had stood. The herds and flocks, the wild beasts and birds of prey, the reptiles, and other animals, endeavoured to flee, but were speedily overtaken, and fell a prey to the crackling and roaring flames. There were many persons travelling in the bush who had narrow escapes, as they became suddenly enveloped in the flames, and almost suffocated in the sweltering fumes of the surging blast. Could a more awful situation be pictured? The traveller started on his journey without anticipating

danger; the wind from the north gradually grew in violence; the hot, fiery, blazing blast at last appeared charged with an unusual element; then the smell of smoke was perceived; and, in an incredibly brief space, the whole of the bush was in one universal conflagration. Amazed and terrified, the solitary bushman found himself face to face with destruction, and that, too, in the most awful form that death could come. Those who were caught in the jaws of this flaming tempest were withered up like a scroll. The only escape was to gallop, if possible, out of the line of the fire, or take shelter in water. Many that day had a hard race for their lives. On the same date, in the year 1879, another day of nearly similar disaster occurred. A family of seven persons, named Turnbull, residing near Colac, were some burned to death, and some mortally injured, by a bushfire which swept over the country surrounding their dwelling.

BLACK WAR IN TASMANIA. The designation given to a campaign designed to extirpate the native race of V.D.L., suggested by Governor Arthur in 1830. Up till that time the natives had been very troublesome, and all attempts to conciliate or civilise them had failed. Their character had, in fact, become only the more deeply ferocious, and mutual massacres of the whites and blacks were frequent. Arthur had a benevolent intention at bottom, but his plan was an unwise one, and the result a complete failure. He resolved to drive all the native population into Tasman's Peninsula—a territory connected with the mainland by an isthmus a quarter of a mile in breadth. On 22nd September the Governor announced the plan of the campaign. Every settler was called upon to take up arms, and grants of land were promised to those who should do good service. A chain of military posts was to be made across the island, and the advancing forces were to drive the natives before them. The principal depot was at Oatlands, where were provided 1000 muskets, 30,000 rounds of cartridge, 300 pairs of hand-cuffs, and a large store of provisions. The forces amounted to nearly 5000 men. On 1st October the country was declared under martial law, and the Governor in person reviewed the little army. Everything promised success; but unfortunately the extreme aversion of the blacks to the refining influence of civilisation had not been sufficiently appreciated, and after a campaign of nearly two months the heroes returned with only two prisoners. This expedition cost £30,000, and the only person bold enough to publicly proclaim the proceedings ridiculous and expensive was Gregson, who said that the project for netting the aborigines was much like attempting to harpoon a whale from the summit of Mount Wellington! That which violence was unable to accomplish, eloquence and kindness succeeded in achieving. There was in Tasmania a man named Robinson, who had acquired the language of the natives. He offered to go alone and on foot to the savage tribes,

explain to them that the intentions of the settlers were peaceful, and offer them the friendship of the white nation. After many adventures he succeeded. By the aid of interpreters and friendly natives the aboriginal population were made to understand that it was useless for them to contend against the power of the white race, and the tragic story of murder and revenge ended in the founding of a "native village" at Flinders Island, where the remnant of the conquered race might find an asylum and a grave. West gives a graphic account of the dangers and intrepidity of Robinson. On one occasion he was following a tribe who had fled in the direction of the peak of Teneriffe. "He saw them first to the east of the Barn Bluff Mountain, and was not more than two miles distant. He hailed his people, and selected a few of his friendly natives who, together with the woman present at the murder of Captain Thomas, were sent to meet them. The party of Robinson were concealed by a scrub. In less than half-an-hour he heard the war-whoop, and perceived that they were advancing by the rattling of their spears. This was an awful moment to their pacificator. On their approach, the chief, Manalanga, leaped on his feet in great alarm, saying that the natives were coming to spear them; he urged Robinson to run, and finding he would not, took up his ring and spears and went away. The rest of the allies prepared to follow him, but were prevailed on by Robinson to remain. They inferred that the natives sent on the embassy of peace were either killed, or that they had joined the hostile tribe. As these advanced the friendly emissaries were unseen, being hidden by the large number of strangers, who still raised their cry and approached in warlike array. At length Robinson saw his own people; he then went up to the chiefs and shook hands with them. He explained the object of his visit; distributed trinkets among them, and sat down and partook of refreshments with them. From that time they placed themselves under his control, and as they advanced towards Hobart Town, he encouraged them to make excursions, which left their own actions free, and prevented suspicion and distrust. With their wives and children, this party consisted of thirty-six, and at length they were safely lodged on Swan Island. They were fine muscular men, and excited great sympathy and interest. This incident suggested to the venerable artist, Duterrau, the idea of a national picture; he depicts the interview, and delineates the various circumstances drawn from the life with great energy and effect. Robinson is seen in expostulation with a listening chief; a woman behind him is endeavouring to pour distrust into his ear. Others are looking on in expectation or doubt. The grouping is skilful and expressive; and this picture, which has the great merit of minutely representing the attitudes and customs of the natives, will be an interesting memorial, in another age, of the most honourable passage in Tasmanian history."

BLACK WEDNESDAY, the designation given in V. to the 9th January 1878, when a *Gazette Extraordinary* was published announcing the summary dismissal of 300 Government officers, including the Judges of the County Courts, Courts of Mines, and of Insolvency; Police Magistrates, Coroners, three General Sessions Prosecutors, and a large number of the principal Civil Servants, including the Engineer-in-Chief, the Secretary for Lands, the Inspector-General of Public Works, the Collector of Customs, the Engineer of Water Supply, and others. Some of these officers were subsequently reinstated, but most of them preferred taking their compensation and retiring from the service. The plea put forward by the Berry Ministry for this unprecedented act was the rejection of the Appropriation Act by the Legislative Council. The Chief Secretary vindicated it as giving "blow for blow." Sir George Bowen's assent to these dismissals led to a severe reproof from the Secretary of State, and ultimately to his removal to the Governorship of the Mauritius.

BLACKWOOD, CAPTAIN R.N., explored and surveyed the northern coast of the continent in H.M.S. *Fly*, in 1842-1845. He made a minute survey of part of the Great Barrier Reef, the eastern part of Torres Strait, and 140 miles of the S. coast of New Guinea.

BLACKWOOD RIVER, in W.A., enters the Hardy Inlet, six miles to the N.E. of Augusta. It flows through the counties Durham and Nelson, first to the west and then to the south, traversing a district of wood and pasturage. It is navigable for boats to a distance of twenty miles from the sea.

BLACK PYRAMID, a dark mass of rock, forming the finger-post to Bass Straits, 250 feet high, and lying about sixteen miles from Hunter or Barren Island.

BLAIR, DAVID, (1820—) Journalist, came to N.S.W. in 1850, in connection with Dr. Lang's abortive scheme for sending out from the Australian College a number of young men as missionaries into the less populous districts of the colony. On the collapse of the scheme, Blair applied himself to journalism, and assisted Henry Parkes in establishing the *Empire* newspaper, writing many of the leading articles in the earlier numbers. He wrote for that journal a narrative of Hargreaves' discovery of gold in N.S.W., taken down from the lips of the discoverer himself. This was the first account of the event that reached England. At the beginning of 1852, Blair came to V. as correspondent for the *S. M. Herald*, and after a visit to the gold-fields (reported in that journal,) became sub-editor of the *Argus*. He continued in that position till the close of 1854, when he accepted the post of editor of the *Age*, then newly started, in conjunction with T. L. Bright. When the Ballarat riots occurred, Blair strongly sided with the miners, and was the first speaker at the great public meeting held in Melbourne on 6th December 1854. When

the *Age* passed into the hands of a proprietary company, Blair continued editor in conjunction with Ebenezer Syme, but left it when the paper was bought by Syme. It was during Blair's editorship of the *Age* that the journal became an acknowledged and powerful popular organ. Subsequently Blair continued his labours as journalist, lecturing very frequently, and writing pamphlets on various subjects. He was twice elected to the Legislative Assembly—for Talbot in 1856, and for Crowlands in 1868. He was Secretary to the Royal Commission on Education in 1867, to the Penal Commission in 1873, and to several other commissions. He wrote in all ten reports on public subjects for the Government; compiled the first *History of Australasia* ever given to the world, (MacGready, Thomson and Niven, 1878,) and spent many years in collecting materials for the present *Cyclopædia of Australasia*.

BLAND, WILLIAM (1789-1868) surgeon in the Royal Navy. On his first voyage (to Bombay) he fought two duels with brother officers, in one of which his opponent was killed. For the second duel, although it went off harmlessly, both Bland and his adversary were sentenced to seven years exile in N.S.W. Bland arrived in Sydney in 1814, and soon after began to practise his profession, a free pardon having in the meantime been granted him. A divorce case, in which Bland was plaintiff, led to his libelling Governor Macquarie; he was tried before the Supreme Court, in its criminal jurisdiction, and fined £50, with twelve months imprisonment in Parramatta Gaol, and the exaction of bonds for his good behaviour. On his release, he began a creditable course of public duty and philanthropy, with which his name will be ever associated. Next to Wentworth, Australia is indebted to him for the free political institutions she enjoys. His energetic action as a member of the Patriotic Association, his letters to Charles Buller M.P. on the indefeasible rights of the colonists, and his attention to the public charities, gained for him deserved popularity, which resulted in his return in 1843, as one of the members for Sydney, to the first elective Legislature. On his retirement from the Council, consequent on his defeat (in 1848) for the representation of Sydney by Robert Lowe, Bland devoted himself to the practice of his profession and to philanthropic labours which endeared him to his fellow-colonists. He died suddenly at his residence, College-street, on 21st July 1868, in the 79th year of his age. His remains—the first ever conveyed from the Mortuary Chapel—were interred at the Necropolis, where a suitable monument has been erected to his memory.

BLAND PLAINS, AND MOUNT, in V. were discovered and named after Dr. Bland of Sydney, by Hume and Flovell, in 1824.

BLAXLAND, GREGORY (1771-1853) came to N.S.W. in 1806. In 1813 he, W. C. Wentworth

and Lieutenant Lawson, were the first to achieve the heroic work of crossing the Blue Mountains, which had several times previously been unsuccessfully attempted. In 1822 he visited England, and from what he saw at the Cape on that voyage introduced the cultivation of oaten hay into the colony.

BLIGH, WILLIAM (1753-1817) Governor of N.S.W. The story of Bligh's early career, including the Mutiny of the *Bounty* and his wonderful voyage of 3600 nautical miles in an open boat, is familiar to most readers, but forms no part of the history of Australia. He was bred to the sea, and accompanied Cook in his third expedition. As a reward for his bravery and fortitude in the affair of the mutiny, the British Government appointed him Governor of the new colony in Australia. But he had given ominous proofs of his incapacity as commander of the *Bounty*, where his tyrannical conduct had provoked the mutiny; and his selection for the delicate task of rearing up the infant colony evinced a marked indifference to its welfare which merits decided condemnation. His administration produced exactly the consequences that might have been expected. So unwarrantable was his tyranny, and especially his persecution of one influential person, noted alike for his public spirit and for his private virtues, that the colonists, with all the honest indignation of freemen, declared against his authority. He had, no doubt, a difficult task to perform. The civil and military officers and their friends formed a kind of social oligarchy, enjoying the lion's share of grants of land and use of labour, and accustomed to divide with the Governor, at a price arbitrarily imposed upon the importers, the cargoes of vessels as they arrived, and thus enjoy the profits derived from distributing articles in demand among the unprivileged settlers at a monopoly tariff. Spirits formed a principal part of these cargoes, and it became the interest of every civil and military officer in the colony that the settlers should drink as much as possible. Bligh brought out instructions to put down this traffic, and hence his immediate unpopularity. But he was a specimen of the naval captain now happily extinct: violent in temper, coarse in language, hating the military, despising the civilians. To those of the humblest class who cringed before him he could be generous of public land and public money; but to those who dared resist, or even question his authority, he was implacable. At an earlier period in the career of the colony no one would have ventured to question his acts, however tyrannical; but in 1806 the character of the settlement was slowly changing. A few respectable free settlers had arrived under Governor King. They found profitable employment in growing produce for the Government use, by the help of free labour granted them. At this time, John Macarthur was engaged in agricultural and rural pursuits, and was universally respected for his far-seeing views, his great energy of character, and high public spirit. The free

settlers formed a strong party against Bligh, the leader of it being Macarthur. As the quarrel between the two parties proceeded, Bligh became more irascible and despotic than ever. At length matters came to a head, through the indictment of Macarthur on a charge of permitting a prisoner to escape in a vessel of which he was part owner. The tyrannical and unjust conduct of Atkins, the Deputy Judge Advocate, who was backed up in all he did by Bligh, roused the colonists to action. When Bligh announced that he would arrest and imprison the six officers who had virtually acquitted Macarthur on a charge of high treason, they felt that patient endurance was no longer possible. Accordingly, on the 26th January 1806, Major Johnstone, Lieutenant-Governor, commanding the N.S.W. Corps, who had been prevented by severe illness from attending to the repeated summons of the Governor, rode into town. He was surrounded by his friends and brother officers, who represented to him the tyrannous course which Bligh was bent on pursuing, and urged him to place him under arrest. In order to support him in taking this extreme step, the following memorial was signed by every respectable settler then in Sydney:—

“SIR,—The present alarming state of the colony, in which every man's property, liberty, and life are endangered, induces us most earnestly to implore you instantly to place Governor Bligh under arrest, and to assume the command of the colony. We pledge ourselves, at a moment of less agitation, to come forward to support the measure with our fortunes and our lives.”

Immediately after the presentation of this address, the drums of the N.S.W. Regiment beat to arms, the troops formed in the barrack square, and marched with Johnstone at their head, bayonets fixed, colours flying, and band playing, toward Government House, which they surrounded. Mrs. Putland (afterwards married to General O'Connell, commander of the forces in N.S.W.), the widowed daughter of the Governor, courageously endeavoured to resist the entrance of the insurgent officers through the Government gate. Failing in that, she tried to conceal her father under a bed, whence after an anxious search he was dragged, and conducted without personal injury to the presence of Johnstone, who immediately placed him in custody, and assumed the command of the colony. Thus ended the first act of this bloodless revolution—the 1688 of N.S.W. Had Bligh succeeded in his conspiracy to ruin Macarthur, the progress of the colony would have been retarded for years. Cowardice has been imputed to Bligh for concealing himself, but without reason. He was neither king nor commander to awe the troops with his presence; and any man may be excused for flying from an infuriated regiment—above all a man like Bligh, conscious that there was scarcely an individual in the assemblage which surrounded Government House whom he had not injured or insulted. Johnstone transmitted to the

Secretary of State a full account of the events which had forced upon him the government of the colony. Lieutenant-Governor Foveaux, arriving from England, ignorant of the insurrection, superseded Johnstone, and was himself superseded by Lieutenant-Colonel Paterson, who arrived from V.D.L. on 1st July 1809. By him Bligh's arrest was continued until 4th February, when the Colonel agreed to put him in possession of his ship (the *Porpoise*), on condition that he should embark and proceed to England without touching at any part of the territory of N.S.W., and not return until he should have received the instructions of His Majesty's ministers. Released from arrest, Bligh treated engagements entered into under duress as void, and lingered on the coast for some time, in hopes of provoking a movement in his favour. He afterwards repaired to V.D.L., where he was at first treated with much attention, but on communications arriving from the Lieutenant-Governor at Sydney, was constrained to remain on board his ship. When the Imperial Cabinet learned that the colonies had banished Bligh, and had continued the government with a new governor and new officials, without bloodshed or plunder, vigorous measures were decided on, and an able man was selected to execute them. Macquarie was appointed Governor, and sent out with instruction to reinstate Bligh in office, and after the expiration of twenty-four hours to resume his own authority—to declare void all appointments, grants of land, and processes of law which had taken place between the arrest of Bligh and his own arrival, and to send home Johnstone in close arrest, to be tried for his rebellion. At the same time the 73rd, Colonel Macquarie's own regiment, was sent out to relieve the N.S.W. Corps, which was disbanded, the privates being permitted to volunteer into the 73rd. These orders were obeyed. Johnstone was tried at Chelsea Hospital on 11th May 1811, found guilty, and sentenced to be cashiered. His conduct was clearly illegal and revolutionary, but it saved the colony. He made that a peaceable revolution which would otherwise have flamed into a wild riot, how ending it is impossible to foretell. Johnstone returned to the colony, and lived many years on his farm at Annandale, near Bathurst, much respected. Bligh became an admiral, but was never again called into active service. He died in 1817. Bligh asked Flinders to dedicate his “*Terra Australis*” to him, but Flinders, who had formed a most unfavourable opinion of his character while serving under him in the *Reliance*, politely declined.

BLUE MOUNTAINS, in N.S.W., run very nearly parallel with the coast, and being impassable by nature, long threatened to cut off the maritime part of the colony from the interior. To cross this apparently insurmountable barrier was the grand aim of the colony during the first twenty-four years of its existence. Governor Phillip, in 1788, made several excursions round the head of Sydney Harbour, during which he discovered and

named Carmarthen, Lansdowne, Richmond Hills, and the Hawkesbury River. In August 1788, Lieutenant Dawes and a small party set off from Sydney with a determination to reach the mountains. They got as far as a branch of the Hawkesbury, which had been formerly discovered by Captain Tench, but could not reach the vast range lying right before them. In 1790, some officers made an excursion in a direction south-west from Parramatta. They were absent six days, and reported that they had passed through a very bad country, intersected everywhere with deep ravines. Several unsuccessful attempts were made between 1789 and 1793. Captain Paterson, of the N.S.W. Corps, the first African traveller, began his first expedition in February 1793. Henry Hacking, quarter-master of the *Sirius*, with two companions, undertook an expedition, and penetrated twenty miles further than any of his predecessors, passing over ridges and gullies, but seeing no termination to the mountainous barriers and deep descending chasms, retraced his steps, returning to the settlement after an absence of seven days, in August 1793. A second expedition was undertaken the same year by Captain Paterson, the party being supplied with arms and provisions for six weeks. They proceeded up the Hawkesbury ten miles beyond Richmond, when the rapidity of the current and trunks of trees impeded further progress, and the boats being partially disabled, they returned; a variety of new plants being the only result of the expedition. In 1796 Bass, with two companions, started to explore the mysterious highland region. His hardihood and skill in exploration were astonishing. He climbed frowning precipices by the aid of iron hooks fastened to his arms, and descended by means of ropes to the bottoms of frightful caverns. How far he penetrated into the mountains is not known with certainty; but he is said to have ascended a very high mountain, and from its summit seen another range about forty miles distant, which appeared to extend north and south. This seemed quite impassable, and he therefore returned. In doing so, he discovered the Grose River. About this time Governor Hunter made an expedition along the course of the Nepean River, and discovered Mount Hunter and the country adjoining. Wilson, a prisoner who had been for several years amongst the blacks, accompanied by a free man (a servant of the Governor,) successfully crossed the Mountains as far as a river, afterwards known as the Lachlan, in 1799. In 1802 Lieutenant Barreiller, and a year after Mr. Caley, tried to force the terrible passes, but both were compelled to return baffled. In 1813, when a severe drought had burnt up the herbage in the coast districts, and occasioned serious mortality amongst the cattle, three gentlemen, Lieutenant Lawson, of the 104th regiment, with Messrs. Blaxland and Wentworth, led an expedition into the mountains, which was very successful, for at length the long-sought pass was discovered. Crossing the Nepean River at

Emu Plains, they ascended the first range, and speedily got entangled in its deep ravines; but continuing their search, they found a spur trending westward, which they climbed, and from the summit of it looked down on a beautiful valley, well grassed and watered. Descending into the valley down the slopes of Mount York, they found the country improving as they went on, and after a toilsome march of eight or ten miles, they found that the worst difficulties had been surmounted; but, as their provisions were expended, they were obliged to return to Sydney, after an absence of a little more than a month. In 1813 Evans, a Government surveyor, was despatched from Sydney, with an exploring party, to follow up the previous discoveries. He reported that on the fifth day after crossing the Nepean, he and his party having effected their passage over the mountains, arrived at a beautiful and fertile valley on the western side, with a rapid stream running through it. It was the termination of the tour lately made by the other party. Continuing in a westerly direction for twenty-one days from this station, he found it necessary to return; and on the 8th January he arrived back at Emu Plains, after an absence of seven weeks. In January 1815 a road made along the ridge of the mountains was finished as far as what is now the town of Bathurst; and on 25th April Macquarie went to inspect the places discovered along the line. He passed through and named King's Table Land, Prince Regent's Glen, the Vale of Clwyd, and other places, now well-known spots, over which the iron-horse rushes daily carrying its freight of human beings and luggage. On 4th May the Governor reached Bathurst Plains. From this point Evans and a small party were despatched, with one month's provisions, to explore the country to the S.W. They passed along a valley down which a stream poured into the Macquarie, and named it Queen Charlotte's Valley. After passing through some rough and scrubby country, they reached and named the Lachlan, which they followed up for some distance, but without being able to find out where it ran to. There was the same perplexity about the Macquarie. Being unable to solve the problem the party returned. The railway across the Blue Mountains was opened by Sir Hercules Robinson, amidst enthusiastic public rejoicings, on 4th April 1876. The physical character of the Blue Mountain district is described in the article AUSTRALIA.

BLYTH, SIR ARTHUR (1823—) came to South Australia in 1839, and was elected a member of Parliament under the New Constitution soon after its establishment. He devoted himself earnestly to the business of political life; took a prominent position in several ministries; and was appointed Agent-general, 16th February 1877, on the death of Francis S. Dutton C.M.G. After this appointment he received the honour of Knighthood, with the Companionship of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.

BLTYHE RIVER, in T., flowing into Bass Strait, about five miles to the eastward of Emu Bay, in the county of Devon.

BOGAN RIVER, in N.S.W., in the district of Wellington. The chief sources arise in Hervey's range, and in the less elevated country between the Lachlan and the Macquarie. It flows N.W., and empties itself into the Darling, near Fort Bourke, receiving in its course the waters of the Bullock River and Tandoga Creek. The uniformity of the Bogan from its spring to its junction with the Darling is very remarkable. In a course of 250 miles no change is observable in the character of its banks, or the breadth of its bed. The Bogan is the Allan Water of Oxley; and Sturt, who discovered it at a different part in 1828, named it New Year Creek.

BONGAREE, KING, chief of the Port Jackson tribe of natives when Phillip landed. He and his wife, Queen Gooseberry, were acknowledged by the Governor as holding sovereign authority over the tribe, and all negotiations were carried on through the King. He died at Garden Island, in November 1830. His Queen did not long survive him, and with her death the tribe became extinct.

BONWICK, JAMES (1820—) author of many works on the early history of the Australasian Colonies, of a number of elementary school-books for the use of Australian youths, and of several miscellaneous works in general literature. Bonwick spent the first part of his colonial career in T., and afterwards came to V., where he held for some years the post of Inspector of Schools under the National Board. Failing health obliged him to relinquish this employment, and to travel for the benefit of his health. He subsequently established a first-class private school at St. Kilda, near Melbourne. Bonwick is a man of unflinching industry, an able teacher, and a writer of considerable ability on educational and cognate subjects. His various contributions to the early history of the colonies are invaluable as permanent records. His style is always vigorous and racy.

BOOBY ISLAND, in Torres Strait, a small rocky islet of scarcely one-third of a mile in diameter, was discovered by the ships *Claudine* and *Mary*, and then named Larpent Bank.

BOOMERANG, the well-known native instrument, is of a curved form, made of a piece of hard wood, thirty to forty inches in length, two and a-half to three inches wide at the broadest part, and tapering away at each end nearly to a point; the concave part is from one-eighth to one-fourth of an inch thick, and the convex quite sharp. A native can throw this simple instrument forty or fifty yards, horizontally skimming along the surface not more than three or four feet from the ground, when it will suddenly rise into the air to the height of fifty or sixty yards, describing a considerable curve, and finally fall at his feet. During the whole of this evolution, the boomerang keeps turning with great rapidity, like a piece

of wood revolving on a pivot, and with a whizzing noise. It is not easy to comprehend by what law of projection the boomerang is made to take the singular direction it does. In the hands of a European it is a ticklish instrument, as it may return and strike himself; but the Aborigine can inflict with it the most deadly wounds on others. The surprising motion is evidently produced by the bulged side of the missile. The air, impinging thereon, lifts the boomerang in the air, exactly as by hitting the oblique bars in a windmill, it forces it to go round. The ingenuity of the contrivance is very extraordinary as coming from almost the lowest race of mankind. Men of the highest scientific attainments have failed as yet to solve the problem in the dynamics of projectiles involved in it.

BOOROWA RIVER, in N.S.W., a branch of the River Lachlan. It bounds the county of King on the west, separating it from the district of Lachlan: it rises in the range dividing the waters of the Yass and Narrawa rivers, and flowing N. empties itself into the Lachlan near Warwick Plains.

BORA, a native custom derived from "Bor" or "Boora," the belt of manhood, which is conferred on youths entering that stage. This is supposed to be endowed with magical power, so that by throwing it at an enemy sickness can be ejected from the body of the thrower. The Bora is the great national institution of the Australian Aboriginal, the rite of initiation into the duties and privileges of manhood. The sacredness of this immemorial rite, and the indispensable obligation to submit to it, are deeply impressed on the minds of the young. Even when they enter the service of settlers, and in great measure break off from association with their own people, they seem to be bound by an irresistible spell to submit at the presented time, in spite of all obstacles and dissuasions, to their national rites. The Bora is held whenever there is a considerable number of youths of an age to be admitted to the rank of manhood. The Rev. William Ridley, an authority on the subject, says:—"Old Billy Murri Bundar at Burturgate, stated that the Creator '*Baïame*' long ago commanded the people to keep the Bora, and gave them the *Dhūrumbulūm*, or sacred wand, for this purpose. He said any one of the men might demand that a Bora be held. Then they consult as to the place, and choose one of their number to be the dictator or manager of the solemnity. This dictator sends a man round to all the tribes, who are expected to join in it. This herald bears in his hand a *boomerang* and a *spear* with a *murūra* (pady-melon) *skin* hanging upon it. Sometimes all the men within twenty miles are summoned, sometimes a much larger circuit is included, and Billy stated that every one summoned *must* attend the Bora, even if he have to travel a hundred miles to it. It is so done, he said, all over the country and always will be.

The dictator chooses a suitable spot for the purpose, and fixes the day for the opening of the ceremony. The ground is regarded as consecrated to 'Baiane,' and his will is obeyed in carrying out the service. Notice is given three weeks at least, sometimes three months, before the ceremony begins; during the interval the trees on the chosen ground are ornamented with figures of snakes and birds cut with the tomahawk. When the appointed time is come, the men leave their camps, where the women and children and youths remain. The men assemble at the selected spot, clear away all the bushes, and make a semi-circular embankment or fence; this being done, some of the men go to the camps, pretending to make a hostile attack, on which the women run away with the children,—the young men and boys over thirteen go back with the men to the Bora. Very few Europeans have been allowed to witness the ceremony, but a Mr. Honey, when a boy, was present at one held between the Barwon and Castlereagh Rivers, and has given a description of it: but the proceedings and ceremonies appear to differ widely in the different tribes, the discipline the candidates for manhood have to go through in some tribes being far more severe than in others, so much so that the young men, after undergoing the severity of the ordeal, are quite exhausted, and sometimes half-dead. Previous to undergoing the ordeal, the candidates have to be for seven or eight months under a strict rule, eating only prescribed food, and keeping themselves partially secluded from social intercourse. The day of the ceremony having been decided on, and the tribes assembled, a place is cleared and prepared generally on the top of a low hill; here the youths are kept for a week under the surveillance of two or three old men; at the end of this time one of the front teeth is knocked out and the youths receive a severe flogging, during which tortures they are not expected to groan or display any signs of pain. For the next four days (in some tribes) their food is of the most revolting description that can be imagined. After the last ceremony the young men were allowed to go away. For three or four months they are not allowed to come within three hundred yards of a woman, but once in the course of the time a great smoke is made with burning boughs, and the young men are brought up to one side of it, whilst women appear at a distance on the other side. Then the young men go away for another month or so; at the end of that time they again assemble and take part in a sham fight; this completes the long process of initiation. From this time they are free to exercise all the privileges of manhood, amongst which are the eating of the flesh of kangaroo and emus, and the taking of wives. During the intervals between the ceremonies of the Bora the candidates are carefully instructed by the old men in the unwritten laws or traditions of their tribe and the laws of consanguinity and marriage, a breach of which latter

moral law subjects the offender to the risk of death. The ceremonial of the Bora is the great educational system by which this exact observance of their law is inculcated."

BORDA, CAPE, is the N.W. extremity of Kangaroo Island, S.A. This cape is formed by high land nearly 450 feet above the level of the sea, and may be approached within a reasonable distance. There is a fine lighthouse, rising sixty feet above the cape, or about 510 feet above the sea level. From Cape Borda the coast continues high and cliffy, and trends in a southerly direction towards Cape Bedout; about three miles from the cape is the Ravine de Casoars, a remarkable gorge. The coast in this locality assumes a more rugged and rocky character; straggling, detached masses appearing out of water, with the sea breaking over them with great violence.

BOREE, a fine grazing tract of country, situate to the N.W. of the Belubula river, in the district of Wellington, in N.S.W. There is in this country a very remarkable natural bridge, formed by the limestone rock, across the Boree stream, which receives in its course various subterranean tributaries.

BOTANY BAY, a large but shallow harbour in N.S.W., is the spot first touched by Cook, when he discovered the eastern coast of Australia, on 28th April 1770, early in the morning of which day he anchored under the S. shore, about two miles within the entrance, abreast of a small native village consisting of six or eight huts. The first person buried at Botany Bay was Forby Sutherland, a native of the Orkneys, and one of the seamen belonging to the crew of Cook, who died two days afterwards, and was buried near a small fresh-water creek. From that circumstance, Cook called the point which the land forms in that part of the bay, Sutherland Point. The name of Botany Bay, conferred by Banks upon the comparatively barren coast where Cook first landed, is a permanent proof of the rich field of vegetable novelties which the naturalist met with there. Wherever there is a particle of soil—in the midst of a desert of sand and salt—in the crevice of a rock—on the surface of a reef just emerged from the sea—or on the trunk of a fallen tree, there grows a plant of some kind or other; it is often a useless, and sometimes an ungainly one, but still it grows, and grows rapidly. The harbour of Botany Bay is about five miles long, from N. to S., and six miles in width, from E. to W., and receives the waters of Cook's and George rivers. It lies about fourteen miles to the southward of the Heads of Port Jackson, is wide, open, and unsheltered for vessels. A brass plate on the cliffs marks the spot where Cook first landed; which, together with a handsome monument, surmounted by a gilt sphere, erected to the memory of La Perouse, contribute to give an intellectual interest to the scene. Here it was that Phillip so unexpectedly met the two French ships commanded by the unfortunate French navigator,

For very many years after the establishment of the colony of N.S.W., Australia was popularly known in England only as "Botany Bay."

BOUCAUT, JAMES PENN (1831—) came to S.A. in 1846. He spent a few years in the interior, and then devoted himself to the study of law. In November 1855 he was called to the Bar; entered Parliament in the beginning of 1862, as representative of the city of Adelaide; lost his election the following year, but was successful in gaining re-election in 1865. In March 1866 Boucaut formed a Government consisting of himself, Sir A. Blyth, Sir Wm. Milne, Duffield, and English, which held office until April 1867. In 1872 he joined the Hughes Ministry, principally to establish the principle, that the Governor is not entitled, under all circumstances, and at all times, absolutely to say that the framer should be necessarily the head of the Government. In 1875 he formed a Ministry to carry out the "Boucaut Policy." This Ministry was re-constituted on the appointment of Way to be Chief Justice and the retirement of Morgan and Colton. It was defeated on the meeting of Parliament in June 1876, on the ground that Boucaut had joined some of his opponents. The succeeding Ministry under Colton adopted the Boucaut policy with regard to the carrying out of public works, but without his policy of increasing the revenue and emigration. This Government was removed from office in October following, by reason of an attempt to coerce the Upper House, and Boucaut again took office. He was distinguished by his advocacy of the rights of all parts of the community, was opposed to extreme views, and sought to introduce a cautious and gradual policy, so as to legislate for the future. He publicly declared his belief in the community of interest between S.A. and N.S.W., and advocated, as a matter of the highest importance to both, the maintenance of a good understanding between them. In the work of railway extension Boucaut tried for a union of the two colonies; and also proposed, and to a large extent carried into effect, the policy of constructing a railway from Adelaide across the continent to Port Darwin. Boucaut resigned office in September 1878, having accepted a Puisne Judgeship of the Supreme Court.

BOUGAINVILLE, LOUIS ANTOINE DE (1729-1811) French navigator, made a voyage round the world in 1766-9, with a frigate and a transport. This was the first circumnavigation ever achieved by the French. He discovered Otaheite, the Navigators Islands, and others of the smaller islands. A cape on the E. coast of T., the northernmost point of Prosser's Bay, and another on the N.W. coast of the continent, between Admiralty Gulf and Vansittart Bay, are named after him.

BOUNTIFUL ISLANDS, two small islands in the Gulf of Carpentaria, forming the easternmost portion of the Wellesley group. They were

discovered by Flinders in 1802, and named from the abundance of turtle found on them. The highest hill he named Mount Flinders. These islands lie a mile and a-half apart. The northern and largest is two and a-half miles long and three-quarters of a mile wide. The smallest is about half a mile each way, and has a mound with a remarkable tree on its summit.

BOUNTY, MUTINY OF THE. In 1787, the *Bounty*, commanded by Captain Bligh, was sent by the British Government to the South Sea Islands for a cargo of bread-fruit trees. But Bligh's conduct to his sailors was so tyrannical that they mutinied, put him, along with eighteen others, into an open boat, then sailed away, leaving him in the middle of the Pacific Ocean. Bligh was a skilful sailor, and the voyage he thereupon undertook is one of the most remarkable on record. In an open boat he carried his little party over 3,600 miles of unknown ocean to the island of Timor, where they found a vessel that took them home. The mutineers took the vessel to Pitcairn's Island, and there lived unmolested until 1808, when their descendants were discovered by Captain Folgar, of Boston. They were subsequently, in 1851, to the number of 194 souls, removed to Norfolk Island. Bligh was promoted to the Governorship of N.S.W. for his fortitude on this occasion. Byron's poem of the "Island" is founded on the Mutiny of the *Bounty*.

BOURKE, LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR RICHARD, K.C.B. (1778-1855) eighth Governor of N.S.W., entered the British army in 1798, and served with distinction in Holland, South America, and the Peninsular campaign. He was appointed Governor of the eastern district of the Cape of Good Hope in 1825, and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. in 1831. Bourke was the ablest and most popular Governor the colony ever had. He landed at Sydney on 3rd December 1831, and his coming was hailed by the colonists as the dawn of a happier era. In an address of welcome, they indulged a well-founded hope that with the termination of unfavourable seasons the reign of discord and insecurity had also passed away; and that with the return of plenty, a wise and fostering Government might restore concord and fellowship, and reproduce in the colony that confidence which had been so long wanting. His Excellency was earnestly requested in the same address, the tenor of which was a mixture of compliment and dictation, to judge for himself of the character and wants of the people, and to place no reliance upon the reports of others. The Colonial Secretary was alluded to with severe disapprobation as the last individual by whose opinions the colonists would like to be judged. The Governor, in reply, recommended a total oblivion of past dissensions, and a sacrifice of resentments, public and private, in the interests of their adopted country. With all the talent and energy of Macquarie, Bourke had a frank and cordial manner which won all men's

hearts, and he was long spoken of as the "good old Governor." During his rule the colony made steady progress. In 1833 the population numbered 60,000 souls, and large additions arrived annually. On his assuming office, Bourke found that much discontentment existed with reference to the Land Question. It was understood that any one who applied for land to the Government, and showed that he could make a good use of it, would receive a suitable area as a free grant. But many abuses crept in under this system. In theory all men had an equal right to obtain the land they required; but, in practice, it was seldom possible for one who had no friends among the officials to obtain a grant. An immigrant had often to wait for months, and see his application unheeded; while a few favoured individuals were calling day by day at the Land Office, and receiving grants of the choicest parts of the colony. Bourke made a new arrangement. There were to be no more free grants. In the settled districts all land was to be put up for auction; if less than five shillings an acre was offered, it was not to be sold; when the offers rose above that price, it was to be given to the highest bidder. This was regarded as a very fair arrangement; and, as a large sum of money was annually received from the sale of land, the Government was able to resume the practice, discontinued in 1818, of assisting poor people in Europe to emigrate to the colony. Beyond the surveyed districts the land was occupied by squatters, who settled down where they pleased, but had no legal right to their "runs." With regard to these lands new regulations were urgently required, for the squatters, who were liable to be turned off at a moment's notice, felt themselves in a precarious position. Besides, as their sheep increased rapidly, and the flocks of neighbouring squatters interfered with one another, fends sprang up, and were carried on with much bitterness. To put an end to these evils, Bourke ordered the squatters to apply for the land they required. He promised to have boundaries marked out; but gave notice that he would, in future, charge a small rent, proportional to the number of sheep the land could support. In return he would secure to each squatter the peaceable occupation of his run, until the time came when it should be required for sale. This regulation did much to secure the stability of squatting interests in N.S.W. After ruling well and wisely for six years, Bourke retired in the year 1837, amid the sincere regrets of the whole colony. The colonists erected a magnificent bronze statue to his memory in the Domain, Sydney, bearing the following inscription:—"This statue of Lieutenant-General Sir Richard Bourke, K.C.B., is erected by the people of New South Wales, to record his able, honest, and benevolent administration from 1831 to 1837. Selected for the government at a period of singular difficulty, his judgment, urbanity, and firmness justified the choice. Comprehending at once the vast resources peculiar to this colony, he

applied them for the first time systematically to its benefit. He voluntarily divested himself of the prodigious influence arising from the assignment of penal labour, and enacted just and salutary laws for the amelioration of penal discipline. He was the first Governor who published satisfactory accounts of the public receipts and expenditure. Without oppression or detriment to any interest, he raised the revenue to a vast amount, and from its surplus realised extensive plans of immigration. He established religious equality on a just and firm basis, and sought to provide for all, without distinction of sect, a sound and adequate system of national education. He constructed various public works of permanent utility. He founded the flourishing settlement of Port Phillip, and threw open the wilds of Australia to pastoral enterprise. He established Savings Banks, and was the patron of the first Mechanics' Institute. He created an equitable tribunal for determining upon claims to grants of land. He was the warm friend of the liberty of the Press. He extended trial by jury after its almost total suspension for many years. By these and numerous other measures for the moral, religious, and general improvement of all classes, he raised the colony to unexampled prosperity, and retired amid the reverent and affectionate regret of the people, having won their confidence by his integrity, their gratitude by his services, their admiration by his public talents, and their esteem by his private worth."

BOURKE, a township on the S. bank of the Darling, 576 miles N.W. from Sydney. The surrounding district embraces the eastern portion of the pastoral district of Albert, the western and southern portions of Warrego, and the northern portion of Wellington. The want of rain is often felt severely, which makes the district fit only for pastoral purposes; but although it was long regarded as in the unknown interior, it is becoming rapidly populated, and considerable settlement is taking place on the banks of the Darling. Within the last few years the district has been discovered to be rich in metals. Copper ore has been found of a remarkably rich character, and in great abundance, and the quartz reefs which are visible in many parts have been found to contain gold.

BOWEN, JOHN, lieutenant in the Royal Navy, was sent from Sydney in 1803, with his vessel, the *Lady Nelson*, to form a small colony in V.D.L. He carried with him a number of the lowest class of prisoners, together with a powerful guard of soldiers, and landed at Risdon, on the estuary of the Derwent river. Whilst the ground was being cleared, a band of several hundred natives pulled down the most advanced hut and provoked an attack; the soldiers killed about thirty, thus commencing a slaughter which terminated only with the complete destruction of all the aborigines of T. This was the first attempt at colonising V.D.L., preceding Collins's arrival by

several months. The settlement of Risdon Cove was then abandoned by Collins, and the site of Hobart Town chosen instead.

BOWEN, a seaport township in Q. on the northern shore of Port Denison, about 725 miles N.W. of Brisbane. The harbour, which was discovered in 1859 by Captain Sinclair, is one of the best on the eastern coast of Australia, is secure in all weathers, and admirably adapted as a port of call for vessels using the inner passage to Torres Strait. Bowen is the outlet and port of a large area of pastoral country. There is an extensive deposit of good coal within sixty miles. The population of the town is about 1200. There is some land under cultivation in the district, principally for maize and sugar-cane. Marble has been found in the neighbourhood. The district is a pastoral one, but has a considerable extent of excellent agricultural land.

BOWEN, SIR GEO. FERGUSON, G.C.M.G. (1821—) was educated at the Charterhouse School, and at Trinity College, Oxford. In 1847 he was appointed President of the University of Corfu, which post he held for four years, and obtained reputation by his "Ithaca in 1850," and "Mount Athos, Thessaly, and Epirus," as well as for his articles on the affairs of the Ionian Islands in the English reviews. In 1854 he was made Chief Secretary, and held that office until 1859. He married, in 1856, Countess Roma, daughter of Count Roma, then President of the Senate. He was appointed first Governor of Q. in 1859. After its separation from N.S.W., the colony of Q. went rapidly ahead, and the Governor was extremely popular; but speedily political complications—the inseparable attendant of self-government—arose, and the too rapid expansion of trade and commerce was followed by a reaction. As a consequence of these causes the Governor's popularity declined towards the close of his rule. In 1867 he was transferred to N.Z., and during his five years rule there was very popular. No special political incident marked the period. In 1872 Bowen was promoted to the Governorship of V., in a highly complimentary despatch from the Imperial Government. Up till 1878 the course of his administration ran smoothly, but in that year the deadlock between the two Houses occurred, and the charge of siding with the Ministry against the Legislative Council was made against the Governor. This charge received some corroboration from the circumstance of Bowen's giving his assent, in the Executive Council, to the wholesale dismissals of "Black Wednesday." From that time his rule was a troubled one. Party feeling in the colony ran unusually high, and the Governor was fiercely attacked by a section of the press. In 1879, his full term having expired, Bowen was transferred to the Governorship of the Mauritius. In the correspondence that ensued upon the "Black Wednesday" affair, the Secretary of State, although he did not directly disapprove of the Governor's

act in sanctioning the dismissals, wrote strongly against the impolicy of disbanding the minor judiciary and disorganising the civil service in that wholesale manner.

BOWENFELS, a township in N.S.W., ninety-seven miles W. of Sydney, with which it has direct railway communication. It lies nearly 3000 feet above the sea level, at the junction of the Bathurst and Mudgee roads. The population numbers about 400. The district is both agricultural and pastoral; there are also large deposits of coal and kerosene shale in the vicinity. Not far from here are the works of the Lithgow-Valley Iron Company, consisting of a blast and puddling furnace and appliances, besides a foundry and rolling mills for turning out castings, railway and bar iron.

BOWER BIRD, the name given to a certain bird of the Starling family, remarkable for making bower-like nests of twigs and branches, and decorating them with gay-coloured feathers, bones, and shells. Some of these bowers are several feet long, arched over at the top, and are the resort of many individuals, both males and females, which run in and out as if for amusement. The Satin Birds are of this species, which abounds in the mountainous districts of N.S.W., and in the brush between the mountains and the coast. These birds were first made known by Gould, in his splendid work on the "Birds of Australia."

BOYD, BENJAMIN (1796—) came to N.S.W. in 1840, for the purpose of organising the branches of the Royal Bank of Australia. He purchased station property extensively in the Menaro district, Riverina, and elsewhere. He founded a settlement at Twofold Bay, and erected a large store there for the purpose of supplying his Menaro stations, so as to save the expense attending carriage overland from Sydney; and also premises for boiling-down the sheep into tallow. He speculated largely in whaling, and Twofold Bay was the rendezvous for his whale ships. He erected a lighthouse for the purpose of directing vessels coming to his wharf; but the Government refused to permit the exhibition of a light, unless a guarantee were given for its constant maintenance. He carried on the shipping of cattle to T., N.Z., and other markets. He purposed making Boyd Town a place of commercial importance, by stealing a march on the Government, which had made Eden the official township. He was amongst the first to attempt to procure cheap labour by the employment of the South Sea Islanders. He engaged a large steamer, with five smaller vessels as tenders, for this enterprise. His experiment was made with natives from the New Hebrides. He landed several shiploads of the natives at Twofold Bay, and despatched them to his stations in the interior. They were engaged to act as shepherds or hutkeepers for a term of years, at 6d. per week, with a new shirt and a Kilmarnock cap every year. A very short trial proved their unfitness for pastoral life. By some means most of them found their way to

Sydney, where they created no small consternation amongst the women and children as they marched through the streets all but naked, bearing their clubs and other weapons, as if ready to commence an attack. After being experimented on in various ways, amongst others as seamen on board Boyd's whalers, some of them got back to their native shores. Meanwhile the company with whose money this immense business was being carried on began to manifest uneasiness in regard to the management. The shareholders had received accounts from time to time of the increase of their flocks and herds, of the millions of acres that belonged to them, of the outgoings and ingoings of the fleet of whalers, but their looked-for 6 per cent. was never forthcoming. Ultimately they grew so dissatisfied, that a change in the management was demanded. Arbitrators were called in to arrange matters between the dissentients, and after a good deal of trouble, Boyd agreed to retire and to resign all claims on the Company, on condition of receiving three of the whale ships, his yacht called the *Wanderer*, in which he had come from England, and two sections of land at Twofold Bay. His fate was sad. He embarked with a digging party, mostly consisting of Australian aboriginals, on board the *Wanderer*, and sailed for California in 1850, at the time of the gold excitement there. He was unsuccessful, and was on his way back to Sydney when his yacht touched at one of the islands in the Solomon Group known as Gaudalcanar. There he went ashore with a black boy to have some shooting, and is supposed to have been murdered, as he was never seen again. Vessels were at various times despatched from Sydney to the island, and every inquiry possible was made. On one occasion the natives said he was murdered, and showed a skull, which was brought to Sydney, as that of the unfortunate gentlemen; but it proved not to have belonged to a European, but to a man of native race. On Boyd's retirement from the management of the Company, its affairs became more and more involved, and after being in Chancery some years, the property was disposed of by order of the Official Assignee in London. The stations in Monaro sold well, but those in Riverina and elsewhere left a deficit of £80,000, which the shareholders had to make up in order to recoup the Sydney firms who had made advances to the Company. Thus passed away one of the largest properties ever held in Australia, and nothing now remains to mark its existence, save those magnificent ruins which Boyd erected at Boyd Town in the hey-day of his prosperity. In Wells' *Gazetteer of the Australian Colonies*, (Sydney 1848) no less than seventeen pages are devoted to a description of Boyd Town, and a glowing account of the capabilities of the Twofold Bay district.

BOYD TOWN, in N.S.W., named after and by Benjamin Boyd. Wells, in 1848, writes of it in these terms:—"Boyd Town, although but lately founded, is already a flourishing sea-port, enjoying

a commerce of considerable importance; and, being the key to the extensive Maneroo country (whence an excellent road has been constructed) it is the chief port of outlet for the south-eastern districts of N.S.W. Of the convenience, capacity and safety of the anchorage, both at Boyd Town and East Boyd, Captain Stokes, R.N., Lieutenant Moore, R.N., Surveyor Tyers, and every other officer who has visited Twofold Bay, speak in the highest terms. Both townships are named after their founder, Mr. B. Boyd, to whose spirit and individual enterprise must be ascribed every sign of advance and improvement which now greets the eye of the visitor to this fine bay." Then follows a magniloquent description of the lighthouse. Wells proceeds:—"At East Boyd is the large whaling establishment of Mr. Boyd; whence nine sperm whalers now sail: and inasmuch as Great Britain, and all her colonies, have only fifty-nine vessels engaged in this important trade, which, in the Pacific alone, employs nearly 700 American whalers, the most correct idea of the value of the depots at Twofold Bay is thus given. At Boyd Town there is a convenient jetty, 300 feet long; and as vessels seeking the port to refit have the advantage of a heaving-down hulk, and every necessary mechanical assistance—abundance of water, and every description of provision and vegetables—both Boyd and East Boyd are favourite resorts for shipping. The laying out of Boyd Town is in good taste. A handsome Gothic Church, the spire of which is visible twenty miles at sea—ranges of commodious stores, some 120 feet in length—well-built brick houses, and neat verandah cottages—a splendid hotel in the Elizabethan style, (one of the most unique establishments in the colony)—large salting and boiling-down houses; and various other substantial proofs of an increasing trade and commerce, mark the rapid advance of this young and hitherto almost unknown port of the Pacific. This is not, perhaps, the proper place to enter into a lengthy inquiry as to the comparative state of the British and American whaling trades—the sudden rise of the latter, and the strange decay of the former, until the exertions of Mr. Boyd gave it an impetus, which must yet be productive of the most favourable results. The obstacles presented by the existing Navigation Laws, and by the exhaustion of the labour market in N.S.W., are points which must be carefully considered by the British Government, before the South Sea Fisheries can be made profitably available for British enterprise." At present Boyd Town is non-existent, and the whales have deserted Twofold Bay.

BOYNE, a river of Q., discovered by Oxley in 1823. It disembogues into the harbour of Port Curtis, or rather, just at its entrance; and, like the generality of the rivers on the east coast, has a bar at its mouth.

BRAIDWOOD, a township in N.S.W., 186 miles to the S.S.W. of Sydney, situated 3357 feet above the sea-level. In spite of drawbacks, the principal

of which is its difficulty of access from the rugged character of the country, it is a thriving place, and the principal town of the southern goldfields district. The population is about 1200. Several diggings, principally alluvial, surround Braidwood, the nearest being those on the Shoalhaven river, about five miles distant; the Jembaicumbene, Major's Creek, Bell's Creek, Araluen, and other diggings, are within a radius of twenty miles of the town. The country in some parts is well suited for tillage, and large crops of wheat have been gathered.

BREMER, SIR GORDON, Captain in the Royal Navy. In 1824 the Imperial Government, hearing that the French were fitting out a colonising expedition for North Australia, despatched this officer with H.M.S. *Tamar* and two store ships, to establish a penal settlement on Melville Island, in Apsley Strait. A party of military and prisoners were landed, and erected the stockade of Fort Dundas. The settlement, after an existence of four years, was abandoned on 31st March 1829, in consequence of the continued unfavourable accounts transmitted to the Home Government. A second attempt was made at Raffles Bay, but was equally unsuccessful. Sir Gordon Bremer then took possession of the whole of the northern coast westward from Cape York. In 1831 he again attempted a settlement at Port Essington, mainly intended as a harbour of refuge. This settlement continued to exist for nineteen years, but being found profitless was abandoned in 1850.

BREMER River, in Q., a considerable branch of the Brisbane. The town of Ipswich is on its banks.—Also a river of S.A., falling into Lake Alexandrina. Both were named by Sir G. Bremer.

BREMER, Port, a deep inlet and good harbour, situated in Coburg Peninsula, between Port Essington and Raffles Bay, N.A.

BRIDGEWATER, Cape and Bay, in V. The Bay is an indentation between capes Bridgewater and Nelson, and is about six miles wide, and two miles long. The cape is a promontory on the S. coast, standing boldly out into the sea, about eight miles W. of Cape Nelson; it runs from the mainland in a S. direction for about three miles, about two miles in breadth, and terminates in a high bluff. The village of Bridgewater stands on the cape. The cape and bay were discovered and named by Grant in 1800.

BRISBANE, the capital of Q., is situated on the River Brisbane, which surrounds it on two sides, about twenty-five miles from its debouchement into Moreton Bay, one of the largest bays on the coast of Australia, and after which for a long time the district was called. It lies about 500 miles N. of Sydney. Brisbane was originally settled in 1824, having been made a penal station by Governor Sir T. Brisbane, from whom it takes its name. Its advance until 1842 was slow, when the colony was opened to free settlers, and from that period the city has made steady progress, and is yearly

growing in importance as the population of the country increases and its resources are developed. The growth during the last few years has been of a very rapid character. Brisbane is divided into four portions—North and South Brisbane, Kangaroo Point, and Fortitude Valley; and comprises three electorates—North and South Brisbane, each returning two members, and Fortitude Valley, one member. The population on 31st December 1878 was estimated at 32,012, and it is still increasing. The public buildings comprise many churches and chapels, the Town Hall, the Houses of Legislature (built at a cost of £100,000,) the Post Office, Custom House, School of Arts, and Government Printing Office. The Governor's residence is a very fine building. The shops and warehouses are equal to those in English towns of much larger size. Ample provision for the education of the rising generation is afforded by the Boys Grammar School, the Girls Grammar School, and the Normal School. A magnificent iron bridge, called the Victoria, on the lattice-girder principle, with swing openings to allow of the passage of ships, connects North and South Brisbane. It was commenced in 1863, and was opened with some ceremony by the Marquis of Normanby on 15th June 1874. Its entire length is 1080 feet; length between abutments on shores 1013 feet. Brisbane is now the terminus of the railway system of Q., the connecting link between it and Ipswich having been opened in June 1875. The Botanical Gardens are laid out with great taste, and there are two parks for recreation. The city is lighted with gas, and well supplied with water from the Enoggera Creek, seven miles distant. The water-works cost £100,000. The first land sale was held in Brisbane on 9th August 1843; the School of Arts was opened 7th October 1851, first public meeting in favour of separation of Moreton Bay from N.S.W. was held in 1851; the Municipality was formed in 1859; the first daily paper was published 13th May 1861; the foundation stone of the Town Hall was laid 26th January 1864; the water-works were commenced 18th August 1864; the new School of Arts was opened 16th July 1866; the foundation stone of the Grammar School was laid by H.R.H. Prince Alfred 29th February 1868; the Chamber of Commerce was established 1st July 1868; the Grammar School was opened 1st February 1869. The Mayors of Brisbane were John Petrie (1859-62,) T. B. Stephens (1862-3,) G. Edmondstone (1863-4,) Joshua Jeays (1864-5,) A. J. Hoekings (1865-6 and 1867-8,) R. S. Warry (1866-7,) J. Hargraves (1868-70,) W. Pettigrew (1870-1,) F. Murray (1871-2,) E. J. Baines (1872-3,) J. Swan (1873-6,) R. A. Kingsford (1876-7,) A. Hubbard (1877-9.)

BRISBANE, SIR JAMES, Commodore in the R.N., commanded the first line of battle ship that ever arrived in Port Jackson, in 1826.

BRISBANE RIVER, in Q., was discovered by Oxley, and named in honour of Sir T. Brisbane, on

1st December 1823. It disembogues into Moreton Bay; its source is in the mountain ranges to the northward, but it receives considerable streams in its course, which, together with the main river, traverse a large extent of country. The bay is sixty miles in length from N. to S., and sheltered by several islands; and on the bar of the river there is a depth of eighteen feet. The tide ascends daily fifty miles above the Brisbane's mouth, flowing also up the Bremer the southern branch, the depth of whose channel it augments by eight feet or more.

BRISBANE, GENERAL SIR THOMAS MAKDOUGAL (1773-1860) a distinguished soldier, Colonial Governor, and astronomer, was of the ancient Scotch family of the Brisbanes of that ilk in Ayrshire. He entered the army at the age of sixteen, and became intimate with Arthur Wellesley, afterwards Duke of Wellington. He raised a company in Glasgow in 1793, and joined the campaign in Flanders. In 1796 he distinguished himself in the West Indies under Sir Ralph Abercromby, as Colonel of the 69th. In 1812 he was Brigadier-General under Wellington in Spain. For his conspicuous bravery at the battle of Nive he received the thanks of Parliament. He commanded a brigade in N. America in 1814. In 1821, on the recommendation of the Duke of Wellington, he was appointed Governor of N.S.W., succeeding Macquarie. He held the post for four years, and during that time introduced many wise reforms, especially in penal treatment; secured at his own expense good breeds of horses for the colony; promoted the cultivation of the sugar-cane, vine, tobacco, and cotton; established freedom of the press, and trial by jury; and governed with perfect impartiality and tolerance for all denominations of Christians. He was a fine old soldier, a thorough gentleman, honourable and upright in all his ways. He offered every inducement to free immigrants to settle in the colony. He gave them grants of land, and assigned to them as many prisoners as they were able to employ. Very speedily the fine lands of the colony were covered with flocks and herds; and the applications for prisoners became so numerous that at one time 2000 more were demanded than could be supplied. Hence began an important change in the colony. The costly Government farms were, one after another, broken up, and the prisoners assigned to the squatters. The unremunerative public works were abandoned, for many of these had been begun only for the purpose of occupying the prisoners. All this tended for good; as, when thus scattered, the latter were more manageable, and more likely to reform, than when gathered in large crowds. In Macquarie's time not one prisoner in ten could be usefully employed; seven or eight years after, there was not a prisoner in the colony whose services would not be eagerly sought and well paid for by the squatters. The quantity of cleared land rose from 25,000 to

50,000 acres. The export of wool rose from 100,000 lbs. to 500,000 lbs. Ten ships left the port of N.S.W. in 1822 freighted with produce. A pair of merino rams sold for £500. Yet, although Brisbane entered on his Government at a time when the colony was in a highly flourishing condition, and notwithstanding his amiable and intelligent personal character, he seems to have wanted some qualities necessary to the position of a Colonial Governor. His administration was short and unpopular. Seeking to avoid the bias of Macquarie, with sympathies which leaned to his own order, and tastes that led him to seclude himself in scientific pursuits, he failed in leaving a decided mark in Australian history. Lang says of Brisbane, that while overflowing with the milk of human kindness in his intercourse with all, he attached few, if any, to his person and Government, and converted into enemies many of those who would otherwise have been his warmest friends. His Government is memorable as the era of free emigration. The first free emigrants who paid their passage arrived in 1818. Brisbane's fame as a man of science stands deservedly high. He founded the observatory at Parramatta, of which Carl M. Rümker was the first director; and catalogued no less than 7385 stars in the southern skies, for which he received the Copley Medal of the Royal Society of London, and the praise of Herschel. After his return to Scotland he pursued with ardour his scientific studies; fitted up astronomical and magnetic observatories at Makerstoun, his residence in Scotland; and was elected President of the Royal Society of Edinburgh in succession to Sir Walter Scott. He founded two gold medals for scientific merit—one in the award of the Royal Society, the other in that of the Society of Arts.

BRISBANE WATER, a fine harbour of N.S.W. in the county of Northumberland, twelve miles long by seven wide, with a bar at its mouth. The principal streams that flow into it are Erina and Narrara creeks. The district supplies Sydney with timber for building purposes, and is distant from it seventy-five miles. Its principal town is Gosford.

BRODRIBB, WILLIAM ADAMS (1809—) came to T. in 1816, where he subsequently held the offices of Clerk to the Judge-Advocate and Under Sheriff. He went to N.S.W. in 1836, and acquired an interest in large pastoral properties. He also formed a sheep and cattle station on the Broken River in the Port Phillip district. A small company being formed in 1841 to explore Gippsland by the "Overlanders," consisting of Brodrigg and seven others, they chartered a vessel, the *Singapore*, and proceeded to Corner Inlet, where they remained a fortnight, but could not find a landing place for their stores and horses. They had almost made up their minds to abandon the enterprise when the idea occurred to them to take a trip along the coast to where the *Clonmel*

steamer had been wrecked, at the western end of the Ninety-mile Beach. When they reached this spot they noticed a channel of deep water stretching inland for some distance, and then branching off right and left. Next morning they pulled up the right-hand channel for ten or twelve miles, when they discovered two rivulets, which they named the Albert and the Tara—the latter after their black boy companion. After forming a *dépôt* at a place they called Port Albert, the *Singapore* was sent back to Melbourne, three members of the company returning in her, whilst Kirsope, Kinghorne, Norman McLeod, and Brodribb remained. After exploring the surrounding country and meeting with many difficulties and hardships, they returned to Melbourne in April 1841. In 1855 he crossed the Australian Alps with a herd of sheep and cattle, and after four months travelling settled on the Wanganella Run. In 1861 Brodribb sold out and went to Melbourne, where he was elected member for Brighton, and remained in Parliament for about a year, when he resigned and visited England. He remained for two years, and then returned to N.S.W. In 1874 he visited England a second time, and during his sojourn in London was elected F.R.G.S. and F.R.C.I. In 1877 he was appointed a member of the N.S.W. Commission at the Paris International Exhibition, and in February 1879 member of the Commission of the N.S.W. International Exhibition.

BROGDEN, a mountain in N.S.W., in the district of Lachlan. Under this hill, on 6th June 1816, the anniversary of the King's birthday, Cunningham planted acorns, peach and apricot stones, and quince seeds.

BROGDEN'S RIVER, in the County of Gloucester, N.S.W., is a branch of the River Stroud, and distant from Sydney 178 miles.

BROKEN BAY, in N.S.W., was discovered by Cook in 1770. It receives the waters of the Hawkesbury. This bay is very much exposed to the E. and S.E. as well as the N.W. winds, and forms the entrance to Pitt Water and Brisbane Water.

BROOKDALE, in the County of Cumberland, N.S.W., was the residence of Hamilton Hume, celebrated for his enterprise in first exploring the new country and the southern parts of Australia, and for subsequent discoveries and excursions into various parts of the interior.

BROOKES ISLANDS, situated off the N.E. coast of the continent, lie four miles north from Cape Sandwich, and consist of three rocky islets, besides some of smaller size.

BROMBY, CHARLES HENRY, D.D. (1814—) son of the late Rev. J. H. Bromby, Vicar of Trinity Church, Hull, England, was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated as B.A. in 1837. In 1843 he became the Incumbent of St. Paul's, Cheltenham, England. In 1847, together with the present Dean of Carlisle, he there founded the Normal College for Schoolmasters, and became

Principal of the College, which office he held until 1864, when he was appointed Bishop of T. on the resignation of Dr. Nixon.

BROMBY, J. E., D.D., came to Melbourne in February 1858, as Head Master of the Church of England Grammar School, and held that post till 1875. During those seventeen years Dr. Bromby raised the institution to a very high position as respects both efficiency and reputation. He acted as Chaplain to the first Volunteer encampment, and several times subsequently, and was formally appointed Chaplain to the Victorian Volunteer Force (1st class) in 1877. He was elected Warden of the Senate of Melbourne University in 1868, appointed Incumbent of St. Paul's Church, Melbourne in 1877, and elected Canon of the new Cathedral in 1879. Dr. Bromby is distinguished for his high scholarly attainments, his singular force of mind and loftiness of character. He is the author of several pamphlets on theological subjects, and is held in the highest estimation by his fellow-colonists. He is brother to the Bishop of T.

BROUGHTON, WILLIAM GRANT, D.D., (1788-1853) first Bishop of Sydney, was educated at King's School, Canterbury. In 1807 he obtained an appointment in the East India House as clerk in the Treasury, where he remained five years, but relinquished it to enter the Church. After some time studying at Canterbury, he entered at Pembroke Hall, Cambridge, and in January 1818 took the degree of B.A., as sixth Wrangler of that year. In 1823 he took the degree of M.A. He was ordained deacon in January 1818, and admitted to priest's orders the same year. He was for some years Curate of Hartley and Farnham in Hampshire, England. Having attracted the attention of the Duke of Wellington (whose residence was close to Hartley) the Duke conferred on him the office of Chaplain of the Tower, and shortly afterwards offered him the Archdeaconry of N.S.W. and V.D.L., vacant by the resignation of the Rev. Thomas Hobbes Scott, which he accepted, and arrived in Sydney in 1829. He spent several years in visiting the different settlements and districts, and made a voyage to N.Z. In 1834 he returned to England, to provide larger means for the spread of the Gospel in the colonies. As one of those means he was consecrated Bishop of Australia, 14th February 1836. When more bishops were appointed in 1847, he was nominated Metropolitan. He made several visits to England. On the last occasion, he left Sydney in August 1852, and after a troublesome voyage arrived in England, where he died, 20th February 1853, at the house of Lady Gipps, and was buried in Canterbury Cathedral.

BROWNE, SIR THOMAS GORE, C.B. (1807—) entered the army at the age of sixteen, and served for many years with the 28th Regiment, acted as aide-de-camp to Lord Nugent, Lord High Commissioner of the Ionian Islands, and was for

some time Colonial Secretary. In 1836 he exchanged into the 41st Regiment, and served during the occupation of Afghanistan. After the massacre of the British troops at the Khyber Pass, the 41st joined General England and advanced to the rescue of General Nott and his troops. During that war Browne held the command of the 41st, and also commanded the reserve at the disastrous battle of Hykulzie; held command of his regiment at the battles of Candahar, Ghuznee, Cabul, and during the march through the Khyber Pass, where he commanded the rear; and under General McGaskell at the storming of the hill fort at Istaliff, the most daring action during the war. His gallantry and humanity were praised in the general despatches, which were quoted in both Houses of Parliament; and for his services he obtained a lieutenant-colonelcy, and was made C.B. On his return from India, he exchanged into the 21st, which he commanded until made Governor of St. Helena in 1851. From St. Helena he went, in 1854, to N.Z. On the breaking out of the Maori War, in the last year of his government, Browne showed great vigour in resisting the land league and the Maori King movement. In 1861, having completed his term of office, he was succeeded by Sir George Grey, and himself succeeded Sir Henry Young as Governor of T. This office he resigned in January 1869, when he was created K.C.M.G. He was appointed Governor of Bermudas in July 1870.

BRUCE, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL JOHN, was Acting-Governor of W.A. from 17th to 27th February 1862; and again from 1st November 1868 to 30th September 1869.

BRUCE, GEORGE. In the early part of this century, when the northern ports of N.Z. were places of rendezvous for sailors, some of the European seamen, fascinated by the dark restless-eyed women, and love of freedom, left their ships and took up their abode with the natives. One of this class was George Bruce. This sailor lad had bestowed kind attention on a sick chief named Te Pahi during his trip from Sydney to the Bay of Islands in 1804, and was begged by him to stop in the country. Charmed with the offer of Te Pahi's youngest daughter, and a large piece of land, Bruce left his ship and settled at the Bay of Islands. To gain his wife's affections, he allowed himself to be tattooed. His gentle manners and usefulness as an interpreter between the whalers and the natives, caused the tribe to respect and value him. One day the *General Wellesley*, an English vessel, arrived off the coast, and Captain Dalrymple begged Bruce and his wife to come on board to assist him in searching for gold near the North Cape. Distrusting Dalrymple's simple word, Bruce extracted a promise that both would be landed safely at the place where they had embarked. Disappointed at not finding gold, Dalrymple broke his promise and carried Bruce and his wife away from N.Z. At Malacca,

Dalrymple left Bruce on shore, carrying off his wife to Penang, where he sold her to the master of another ship. Here Bruce, who followed in pursuit, found her, and with the Governor's aid got her back, and obtained a passage for both to Calcutta, in the hope of meeting there with a vessel bound for Sydney. But neither Bruce nor his wife ever returned to the Bay of Islands.

BRUNI ISLAND, on the S.E. coast of T., discovered in 1792 by Bruni D'Entrecasteaux, and named after himself. It is divided into N. and S. Bruni, but is in reality one island, the two ends being connected by a long and very narrow peninsula. The total area is about 90,000 acres. Its length is about thirty-two miles, with a breadth varying from less than a mile to six miles. It is bounded by D'Entrecasteaux channel on the W., Storm Bay on the E., the ocean on the S., and the River Derwent on the N., where the two entrances join and form one channel to Hobart Town. The principal bays in the island are Adventure, Isthmus, Variety, Trumpeter, Barnes, Great, Taylor, and Bad bays; Shelah and Little coves. The capes and headlands are Tasman's Head, Bruni Head, Cape Connell, Frederick Henry, Kelly's and Ventenat Points. Cookville is the chief township on the southern shores of Adventure Bay. The scenery in parts is wild and striking.

BRUNSWICK BAY, on the N.W. coast of the continent, lies between Camden Sound and York Sound. It was discovered and named by Stokes in 1842, as was also the Prince Regent River, which falls into this beautiful bay.

BRUSH TURKEY. The Brush Turkey, or Wattled Talegalla, belongs to a family of birds inhabiting Australia, New Guinea, Celebes, and the Philippine Islands, whose habits and economy differ from those of every other group of birds which now exists upon the surface of our globe. It is sometimes called the New Holland Vulture, on account of its naked head and neck, covered in part with fleshy wattles. It is pretty common in N.S.W., inhabiting the most thickly wooded parts. It is about the size of a turkey, with blackish-brown plumage. It is shy, and when pursued endeavours to escape by running through the thickest brush, or by leaping to the lowest branches of a tree, from which it ascends higher and higher, branch by branch. It thus avoids the dingoes, which however often hunt it down on open ground. It is easy game to the sportsman, who finds it roosting under shelter of the branches during the heat of the day; and although several of a flock are shot, the rest keep their place undisturbed. The flesh is excellent eating, and the bird is quite capable of domestication. But the most remarkable point in the habits of this class of birds is the manner in which they construct their nests. Gould writes:—"The Wattled Talegalla collects together an immense heap of decaying vegetable matter as a depository for the eggs, and trusts to the heat engendered by the process of

decomposition for the development of the young. The heap employed for this purpose is collected by the birds during several weeks previous to the period of laying; it varies in size from two to four cart-loads, and is of a perfectly pyramidal form. The construction of the mound is not the work of one pair of birds, but is effected by the united labours of several; the same site appears to me, from the great size and entire decomposition of the lower part, to be resorted to for several years in succession, the birds adding a fresh supply of materials on each occasion previous to laying. The mode in which the materials comprising these mounds are accumulated is equally singular, the bird never using its bill, but always grasping a quantity in its foot, throwing it backwards to one common centre, and thus clearing the surface of the ground for a considerable distance so completely that scarcely a leaf or a blade of grass is left. The heap being accumulated, and time allowed for a sufficient heat to be engendered, the eggs are deposited, not side by side, as is ordinarily the case, but planted at the distance of nine or twelve inches from each other, and buried at nearly an arm's depth, perfectly upright, with the large end upwards; they are covered up as they are laid, and allowed to remain until hatched. I have been credibly informed, both by natives and settlers living near their haunts, that it is not an unusual event to obtain nearly a bushel of eggs at one time from a single heap; and as they are delicious eating, they are eagerly sought after. Some of the natives state that the females are constantly in the neighbourhood of the heap about the time the young are likely to be hatched, and frequently uncover and cover them up again, apparently for the purpose of assisting those that may have appeared; while others have informed me that the eggs are merely deposited, and the young allowed to force their way unassisted. In all probability, as nature has adopted this mode of reproduction, she has also furnished the tender birds with the power of sustaining themselves from the earliest period; and the great size of the egg would equally lead to this conclusion, since in so large a space it is reasonable to suppose that the bird would be much more developed than is usually found in eggs of smaller dimensions. In further confirmation of this point I may add, that in searching for eggs in one of the mounds, I discovered the remains of a young bird, apparently just excluded from the shell, and which was clothed with feathers, not with down, as is usually the case."

BUCCANEER'S ARCHIPELAGO, a remarkable group of islands on the N.W. coast of the continent, sometimes called Dampier's Archipelago. Here Dampier and his buccaneer companions anchored in January 1688, and lived for twelve days refitting their ship and observing the natives, whom, Dampier says, they found on some of the islands. The group was so named by subsequent navigators.

BUCKLAND, a mining district in V., situated on the Buckland River, 229 miles N.E. of Melbourne. These diggings were discovered in 1853, and have been worked more or less successfully ever since. The auriferous ground covers an area of fifty-one square miles, and 161 gold-bearing reefs have been found. There is also some farming and stock-rearing carried on in the district around.

BUCKLEY, WILLIAM (1780-1856) the Wild White Man. During Collins's encampment on the shores of Port Phillip in 1804, three of the prisoners escaped into the interior. One of these was William Buckley, a native of Macclesfield, who had been a grenadier, served under the Duke of York in Flanders, and had been transported for striking his superior officer. The two vessels, the *Calcutta* and the *Ocean*, having entered Port Phillip, turned eastwards in the direction of Arthur's Seat, near which they came to anchor; the whole party landing and forming a settlement. Buckley's unsettled disposition gave him a longing for liberty. With three other prisoners he projected a plan of escape. As the fugitives passed out from the camp bounds one of them was shot by the sentry on duty; the others, including Buckley, escaped into the unknown wilderness. Amongst the three who were now at large, they mustered some rations, a gun, several tin pots, and a kettle. The last commodity was found rather heavy, and was, therefore, thrown away at the end of the first day's journey—a circumstance not without interest, as the kettle was again found many years after by a party of colonists while clearing ground for farming purposes. Toiling over a dreary solitude, they crossed the River Yarra and traversed the plains westward to Station Peak. They passed round to Indented Head, and from Swan Island took a view of the *Calcutta* as she lay at anchor on the opposite side of the harbour. Worn out with fatigue and hunger, all the party would fain at that time have returned to their bondage, and accordingly they made repeated but vain attempts to attract the notice of those on board the ship. Buckley's two companions now decided to attempt a return by the way they had come. Buckley himself was not to be persuaded to this course. At once cherishing liberty and dreading punishment, he preferred remaining where he was, not however without a pang of grief as he reflected on his solitary position. His companions left him, but were never again seen, and must either have perished of hunger or been killed by the natives. A chief of a tribe of savages had been buried near Buckley's hut, and a piece of native spear left to mark the grave. Buckley had seen and appropriated this fragment, and as he carried it in his hand, when first seen by the tribe, they joyfully hailed him as the deceased chief come back again to life. In accordance with this happy prepossession, he found himself well cared for. He learnt their language, a circumstance that greatly pleased his native

associates; he married, and lived thirty-three years with the blacks. He was found by Batman's party on 12th July 1835. He acted as interpreter and peace-maker between the white party and the natives. A free pardon being given him by Governor Arthur, he went to live in Hobart Town, where he married again—not this time a black woman. In his old age, the Governments of T. and V. gave him a pension of £52 a-year. He died at Hobart Town, on the 2nd February 1856, aged seventy-six. Buckley was a man of gigantic stature, very robust, of few words, and fewer ideas. He had nearly lost all recollection of his native language during his stay amongst the blacks, but gradually recovered the use of it after his return to civilisation. Buckley's "Life," written from his own account by John Morgan, was published at Hobart Town in 1852.

BUNINYONG, a township in V., situated at the base of a remarkable mountain of the same name, eighty-nine miles W. of Melbourne. It is one of the oldest townships in the colony. It stands on a high elevation, the air is bracing, and the fresh water springs in the neighbourhood are numerous and good. On the S. and W. are the famous Buninyong and Ballarat gold fields, and at a distance of about three miles is Hiscock's reef, named after Hiscock, said to have been the discoverer of gold in Victoria, and to have found it at this place. The soil in the neighbourhood is volcanic, exceedingly rich and productive, and thickly timbered. Buninyong was proclaimed a municipality in 1859. The population is about 1500, and the area 3360 acres.

BURDEKIN RIVER, in N.A., discovered by Leichhardt in 1846. It was named by him as an acknowledgment of the liberal support he received from Mrs. Burdekin of Sydney, in forming his expedition. The whole extent of its banks is suited for pastoral purposes.

BURKE, ROBERT O'HARA (1820-61) explorer, came to T. in 1853, and shortly afterwards went to Melbourne, where he was appointed an Inspector of Police. In 1854 he obtained leave to go home to seek a commission in the Crimean War, but the war being over he returned to V. and resumed his police duties. In September 1858, Ambrose Kyte, a citizen of Melbourne, placed the sum of £1000 in the hands of Chief Justice Stawell, as a contribution to a fund for fitting out a party to explore Central Australia, on condition that £2000 should be subscribed by the public. A collection of £3210 was the public response. Parliament added a subsidy, and voted £5500 for the purchase of twenty-five camels from India. Everything was done on a lavish scale. It was determined that the expedition should be worthy of the colony. When the final accounts were made up, including the cost of the expeditions sent in search of Burke and Wills, it was shown that this effort to cross Australia had cost the colony more than £57,000.

The management was confided to a Committee of the Royal Society of V., of which Sir William Stowell was chairman, Dr. Wilkie treasurer, and Dr. Macadam secretary. Many weeks were wasted in discussing the most desirable point of departure. Finally it was resolved that the expedition should start from Cooper's Creek, which Sturt had struck in 1845. The choice of a leader fell on Burke, with Landells, who had brought the camels from India, as second. Burke had no bush experience, but his personal character for daring stood high. He was an officer of the V. police, and Burke's brother officers made the circumstance a point in his favour. From about 700 applicants the following were selected to form the party:—William John Wills, surveyor and astronomer; Hermann Becker, medical officer and botanist; Ludwig Beckler, artist and naturalist; with ten assistants, including Gray and King. There were twenty-eight horses to assist in transporting the baggage. On 20th of August 1860, the long train of laden camels and horses set out from the Royal Park, Melbourne, Burke heading the procession on a little grey horse. The mayor, Dr. Eades, made a short speech, wishing him God-speed; the explorers shook hands with their friends, and amid the ringing cheers of thousands of spectators, the long and picturesque line moved forward. The journey as far as the Murrumbidgee lay through settled country, and was without incident; but on the banks of that river quarrelling began among the party, and Burke dismissed the foreman; Landells and Beckler then resigned, and Wills was promoted to be second in command. Burke committed a great error in his choice of a man to take charge of the camels in place of Landells. On a sheep station, he met with a man named Wright, who made himself very agreeable; the two were soon great friends, and Burke, whose generosity was unchecked by any prudence, gave to this utterly unqualified person an important charge in the expedition. On leaving the Murrumbidgee they ascended the Darling, till they reached Menindie—the place from which Sturt had set out sixteen years before. Burke pushed on with seven companions to Cooper's Creek. The food and water on the road were good; and when half the distance had been traversed, Burke sent Wright back to Menindie to bring forward the rear party to Cooper's Creek, Burke proceeding to that place with his seven men. At Cooper's Creek they formed a dépôt and lived for some time, waiting for Wright, who however did not appear. The horses and camels by this rest improved greatly in condition, and the party was in capital quarters. But Burke grew tired of waiting; and as he was now near the centre of Australia, he determined to make a bold dash across to the Gulf of Carpentaria. He left one of his men named Brahe, and three assistants, with six camels and twelve horses, giving them instructions to remain for three months; and if within that time he did not return, they might consider him lost,

and would then be at liberty to return to Menindie. On 16th December, Burke and Wills, with King and Gray, started on their perilous journey, taking with them six camels and one horse, which carried provisions for three months. They followed the current of Cooper's Creek for some distance, and then struck off to the north, till they reached a stream which they called Eyre Creek. From this they obtained abundant supplies of water, and therefore kept along its banks till it turned to the eastward, then abandoning it they turned due north, keeping along the 140th meridian through forests of boxwood, alternating with plains well watered and richly covered with grass. Six weeks after leaving Cooper's Creek they came upon a fine stream flowing north, to which they gave the name of Cloncurry, and by following its course they found that it entered a large river, on whose banks they were delighted to perceive the most luxuriant vegetation and frequent clusters of palm-trees. They felt certain that its waters flowed into the Gulf of Carpentaria, and therefore by keeping close to it they had nothing to fear. But they had brought only three months' provision with them; more than half that time had now elapsed, and they were still 150 miles from the sea. Burke now lost no time, but hurried on so fast that one after another the camels sank exhausted; and when they had all succumbed, Burke and Wills took their only horse to carry a small quantity of provisions and, leaving Gray and King behind, set out by themselves on foot. They had to cross patches of swampy ground; and the horse, becoming inextricably bogged, was unable to go further. But still Burke and Wills hurried on by themselves till they reached a narrow inlet on the Gulf of Carpentaria, and found that the river they had been following was the Flinders, discovered by Stokes in 1842. They were anxious to view the open sea; but this would have required another couple of days, and their provisions were already exhausted; they were, therefore, obliged to hasten back as quickly as possible. The pangs of hunger overtook them before they could reach the place where King and Gray had remained with the provisions. Burke killed a snake, and ate a part, but took ill immediately after; and when at length they reached the provisions, he was not able to go forward so quickly as it was necessary to do, if they wished to be safe. However, they recovered the horse and camels, which had been greatly refreshed by their rest; and by taking easy stages, they managed to move south towards home. But their hurried journey to the north, in which they had traversed, beneath a tropical sun, about 140 miles every week, had told severely on their constitutions; Gray became ill, and it was necessary to be so careful with the provisions that he had little chance of regaining his lost strength. One evening, after they had come to a halt, he was found sitting behind a tree, eating a little mixture he had made for himself of flour and water. Burke said he was stealing the provisions, fell upon him,

and gave him a severe thrashing. He seems after this never to have rallied; whilst the party moved forward he was slowly sinking. Towards the end of March the provisions began to fail; they killed a camel, dried its flesh, and went forward. At the beginning of April this was gone, and they killed the horse. Gray now lay down, saying he could not go on; Burke said he was "shamming," and left him. However, the gentler counsel of Wills prevailed; they returned and brought him forward. But he could only go a little further; the poor fellow breathed his last a day or two after, and was buried in the wilderness. Burke regretted his harshness, all the more as he himself was quickly sinking. Both he and Wills were utterly worn out; they were thin and meagre, and so weak that they tottered rather than walked along. The last few miles were very, very weary; but, at last, on 21st of April, they came in sight of the depôt, four months and a half after leaving it. Great was their alarm on seeing no sign of people about the place; and, as they dropped down on the spot at sunset, their hearts sank within them when they found a note, stating that Brahe had left only that very morning, and was seven hours march away. The three men looked at one another in blank dismay; but they were so worn out that they could not possibly move forward with any hope of overtaking the fresh camels of Brahe's party. On looking round, however, they saw the word "DIG" cut on a neighbouring tree; and, when they turned up the soil, they found a small supply of provisions. Brahe had remained a month and a half longer than he had been told to wait; and, as his own provisions were fast diminishing, and there seemed as yet to be no signs of Wright with the remainder of the expedition, he thought it unsafe to delay his return any longer. Wright was the cause of all the disasters that ensued. Instead of following closely on Burke, he had loitered at Menindie for no less than three months and one week; and, when he did set out, he took things so leisurely that Brahe was half-way back to the Darling before they met. On the evening when they entered the depôt, Burke, Wills and King made a hearty supper; then for a couple of days they stretched their stiff and weary limbs at rest. But inaction was dangerous, for even with the greatest expedition their provisions would only serve to take them safely to the Darling. They began to deliberate as to their future course. Burke wished to go to Adelaide, because, at Mount Hopeless—where Eyre had been forced to turn back in 1840—there was a large sheep station, and he thought it could not be more than 150 miles away. Wills was strongly adverse to this proposal. "It is true," he said, "Menindie is 350 miles away, but then we know the road, and are sure of water all the way." But Burke was not to be persuaded, and they set out for Mount Hopeless. Following Cooper's Creek for many miles, they entered a region of frightful barrenness. Here, as one of the camels became too weak to go further, they

were forced to kill it and dry its flesh. Still they followed the creek, till at last it spread itself into marshy thickets and was lost; they then made a halt, and found they had scarcely any provisions left, while their clothes were falling to pieces. Their only chance was to reach Mount Hopeless speedily; they shot their last camel, and, whilst Burke and King were drying its flesh, Wills struck out to find out Mount Hopeless; but after laboriously traversing the barren wastes in all directions, came back unsuccessful. A short rest was taken, and the whole party turned southward, determined to reach the Mount. But they were too weak to travel day after day over these dreary plains, and still no sign of a hill; till at length, when they were within fifty miles of Mount Hopeless, they gave in. Had they only gone but a little further, they would have seen the summit of the mountain rising upon the horizon; but just at this point they lost hope and turned to go back. Again a weary journey, and they once more reached the fresh water and grassy banks of Cooper's Creek, but now with provisions for only a day or two. They sat down to consider their position, and Burke said he had heard that the natives of Cooper's Creek lived chiefly on the seed of a plant which they called nardoo; so that, if they could only find a native tribe, they might perhaps learn to find sufficient subsistence from the soil around them. Accordingly, Burke and King set out to seek a native encampment; and, having found one, they were kindly received by the blacks, who very willingly showed them how to gather the little black seeds from a kind of grass which grows close to the ground. With this information they returned to Wills; and as the nardoo seed was abundant, they began at once to gather it; but they found that, through want of skill, they could scarcely obtain enough for two meals a day, by working from morning till night; and, when evening came, they had to clean, roast, and grind it; and, besides this, whatever it might have been to the blacks, to them it was by no means nutritious—it made them sick, and gave them no strength. Whilst they were thus dwelling on the lower part of Cooper's Creek, Brahe on his way home had met with Wright coming up, and had hastened back with him to the dépôt; but when they reached it they saw no signs of Burke and Wills, although the explorers had been there a few days before. Brahe concluded that they were dead, and once more set out for home. Meanwhile Burke thought it possible that a relief party might have reached the creek, and Wills volunteered to go to the dépôt to see if anyone were there. He set out by himself, and after journeying three or four days, reached the place; but only to find it still and deserted. He examined it carefully, but could see no trace of its having been recently visited; and he turned back to share the doom of his companions. He now began to endure fearful pangs from hunger; one evening he entered an encampment that had just been abandoned by the natives, and around the fire

there were some fish bones, which he greedily picked. Next day he saw two small fish floating dead upon a pool, and they made a delicious feast. But in spite of these stray morsels he was rapidly sinking from hunger, when he met a native tribe. The black men were exceedingly kind; one carried his bundle for him, another supported his feeble frame, and gently led the gaunt and emaciated white man to their camp. They gave him a little food; whilst he was eating he saw a great quantity of fish on the fire; when they were cooked the plentiful repast was placed before him; the natives gathered round and clapped their hands with delight when they saw him eat heartily. He stayed with them for four days, and then set out to bring his friends to enjoy likewise this ample hospitality. It took him some days to reach the place where he had left them; but when they heard his good news they lost no time in seeking their native benefactors. On account of their weakness they travelled slowly, and when they reached the encampment it was deserted. They had no idea whither the natives had gone; they struggled a short distance further; their feebleness overcame them, and they were forced to sink down in despair. All day they toiled hard to prepare nardoo seed; but their small strength could not provide enough to support them. Once or twice they shot a crow, but such slight repasts served only to prolong their sufferings. Wills throughout all his journeyings had kept a diary, but now the entries became very short; in the struggle for life there was no time for such duties, and the grim fight with starvation required all their strength. At this time Wills records that he cannot understand why his legs are so weak; he has bathed them in the stream, but finds them no better, and he can hardly crawl out of the hut. His next entry is, that unless relief comes shortly he cannot last more than a fortnight. After that his mind seems to have begun to wander; he makes frequent and unusual blunders in his diary. The last words he wrote were that he was waiting, like Mr. Micawber, for something to turn up, and that, though starving on nardoo seed was by no means unpleasant, yet he would prefer to have a little fat and sugar mixed with it. Burke now thought that their only chance was to find the blacks, and proposed that he and King should set out for that purpose. They were very loth to leave Wills, but, under the circumstances, no other course was possible. They laid him softly within the hut, and placed at his head enough of nardoo to last him for eight days. Wills asked Burke to take his watch, and a letter he had written for his father; the two men pressed his hands, smoothed his couch tenderly for the last time, and set out. There, in the utter silence of the wilderness, the dying man lay for a day or two; no ear heard his last sigh, but his end was as gentle as his life had been free from reproach. Burke and King walked out on their desperate errand. On the first day they traversed a fair distance; but on the second they had not proceeded two miles when Burke lay down, saying

he could go no further. King entreated him to make another effort, and he dragged himself to a little clump of bushes, where he stretched his limbs very wearily. An hour or two afterwards he was stiff and unable to move. He asked King to take his watch and pocket-book, and if possible to give them to his friends in Melbourne; then he begged of him not to depart till he was quite dead: he knew he should not live long, and he would like some one to be near him to the last. He spoke with difficulty, but directed King not to bury him, but to let him lie above ground, with a pistol in his right hand. They passed a weary and lonesome night; and in the morning, at eight o'clock, Burke's restless life was ended. King wandered for some time forlorn, but by good fortune he stumbled upon an abandoned encampment, where the blacks had left a bag of nardoo, sufficient to last him a fortnight; and with this he hastened back to the hut where Wills had been laid. All he could do now, however, was to dig a grave for his body in the sand, and having performed that last sad duty, he set out once more on his search, and found a tribe differing from that which he had already seen. They were very kind but not anxious to keep him, until having shot some birds and cured their chief of a malady he was found to be of some use, and soon became a great favourite with them. They made a trip to the body of Burke, but respecting his last wishes they did not seek to bury it, and merely covered it gently with a layer of leafy boughs. Meanwhile the committee became anxious for intelligence from Cooper's Creek. In June a light party under the leadership of Alfred Howitt, "a perfect type of an Australian bushman," was despatched for that purpose. Near Swan Hill he met Brahe, and both returned to Melbourne to tell how Burke had not got back to the dépôt. The committee now became seriously alarmed. Howitt was reinforced, and sent forward to Cooper's Creek. He succeeded in resuscitating King, who was subsisting with the natives. He also found the journals of the expedition, and the bodies of the dead explorers, and gave them decent burial; subsequently, he was sent up to bring the remains to Melbourne, where the colonists had decreed them a public funeral. But before the result of Howitt's first journey was known the greatest excitement as to the fate of Burke prevailed. By order of the Government a dépôt was formed on the Albert River, in the Gulf of Carpentaria, by Captain Norman of the *Victoria*, and search parties were sent out under the leadership of Landsborough, F. Walker, and McKinlay. The remains of the explorers having been brought by Howitt from Cooper's Creek, lay in state for twenty days before the public funeral, which took place in the Melbourne Cemetery on 21st January 1863, in the presence of many thousands of persons. A monolith of granite weighing thirty-four tons was placed over them, and a bronze statue of Burke and Wills, from a design by Summers, was erected at the cost of £4000 in Collins Street. An annuity

of £180 per annum was granted to King, the survivor, and grants were made to the relations and dependents of both explorers. King died 15th January 1872, and was interred in the Melbourne Cemetery. The colony behaved munificently throughout the whole enterprise, and the results achieved have led to a vast settlement over the country traversed. The disaster which befell the expedition, however, created a strong and painful feeling in the public mind. The expedition had succeeded, but the brave explorers had perished! Their solution of the last problem of Australian exploration was perfect. From the shores of Port Phillip Bay to the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria, they laid down a direct and practicable route, and returned to their dépôt at Cooper's Creek,—to find it abandoned, and to die! In his despatch to the British Government, announcing the results of the expedition, Sir Henry Barkly wrote of their fate in these terms:—"So fell two as gallant spirits as ever sacrificed life for the extension of science, or the cause of mankind. Both were in their prime; both resigned comfort and competency to embark in an enterprise by which they hoped to render their names glorious; both died without a murmur, evincing their loyalty and devotion to their country to the last."

BURNETT, JAMES CHARLES (1818-1854) explorer, was in January 1833 appointed to a clerkship in the Surveyor-General's department in N.S.W., then presided over by Sir Thomas L. Mitchell. Burnett passed readily the grades of draftsman, assistant surveyor, surveyor, and surveyor in charge of the department in Q. Whilst there he was instructed to explore the rivers now known as the Mary, named after Lady Mary Fitzroy, and the Burnett, named after the explorer. He died at the early age of thirty-six, from the effects of exposure whilst on duty in an open boat for about twenty-three days.

BURNETT RIVER, in Q., rises in the Darling Downs and falls into Hervey's Bay. It was named by Sir Charles Fitz Roy, to mark his sense of the perseverance and enterprise evinced by Surveyor Burnett in tracing it to its entrance.

BURNS, JOHN FITZGERALD (—) came to Sydney and settled in the Hunter River district. In 1862 he was elected to Parliament for the Hunter, and, with the exception of two years, has ever since sat for that constituency. In February 1875 he took office as Postmaster-General in the Robertson Ministry, and remained in office until March 1877. In December of the same year he took office as Postmaster-General in the Farnell Ministry, and held office until the retirement of that Government in December 1878. He introduced Postal Cards into Australia in October 1875, and was the first in N.S.W. to give employment to ladies in the Telegraph Department. In 1878 he successfully arranged with the Governments of the other continental colonies and N.Z. for the construction to Australia of a second submarine cable from Europe.

BURRA BURRA MINE, in S.A., was discovered by a shepherd named Pickitt in 1845. In order to secure the fee-simple of mineral land it became necessary to purchase a special survey of 20,000 acres, paying the Government in specie. The survey was taken on 16th August, by C. H. Bagot and G. F. Aston, on behalf of themselves and others, afterwards called the Princess Royal Mining Company, and by W. Allen and S. Stocks jun., for themselves and others, who afterwards became incorporated with the S.A. Mining Association, which name is still borne by the Burra Company. These two parties were called respectively "nobs" and "snobs;" the former representing the "aristocracy" of the colony, and the latter merchants and tradespeople. The nobs were unwilling to combine with the snobs in a joint-stock company for carrying on the mine, and therefore, although they united to purchase the ground—as neither party could, unaided, raise the cash—so soon as the survey was completed the land was divided by drawing a line through the centre from east to west. Lots were then drawn for the land, and the "snobs" became the fortunate proprietors of the northern portion of the survey on which the Burra mine existed. The Princess Royal property was ultimately sold for pastoral purposes at eighteen shillings per acre. The first directors of the S.A. Mining Association appointed to manage the affairs of the Burra mine, were C. Beck, J. Bunce, J. B. Graham, J. B. Neales, W. Paxton, W. Peacock, C. S. Penny, E. Solomon, and S. Stocks, jun., with H. Ayres as secretary. Operations were commenced immediately, ten miners being employed under the superintendence of a captain, and with a smith to sharpen and repair the tools. The first shot was fired 29th September 1845, blasting a large mass of rich ore, and in a short time several drays were loaded for the port. The workings were carried on with vigour, and the produce of the mine surpassed the most sanguine expectations. The original working capital of the company was only £1500; but with a mine so rich and so easily worked that amount proved sufficient, until the sale of ore increased the funds available for working expenses. During the first six years nearly 80,000 tons of exceedingly rich ore were raised and shipped to England, yielding a profit to the company of £438,552; a pretty good result from an original outlay of £10,000 for the land. The number of hands employed was upwards of 1000; but at this time the newly-discovered gold-fields in Victoria attracted a large proportion of the population, and especially miners, who left in such numbers that only 100 were left at the Burra. The machinery was of necessity stopped, and the water let in; the men who remained being employed in working above the water level. For nearly three years the mine continued thus. The Government then took the matter into consideration, and deeming the prosperity of the colony to be dependent to a great extent on its mining interest, adopted

measures for the introduction of a number of Cornish miners. When these arrived, the water was pumped from the mine, and full operations were resumed, and have been carried on with trifling interruptions until the present time. The greatest number of hands employed was in 1859, when it amounted to 1170 persons. The discoveries at Wallaroo caused some of the miners to remove to that locality; several were attracted by the reports of the richness of the mines in the far north, and many went to the coal mines in N.S.W. Prior to this, the working of the mines at Wallaroo and in the far north had tended to raise the rate of wages, and it was deemed advisable by the directors of the Burra to confine operations to workings above the fifty-five-fathom level; the water was, therefore, let into the lower part of the mine—from the seventy-fathom level to the fifty-fifth—and it was found that larger proportionate profits could be realised without incurring the expense of working the lower levels. The yield of ore has ranged for many years from 10,000 to 13,000 tons a year; the produce giving an average of twenty-two to twenty-three per cent. of copper; or about 2500 tons of pure copper when smelted, and yielding an average annual amount of at least £225,000. The total amount expended in the colony by the Burra company, up to 1863, was about £1,700,000, of which upwards of £1,000,000 had been paid in wages. The gross profits amounted to £850,080, of which £714,560 had been divided among the shareholders, and £135,520 added to the capital stock, while £10,560 remained undivided. Up till 1876 the total dividends paid amounted to £782,320. But the mine had not been in full working order for several years. The miners say that there is not a regular *lode* in the Burra mine. The ores obtained have been chiefly red oxides, rich blue and green carbonates, and malachite. Native copper has also been found. Many beautiful specimens of all the varieties named ornament the mantelpieces or cabinets of houses in the colony.

BURRAGORANG VALLEY, is situated in the county of Camden, N.S.W., 58 miles W. from Sydney. It is a long narrow valley, hemmed in between the Merrigong range and the Blue Mountains, with only one pass down into it, and that very precipitous. It runs N. and S. along the banks of the Warragamba River, and consists of a strip of rich soil matted with the finest native herbage, and picturesquely variegated with high rocky precipitous mountains, hanging frowningly on each side of it.

BURTON, SIR WILLIAM WESTBROOKE (1794—) entered the navy in 1807, and whilst there studied for the bar; and for a few years practised in the English law courts. He was appointed Puisne Judge of the Cape of Good Hope in 1829; but left there for Australia in 1832; arriving in Sydney in December, to take the appointment of Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of N.S.W. He held the office till 1844, when he removed to Madras, and became a Judge

of the Supreme Court of India. In 1857 he retired from the Bench and returned to Australia. He was President of the Legislative Council of N.S.W. from February 1858 to May 1861, and remained in the colony about four years, when he returned to England. He wrote a work on the "State of Religion and Education in New South Wales."

"BUSH." This term for the back country seems to have been imported from South Africa, probably by sailors. "Backwoods" is the corresponding American term. An English novelist, who speaks of the "Australian backwoods," shows, by that single phrase, his entire ignorance of Australian life and manners. "Up the bush"—meaning in the back country—is the term used by the Dutch Boers of the Cape of Good Hope.

BUSHRANGING: Australian brigandage. There have been periods when this description of crime became epidemic. All the romance of crime in this part of the world is associated with the name; but the criminal chronicle forms no part of this *Cyclopædia*, beyond a few names and dates:—Michael Howe, in V.D.L., 1818; John and Thomas Clarke, N.S.W., 1867; Donohoe Gang, N.S.W., 1830; Gardiner Gang, N.S.W., 1864; Gilbert Gang, N.S.W., 1865; Kelly Gang, V., 1878; Macgregor, Q., 1863; Melville, V., 1859; Morgan, N.S.W., 1865; Power, V., 1870; Ward ("Thunderbolt,") N.S.W., 1870; Westwood, V.D.L., 1846; Garrett, N.Z., 1861; Ross Gang, N.S.W., 1863; Fordyce Gang, N.S.W., 1863; Gorman Gang, N.S.W., 1879; Nelson Robbery, V., 1852; McIvor Escort Robbery, V., 1853. A few of the more noted instances of bushranging are given under the proper names of the leaders.

BUSTARD BAY, in Q., to the southward of Port Curtis, was discovered and named by Captain Cook, from his having shot there a species of bustard as large as a turkey, which weighed $17\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. Here he landed the second time in N.S.W.

BUTLER, EDMUND, Q.C. (1824-1879) a native of Ireland, came to N.S.W. in 1852. He began as a writer for the *Empire*, then under the management of Henry Parkes, and his articles were characterised by considerable power. He applied himself to the study of the law, and in October 1855 was admitted to the Bar. He was appointed Crown Prosecutor for the Metropolitan District. He soon acquired a practice in the District Court of the colony, and gradually gained a professional reputation that advanced him to public favour as a barrister in the Supreme Court, where he rose to a high position, and gained an extensive practice. His Irish brogue and humorous style of address will long be remembered, and his ability as a pleader was acknowledged by all. In November 1873 Butler became a Q.C. and leader of the Bar, his professional reputation increasing as years passed on. He entered political life in September 1861, when he took his seat as a

member of the Legislative Council. He sat until November 1863, when he resigned. In December 1869 he was elected member for Argyle in the sixth Parliament under responsible government. In March 1872 he was re-elected member for Argyle, and sat during the continuance of the Parliament. In May he accepted office as Attorney-General in the Parkes Administration, and, being re-elected by his constituents, remained a member of the Government until November 1873, when he resigned in consequence of a difference between himself and Parkes relative to the Chief Justiceship. In December 1874 he was again re-elected member for Argyle; but, after sitting during the term of the eighth Parliament, he did not again present himself for re-election to the popular branch of the Legislature. In December 1877, he took his seat for the second time as member of the Legislative Council, and served the country in that capacity until his death. The last time he took any prominent part in the debates was when the Parliamentary Privileges Bill was before the Council. With Dalley and Darley he offered a most strenuous opposition to that measure. He had charge of the Criminal Law Consolidation Bill, introduced when he was in the Legislative Assembly, and was usually identified with the Liberal party during the course of his political career. He died suddenly in court, whilst addressing the Bench, on 9th June 1879.

BUZACOTT, CHARLES HARDIE (1835—) came to Sydney in 1852, where he acquired a knowledge of the printing business. In 1860 he went to Q., and established the *Maryborough Chronicle*. In 1864 he started the *Peak Downs Telegram*, which he carried on until 1870, when he bought the *Rockhampton Bulletin*. In 1873 Buzacott was elected Member for Rockhampton in the Q. Parliament, and held the seat for about fifteen months, when he resigned. He was re-elected, but after the Session of 1877 again resigned. On the formation of the McIlwraith Ministry in January 1879 he accepted the Postmaster-Generalship, and represented the Government in the Legislative Council.

BYRNE, ROBERT (1822—) came to V. in 1853. He was elected for Crowlands in the Legislative Assembly in 1867. On 20th September 1869 he moved a vote of censure on the McCulloch Ministry, for the appointment to the Commissionership of Customs of George Rolfe, not then a member of the Assembly. The vote was carried, and the Ministry resigned. Byrne then came into office as Treasurer in the Macpherson Ministry, which succeeded it; but on presenting himself for re-election he was beaten by Rolfe. He resigned office, and retired from public life.

BYRON, CAPE, in N.S.W., was discovered and named by Captain Cook, after Admiral Byron. It is known by a remarkable sharp peaked mountain, with three points at the top, which lies inland, and bears from it N.W. by W.

C.

CADELL, FRANCIS (1822—1880) explorer, came to S.A. in 1848, having previously served in the Chinese war as midshipman on board an East Indiaman. At twenty-two he was in command of a vessel, and in the intervals between his voyages he spent much time in the shipbuilding yards of the Tyne and Clyde, where he gained a thorough knowledge of naval architecture and the construction of the steam-engine. A visit to the Amazon first led him to study the subject of river navigation, and when in Australia in 1848 his attention was drawn to the practicability of navigating the Murray and its tributaries, which had till then only served for watering the flocks belonging to the scattered stations on their banks. Three years later, encouraged by the Governor of S. Australia, he put his project into execution. In a frail boat, with canvas sides and ribs of barrel hoops, he embarked at Swanhill, on the Upper Murray, and descended the stream to Lake Victoria at its mouth, a distance of 1300 miles. The S.A. Government offered a bonus of £4000 for the first two iron steamers, of not less than forty-horse power, and not more than two feet draught of water when loaded, that should successfully navigate the Murray from the Goolwa to the junction of the Darling. The Murray Steam Navigation Company was originated by Cadell and Younghusband, subsequently Chief Secretary of the colony. This company placed a steamer, the *Lady Augusta*, called after the wife of the Governor, on the waters, and in 1853 she started, under the command of Cadell, with a party of ladies and gentlemen on board, including Sir H. and Lady Young, to put to the test the practicability of navigating the Murray. The little steamer safely pursued her course to Swan Hill, distant 1300 miles from Adelaide, from which His Excellency wrote a despatch to the Secretary of State for the colonies, announcing the triumph he had achieved, and informing him that the steamer carried back to Adelaide a cargo of wool grown in the district, which was the opening of a great trade that would be for the benefit of the whole of Australia through all future time. This successful beginning was as successfully followed up for a time by other steamers being placed on the river, and a very considerable trade was begun. Ultimately, however, there was a collapse; money was lost in the trade, some who took part in it having been almost ruined, amongst whom was the enthusiastic Cadell; the company dissolved, and all the bright visions of the Murray being the Mississippi and Port Elliot the New Orleans of Australia vanished. Other steamers were procured, and in 1858 Cadell succeeded in ascending the Murrumbidgee, the Edward, and the Darling, and opening them to traffic. A gold candelabrum was presented to Cadell by the settlers, the value of whose property was greatly increased by his efforts, and the Legislature directed a gold medal in his honour to

be struck in England by Mr. Wyon. Subsequent to his retirement from the Murray trade Cadell was engaged in the transport service during the war in N.Z. Other enterprises followed. He endeavored to establish stores at various depôts along the banks of the Murray, and at another time he took up country north of Lake Victoria. Both speculations fell through. Finally he embarked in the pearl fishery on the N.W. and N.E. coasts of Australia. His knowledge of the islands of the Arafura Sea and of the people inhabiting the Malayan Archipelago was considerable. But difficulties arose, not only with his native crews, but with the Governments of S.A. and Q. A telegram from Batavia in March 1880 announced his death. "As is the case," remarks the editor of *Men of the Time*, "with most first adventurers, others are now reaping the abundant fruits of his labour, and, on account of inter-colonial jealousies, he received no substantial return for a fortune expended and years of danger, anxiety, and toil."

CAIRNS, ADAM, D.D. (1802 —) Presbyterian Minister, was ordained in 1823, and came to V. in 1853. He was chosen pastor of the Chalmers Church Congregation, East Melbourne, which office he held for twelve years. In 1865 he retired from active service, still retaining his status as a minister of the Church, and honoured as the father of Presbyterianism in Victoria.

CAIRNS, WILLIAM WELLINGTON (1828—) was appointed in 1852 a writer in the Civil Service of Ceylon. In 1867 he was made Lieutenant-Governor of Malacca, and in 1868 Lieutenant-Governor of Christopher, Nevis and Anguilla in the West Indies. Thence he was promoted in 1870 to British Honduras, and from there in 1874 to Trinidad, but his health compelled him to obtain leave of absence, and, acting on medical advice, he resigned the appointment. In 1874 he was appointed Governor of Q., which office he held till 1877, when he was transferred to S.A. On account of ill-health he resigned the same year. He received the honour of K.C.M.G. in 1877.

CALVERT, JAMES SNOWDON (1825 —) came to N.S.W. in 1840. On board ship he made the acquaintance of Leichhardt, who told him of his object in coming to the colony. Calvert promised that he would join in his exploring expedition. In 1844 Leichhardt was ready to start on his first journey to Port Essington. Calvert found his own outfit, horses, &c., and joined him at Newcastle. They left for Moreton Bay in the steamer *Sovereign*, Captain Cape, commander. After many hardships, including fights with the blacks, they successfully accomplished their mission, and returned to Sydney in 1845.

CALVERT RIVER, in N.A., falls into the Gulf of Carpentaria. It was discovered by Leichhardt, and named by him in commemoration of the services of his companion, James Calvert.

CAMBRIDGE GULF, on the N.W. coast of the Continent, between Capes Dussejour and Domett, to the westward of Queen's channel, into which the Victoria of Stokes flows. This immense gulf is twenty-eight miles wide at its entrance. It was explored and named by King in 1819, after the Duke of Cambridge. There is here a curious natural formation, which so much resembles a military fortification that it is difficult, at first view, to believe that it is not the work of human hands. King gave the hill on which the freak of nature stands the name of Mount Cockburn, after Admiral Cockburn.

CAMDEN, one of the oldest townships of N.S.W., is situated in the centre of a fertile district in which the vineyards and farms have reached perhaps, as high a standard of excellence as any in Australia. It lies on the banks of the river Nepean, the main southern road passing through the village, and is distant from Sydney about forty-two miles S.W. The population of the township is only a few hundreds. The pleasing character of the country, coupled with its great agricultural advantages, early led to its settlement, and also to its being selected as the site of numerous gentlemen's seats. Much land is devoted to the growth of the grape, the principal vineyards being those at Camden Park (the fine estate of the Macarthurs,) Maryland, and Kirkham.

CAMDEN HAVEN, a beautiful bay of N.S.W., a few miles to the southward of Port Macquarie. It was named by Oxley after the Marquis of Camden.

CAMDEN VALLEY, in the district of Liverpool Plains, N.S.W., watered by the Turrabeil river, was named by Oxley after the Marquis of Camden.

CAMERON, SIR DUNCAN A. (1808—) entered the Army in 1825, became Captain in 1833, Major in 1839, Colonel in 1854, and Major-General in 1859. He served with distinction in the Crimean campaign of 1854-5, having commanded the 42nd Regiment at the battle of the Alma, and the Highland brigade at the battle of Balaklava, and was sent out to command the troops in N.Z., with the local rank of Lieutenant-General, in 1863. In that capacity he highly distinguished himself, and in 1864 was nominated a K.C.B. in recognition of his services against the Maoris. He was made Colonel of the 42nd Foot, in September 1863; and in 1868 became Governor of the Royal Military College at Sandhurst, and was created a K.G.C.B. in 1873.

CAMPBELL LAKE, in the district of Lachlan, N.S.W., situated between Regent's Lake and the Lachlan, was named by Oxley in honour of Mrs. Macquarie's family name.

CAMPBELL, MURDOCH, S.A. explorer. He, with Swinden, D. Thompson, and E. Stock, crossed the head of Spencer's Gulf, and found excellent pastoral country fifty miles further inland in 1857.

CAMPBELL, WILLIAM, a native of Scotland, arrived in N.S.W. in December 1838 with letters of introduction from the Colonial Office to Sir George Gipps, and to the Messrs. McArthur of Camden, from whom he received the appointment of superintendent of their station in Argyle. This office he retained until he left for Port Phillip in 1846, when he travelled overland with his family, bringing with him about 4000 sheep, including a flock of 150 thorough-bred merino ewes and rams from the pure Camden flock. He experienced great difficulty in establishing himself as a squatter, as all the well-watered lands in Port Phillip were occupied, and consequently had to re-cross the Murray and form a station on the Wakool, at a time when the blacks murdered Mr. Beveridge and several other Europeans, amongst them McKenzie, who had just left Campbell's employment. After undergoing great fatigue and anxiety in forming the station, his application for the run was refused by the Commissioner of Crown Lands, it being claimed by a prior applicant; but as Campbell had prior occupation he appealed to head-quarters, and refused to remove his stock—after travelling overland, and making long excursions beyond the occupied districts on the Lower Murray, Avoca, Wimmera, and through part of the Mallee, and ridden 1500 miles in search of a run, he felt it hard to quit on the order of an official who had not been in the locality. Ultimately he sold his interest in the run to a friend who had also purchased the prior applicant's disputed right to it. Campbell reserved the pure Camden merinos, and brought them back to Port Phillip, and placed them on Tourall, a small run near Clunes, which he purchased from Mr. Norton. In 1849 he exchanged that run for Strathallan, now Campbell's Creek, which he made his home-station, and where he lived till 1851, when gold mining rendered the run untenable. He then removed his family to St. Kilda, and sent the merinos to Mount Hope. From the progeny of the merinos he supplied the flocks of the Lear-months of Ereildoun and others with rams; and it is generally admitted that the introduction of the Camden merino gave the long, soft, elastic quality which distinguishes the flocks of the Western District. In 1849 Campbell discovered gold at Clunes, and was awarded £1000 for the original discovery of gold in V., but only £476 4s. of that sum was paid; of this part payment one-half was given to Lewis Grant and C. McLennan, the other half handed over to public charities. This distribution was recorded in the Melbourne *Herald* of 17th April 1857. In 1861 an attack was made on Campbell in the Assembly for not having sooner disclosed the discovery of gold; in reply to which a conclusive letter of his was published in the *Herald* and *Age* of 28th May of that year. In 1851 he was elected one of the first twenty representative members for the first Legislative Council. He took a prominent part in defending the rights of the Crown tenants. In 1854 he resigned his seat and returned to Europe with his family. On

leaving he was deputed by a number of leading squatters to represent their grievances to the Colonial Office, which he did by publishing *The Crown Lands of Australia*, embodying arguments founded on documentary evidence. In 1856 he paid a visit to V., and early in 1857 sold his stations and returned to Europe. In 1859 he again returned to Australasia with the intention of settling in N.Z., which he visited and made some profitable investments, but not liking the climate he returned to V., where he purchased landed property and stations in Riverina. He purchased back from Griffiths and Greene the pure merino flock (which he had sold to them with Mount Hope station,) and which he still retains in its purity; a small portion has been recently sent back to Sir Wm. McArthur of Camden, where their progenitors were first placed on their Australian home some eighty-two years ago, a longer period of homogeneity of race than perhaps exists in any other flock. Campbell was a director and one of the largest shareholders in the Melbourne and Hobson's Bay Railway Company at the time it was sold to the Government. In 1862 he was elected to the Legislative Council for the N.W. Province; and in 1872 was re-elected to the same seat.

CANTERBURY, a province of N.Z. The foundation of the province dates from 1848, in which year a number of men of influence in England, including the Archbishop of Canterbury, Lord Lyttelton and the Duke of Manchester, formed themselves into the "Canterbury Association for Founding a Settlement in New Zealand," which was incorporated by Royal Charter in 1849. The portion of the colony in which the Association was to establish its members was for some time not fixed, as it was doubtful whether the plain adjacent to Banks Peninsula, or a tract of land near Wairarapa, in the present Province of Wellington, was the better adapted for their requirements. Captain Grey, then Governor, in a despatch to the Secretary of State, advocated the choice of the latter district; but great difficulty was found in acquiring the land on reasonable terms from the native owners. On the other hand, the whole of the vast tract of country lying between the river Hurunui and Port Chalmers, stretching from sea to sea, had already been ceded by the Maori owners to the Europeans. On 25th August 1848 Governor Grey forwarded to the Secretary of State a copy of the agreement by which the chiefs of the Ngaitahu tribe made over to Colonel Wakefield, agent of the N.Z. Company, all the country comprising what are now the Provinces of Canterbury and Westland, and great part of Otago, for a comparatively small sum of money. This cession did not include Banks Peninsula, as the natives had already sold the whole of that block to a French company, whose settlers were residing on it. The N.Z. Company made no attempt to colonise the area they thus acquired, further than by handing over to the Canterbury Association 1,000,000 acres on the

plains, afterwards increased to 2,400,000 acres. In 1849 Captain Thomas, agent for the Association, wrote from Auckland to Governor Grey, stating that he had examined the harbour of Port Cooper and the surrounding country, and, having found the land suitable, requested His Excellency's sanction to Port Cooper as the site of the settlement. This was granted; the surveys of the harbour and plains were pushed on, and preparations made for receiving the settlers sent out by the Association. Negotiations were also carried on between the N.Z. Company and the French Association who held possession of Banks Peninsula; and on 12th October 1849 the directors of the Company announced to the Colonial Office that they had taken over all the property and interests of the French Company for £4500. On 16th December 1850 the first emigrant ship from England arrived at Port Cooper, and the commencement of the settlement may be said to have then taken place. The design of the Association was to establish in N.Z. a settlement complete in itself, having as little connection as possible with the other centres of population in the colony, and composed entirely of members of the Protestant Church of Great Britain. The Committee of Management proposed to reserve to themselves the right "of refusing to allow any person of whom they might disapprove to become an original purchaser of land;" but long before the establishment of representative government in 1852, doubts were expressed, even by some of the managers, of the success of this part of the scheme; and Canterbury offered so many advantages to immigrants of all classes, that the wall of exclusiveness was soon broken down, and the community became, like all others, an aggregation of settlers from various countries and of various denominations. The affairs of the Association were managed in England by a committee, and J. R. Godley was sent out to conduct their public business in N.Z. Godley arrived in Canterbury in 1850, and remained as its resident official head until 1853; then the elevation of the settlement into one of the provinces of N.Z. under the Constitution Act, and the annulling of all previous charters to the separate little colonies, rendered the continuance of the Association needless. During his term of office, Godley's energy and earnestness of purpose contributed powerfully to the success of the settlement, and he left N.Z. for England followed by the general regret of the colonists—regret increased by the knowledge that his unwearied attention to the welfare of those under his charge had entailed on him permanent loss of health. The first Superintendent under the new act was J. E. Fitzgerald, an original member of the Association, who held office till 1857. He was succeeded by W. S. Moorhouse, Superintendent from 1857 to 1863; S. Bealey from 1863 to 1866; Moorhouse again till 1868; and W. Rolleston from 1868 to 1875. In the three years between the arrival of the first settlers and the meeting of

the first Provincial Council, the settlement made remarkable progress, and became not only self-supporting, but able to export largely to other colonies. This progress has been, almost without a check, continued to the present time. The revenues of the Province from sales of Crown lands and other sources have been steadily increasing. In 1858 Godley was able to announce to the friends of the colony in England that the province, with a population of 7000, raised a revenue of £96,000—seven times as much per head as the revenue of England. This was exclusive of the revenue raised in the province for the general colonial purposes of N.Z. For 1878 the revenues of the province, exclusive of colonial revenue, amounted to almost £1,000,000, the estimated population being 91,922. The province contains that portion of the Middle Island bounded on the N. by the River Hurunui (the boundary of Nelson,) on the E. by the sea, on the W. by the ridge of the Southern Alps (the boundary of Westland,) and on the S. by the River Waitaki (the boundary of Otago.) The area is about 8,693,000 acres, of which 2,500,000 form a vast plain sloping gently down from the mountain ranges to the sea. There are also large tracts of undulating downs capable of cultivation. On the eastern edge rises Banks Peninsula, a hilly district, comprising about 250,000 acres, and composed of peaks, ridges, and basins, the remains of long-extinct volcanoes. The capital is Christchurch, situated on the plain at the northern edge of the peninsula, and about five miles from the sea, on the small river Avon. The port town is Lyttelton, on Port Cooper, one of the basins of Banks Peninsula, connected with Christchurch by a railway, having a tunnel through the hills. In the northern part of the Province are the towns of Kaiapoi, Rangiora, Leithfield, and Oxford, besides many smaller villages. To the south are Timaru, Geraldine, Ashburton, Southbridge, Leeston, &c. On the Peninsula stands Akaroa (on a fine harbour,) and smaller settlements in almost every bay. From the mountain ranges on the west to the sea on the east many rivers flow across the Canterbury plain. As a rule, these rivers are extremely rapid, not running in deep streams between well-defined banks, but shallow and flowing on shingle beds, sometimes more than a mile wide. The province may be considered as divided into three longitudinal zones—the mountain zone, comprising the whole western and part of the northern portions, and almost exclusively devoted to pasturage; the central or plain zone, comprising almost all the rest of the province, pastoral in those portions as yet unbought from the Crown, agricultural in the rest; and the peninsular or eastern zone, partly timber-producing forest, partly pastoral, partly devoted to cheese-making and dairy farming. Beds of clay and iron ore not yet worked lie in several localities, and samples of pottery made from fireclays were exhibited at the Exhibitions of 1873-9. Beds of quartz sand, adapted for

glassmaking, are found in abundance, as are lime stones and building stones of various qualities. Marble is found in the Malvern Hills, and is being extensively worked. The vast coal-bed which seems to underlie the whole country, from the Buller southward to the Grey, is being worked to a sufficient extent to supply steamers calling at the West Coast ports with coals. On the eastern side of the great range of hills are the famous Canterbury Plains, although the proportion of plain country, as compared with the table-land and slopes of the mountain range, is not very great. This is the sheep district of the colony, and to its excellence Canterbury has owed its rapid advance in prosperity. The natural pastures are very fine, and stand probably at the head of natural pasturage in N.Z. There is plenty of excellent timber in some parts. Much land in South Canterbury, hitherto utilised for breeding and rearing sheep, is being rapidly bought up and tilled, the soil being admirably adapted for the growth of cereals. The two chief industries are wool and grain, but there is a large export trade carried on in flax, provisions (preserved and cured,) skins, hides, leather, and dairy produce. Sericulture is also carried on to some extent, the mulberry growing well in some parts. The Church of England is governed by a Bishop, who is primate of N.Z., with a Chapter and Canons. The Roman Catholics form part of the diocese of Wellington. The Methodists, Presbyterians, and other denominations have places of worship in all the populous centres. Primary education is free and secular, but all householders residing within three miles from the school have to pay £1 per annum, and a further sum of 5s. for every child between the years of six and thirteen. There is also a grammar-school for higher education. For the last eight years the mean temperature has been 53·5°, ranging from 21·5° to 95·7°. The barometric reading was 29·880. During the same period the average rainfall per year was 26·850 inches. The climate is less mild and uniform than that of Nelson, but is exceptionally favourable to cattle farming, as well as to the growth of European plants, and to the health of the settlers.

CAPIES. The capes are described under their distinctive names.

CARCOAR, a township on the banks of the Belabalu River in N.S.W., 150 miles W. of Sydney. The surrounding district is chiefly agricultural, but there are alluvial gold workings at the Forest and Lumpy Swamps, and auriferous reefs at several other places. Copper is also being profitably worked at some places in the vicinity.

CAREY, MAJOR-GEN. GEO. JACKSON (1823—1872) entered the army in 1845, and served with distinction in the Cape Mounted Rifles in 1846, 1847, 1850, and 1852, for which he obtained a medal. He was military secretary to Sir James Jackson when commanding the forces at the Cape, and Acting Lieutenant-Governor of the Isle of Wight in 1862. From August 1863 to August

1865 he served in N.Z. as Colonel on the Staff and Brigadier-General. He distinguished himself at the taking of Orakais, one of the few brilliant events of the war. For this he was made a C.B. On May 27th 1867 the Maori chief and king-maker William Thompson surrendered to him. In August 1867 he was appointed to the command of the forces in Australia, and left N.Z. for Melbourne. On the departure of Sir Charles Darling he became Acting-Governor, which office he held from 7th May to 15th August 1866. He returned to England in 1867, and was appointed to the command of the 2nd brigade at Aldershot, which he retained until 1871, when he was promoted to the command of the northern district of England. He died at Manchester, 12th June 1872.

CARNOT BAY, in W.A., to the northward of Point Coulomb. It was named after the celebrated French consul and engineer. The sand banks and breakers completely fortify its shores, and effectually forbid all approach.

CARPENTARIA, GULF OF, the broad and deep indentation on the northern coast of the Continent, between Cape York and Cape Wessel, the northernmost point of the Wessel islands and Cape Arnheim of the mainland. This immense gulf extends inland 650 miles, with a breadth of 400 miles. It was discovered in 1628 by Carpenter. The land on the E. and S. of the gulf is so low, that for a space of 600 miles from Endeavour Straits to a range of hills on the mainland, W. of Wellesley's islands, at the bottom of the gulf, no part of the coast is higher than a ship's mast-head. The western shore is rather higher, and from Limmen Bight to the lat. of Groote Eylandt, it is lined by a range of low hills. Out of twenty-six inlets discovered by Stokes, two proved to be rivers. The principal islands in the Gulf of Carpentaria are Groote Eylandt, Bickerton Island, Woodah, Sir Edward Pellews, Vanderlin, and Wellesley's Islands, Mornington, Pisonia, Bountiful, Bentinck, Sweers, Maria, Chasm, Wedge, and Melville. The rivers which flow into the gulf are the Batavia, Vereenidge, Nassau, Staten, Van Diemen, Flinders, Disaster, Albert, Van Alphen, Abel Tasman, Roper, Wickham, Limmen Bight, Red Kangaroo, Macarthur, Cycar, Robinson's Creek, Seven Emu River, Calvert, Turner Creek, Marlow River, Smith, Moonlight Creeks, Nicholson River, Gilbert, Carol, and Beames Creek.

CARPENTER, PETER, Dutch navigator, explored and named the Gulf of Carpentaria in 1628. In reference to this voyage, President De Broses, in his "History of Navigation," says:—"In this year Carpentaria received its name from one Carpenter, a Dutchman, and Governor of the Indian Company. He discovered it during his government, and returned with five ships very richly laden to Europe in June, 1628." It would seem that this whole coast has been carefully examined by the Dutch, as in Thevenot's Dutch charts we have the names, in that language, of a great many bays, capes and watering places

along it. At last, in the year 1664, this vast region received the name of New Holland.

CARSTENS, JAN, Dutch navigator, was despatched from Amboyna in January 1623 with the yachts *Pera* and *Arnheim*, by Governor Jan Pieter Coen, to explore the Great South Land. Carstens, with eight of the *Arnheim's* crew, was treacherously murdered by the natives of New Guinea; but the vessels prosecuted the voyage, and discovered the "great islands Arnheim and the Spult."

CASEY, JAMES JOSEPH, (1831—) came to Melbourne in 1855, and joined the proprietary of the *Bendigo Advertiser*. He took a prominent part in the municipal affairs of Sandhurst, and in 1861 was elected to Parliament for that borough, but unseated on petition. In 1863 he was elected for Mandurang, and continuously represented that constituency till 1879. In 1868 he was appointed Minister of Justice, and in 1869 Solicitor-General. In 1870 he was Chairman of a Royal Commission on Intercolonial Legislation and a Court of Appeal. In 1872 he became President of the Board of Land and Works. In 1878 he was appointed Executive Commissioner for Victoria at the Paris Exhibition, and received the honour of C.M.G. As Minister for Lands he re-organised the department, and constituted the survey branch on its present effective basis. He checked the system of "dummyism" by instituting land inquiries at various places, and by the subsequent forfeiture of the pastoral runs of those whose complicity with the system had been proved. Casey is the author of a legal work entitled the *Justice's Manual*.

CASTLEMAINE, a township in V., seventy-seven and a-half miles N.N.W. of Melbourne, and a principal station on the railway to Echuca. It is also connected with a branch line to Maryborough, and by that route with Ballarat and the western districts. The town is pleasantly situated, the streets are well laid out and planted with trees, and the buildings, both public and private, are such as befit a town of considerable magnitude. It is lighted with gas, and supplied with water from the Malmesbury and Expedition Pass reservoirs. Its population is about 7500 persons. The diggings in the neighbourhood were once very numerous, and were among the first discovered in Australia. The extent of auriferous ground is estimated at 166 square miles, with 403 auriferous quartz reefs. Vine-growing is carried on in the neighbourhood, but it is on the mining capabilities and agricultural resources of the district that its prosperity depends. Copper, galena, iron, and other minerals have been found, but it is doubtful whether they would pay for working.

CASTLEREAGH BAY, on northern coast of the continent, between Cape Stewart and Point Dale, was discovered by King in 1817, and named after Lord Castlereagh, then Prime Minister of England.

CASTLEREAGH RIVER, in N.S.W., discovered by Oxley in 1818, and named from the same Minister.

CATASTROPHE, CAPE, is the W. point of entrance to Spencer's Gulf, S.A. Its S. extremity is clifly and has a round, smooth summit, clothed with vegetation, whence it trends N.E. by E. three miles, and forms two sandy bights, separated by projecting cliffs. Behind the shore the land rises to a rocky range of considerable elevation, with a few trees but no fresh water. At the E. foot of the range is Memory cove, and still further N., Shag cove. It lies forty-eight miles E. of Cape Spencer. This cape was so called from the melancholy loss of Mr. Thistle and a boat's crew of Flinders' ship the *Investigator*.

CAYLEY'S REPULSE, a huge pile of stones in the Blue Mountains, N.S.W., forty-nine miles W. from Sydney, marking the spot at which Cayley, in 1803, was baffled by finding a vast precipice.

CENTRAL MOUNT STUART. On 22nd April 1860 Stuart found, from his observations of the sun, that he was encamped in the very centre of the continent. On a high mount, two miles to the northward, he planted the British flag, and named the spot Central Mount Stuart.

CHAMBERS RIVER, in N.A., discovered by Stuart in 1862, and named after his friend Chambers of Adelaide, who liberally assisted him in his first expedition.

CHAMPION BAY, in W.A., discovered and named after his ship by Lieut. Helpman in 1846. It was settled in 1850, and is the outport for the mineral district.

CHANNEL, ARMSTRONG'S, the passage to the S. of Cape Barren Island in Bass Strait. Explored by Flinders in 1798, and named after Mr. Armstrong, the master of the supply, who had gone to afford assistance in saving the cargo of the *Sydney Cove*, and was the first to pass through it on his return towards Port Jackson. But Armstrong never arrived there, having in all probability perished at sea with his sloop and crew.

CHAPMAN, HENRY SAMUEL, was called to the English Bar in 1817; in June 1843 was appointed Judge of the Supreme Court in N.Z.; and in March 1852 Colonial Secretary of V.D.L. In November he resigned this office, from a difference of opinion with Governor Denison in reference to the Transportation Question, and went to Melbourne in February 1855, where he practised his profession and became a Member of the Legislative Assembly. In March 1857 he became Attorney-General, and in March 1858 formed a Ministry, which continued in power until October 1859. In 1861 he was elected for Mornington. In 1862-3 he acted as Judge during the absence of Sir Redmond Barry. In 1865 he left V. for N.Z., having again accepted an appointment as Judge of the Supreme Court. He was for some time law lecturer to the Melbourne University, and for many years a contributor to the *Westminster*, *London*, and other Reviews. He also contributed

articles to the seventh edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*, and on subjects of colonial law to the *Law Magazine*. In 1870 he retired on a pension.

CHAPMAN, THOMAS DANIEL, a native of T., was for many years representative of Hobart Town, and became Colonial Treasurer and Postmaster-General in 1866, and again in 1873. He resigned office in 1876.

CHAPPELL ISLANDS, a cluster of rocky islands in Bass Strait, to the N.W. of Cape Barren Island, and S.W. of Flinders or Great Island. They were first seen and named by Bass and Flinders in 1798, who describe them as barren, but in a distant view a slight covering of small herbage on their sloping even surfaces gave them a prepossessing appearance. Mount Chappell, a remarkable smooth round hill, about 600 feet above the sea level, forms their eastern limit.

CHARTERS TOWERS, a mining township in northern Q., about ninety miles from Townsville, and 820 miles N.W. of Brisbane. The Burdekin River is about seven miles distant. The town is situated on the northern spurs of the Towers Mountain, at an elevation of about 1000 feet. It is a large reefing district, discovered in January 1872. The reefs are found to improve at lower depths; the yield averaging $1\frac{1}{2}$ to 2 ounces to the ton. The total yield of gold for 1877 was 87,149 ounces. Several large pyrites works are also in operation.

CHATHAM ISLANDS, a small group in the Pacific, about 450 miles E. of N.Z., a little to the S. of Cook Straits. They consist of three islands, the largest about twenty-five miles long, but of a very irregular semi-circular and branching shape. It is hilly, but not lofty, and is mostly of volcanic rock, and in the northern part are a number of small lakes. There is a luxuriant vegetation of trees and shrubs, with much boggy land, and a good deal of the common N.Z. fern. The plants are generally like those of N.Z., but with many peculiar species and some handsome flowers. There are thirteen species of true land-birds, eight of which are N.Z. species, and five distinct but allied forms. These islands were discovered in 1791 by Captain Broughton, and were named after his ship. He found an indigenous population, a cheerful and happy race, dressed in mats and sealskins. In 1831, a ship conveyed 800 N.Z. natives to the islands, and these rapidly exterminated the aborigines. In 1840 Dieffenbach found only ninety living souls out of a former population of at least 1200. These people were called Morioris. They spoke a dialect allied to the Maori, but exhibited considerable physical differences from the latter race. At present the islands are a mere whaling station, with about 150 inhabitants of a very mixed kind.

CHEEKE, ALFRED (1811—1876) a lineal descendant of the celebrated Sir John Cheke, mentioned by Milton, was called to the English bar in 1835, and came to Sydney in 1837. He was

made a magistrate in 1838, practised as a barrister, and in 1841 was appointed Commissioner of the Court of Claims and Crown Prosecutor; in 1844 Chairman of the Quarter Sessions; and in 1845 Commissioner of the Court of Requests. From 1851 to 1857 he again acted as Chairman of Quarter Sessions, and in 1858 was appointed District Court Judge, which office he filled till June 1865, when he was elevated to the Judicial Bench, which he occupied till his death.

CHILDERS, HUGH CULLING EARDLEY (1827—) came to Melbourne in 1850. He was a member of the Government of V. in 1851, his first appointment being that of Auditor-General. When constitutional government was established in 1855, he was returned for Portland to the first Legislative Assembly, and was Commissioner for Customs in the first-constitutional Ministry, of which Haines was Chief Secretary. He retired from office in 1857, and returned to England as Agent-General. In 1860 he became a member of the House of Commons for Pontefract, and was in 1861 Chairman of the Select Committee on Transportation, and in 1863 a member of the Committee on Penal Servitude, his recommendations with respect to transportation being eventually adopted by the Government. He was appointed a Lord of the Admiralty in 1864, and Financial Secretary to the Treasury in 1865; retiring on the accession of Lord Derby's third administration in 1866. On the Gladstone Administration coming into power in December 1868, Childers was appointed First Lord of the Admiralty, and held the office till compelled to resign it from ill health in 1871. It was during his administration that the terrible disaster of the *Captain* occurred, a son of Childers being amongst the victims. In January 1872 he again became Agent-General for V.; and a third time, in 1879, after the resignation of Sir A. Michie. He was Chancellor of the Duchy of Lancaster from August 1872 till August 1873 in the Gladstone Administration. On the return of Mr. Gladstone to power in 1880, Childers became Secretary of War. He is an F.R.S., and author of pamphlets on Free-trade, Railway Police, and National Education.

CHILDS, MAJOR, was Governor of Norfolk Island, in succession to Maconochie, from 1845 to 1851, and was succeeded by John Price as Superintendent.

CHINESE IMMIGRANTS. The first shipload of Chinese immigrants arrived in N.S.W. in 1848. They were introduced at private cost, but the introduction of this race was much opposed by all classes. In May 1850 a shipload arrived in Brisbane. On the breaking-out of the goldfields in 1851-2, large numbers of Chinese came to Australia, and much alarm was felt in consequence. A poll-tax of £10 per head for each immigrant was imposed by the Legislature of N.S.W. in 1861, and of V. in 1865; but the tax was subsequently repealed, when the flood subsided. Riots between the Chinese and the

European miners occurred at intervals in various places. In 1875 a vast Chinese invasion threatened Q., and a £10 poll-tax was imposed. In spite of it, however, many thousands flowed in, and serious riots for possession of the northern goldfields took place between the two classes. They are a migratory race, never intending to end their days out of their own country. As market-gardeners, fishermen, and domestic servants they are very useful. The Chinese quarter in Little Bourke-street, Melbourne, is quite an institution, and a remarkable feature in city life. Their present numbers on the continent amount probably to about 50,000.

CHINESE IN CARPENTARIA. There is no direct evidence that the Chinese had ever discovered the Australian Continent; but the Chinese trepang fishery on the northern shores, and in the shallow seas between Australia and Java, dates from very remote times; and traces of Chinese intercourse with the aborigines of the northern coasts of the continent are said to be yet perceptible in the Mongolian features occasionally met with in some of the tribes about Cape York and the Gulf of Carpentaria.

CHISHOLM, CAROLINE (1810-1877) Philanthropist, and "The Immigrants' Friend." She was born in the parish of Wootton, Northamptonshire, England. Her father, William Jones, was a man of most philanthropic character, and his daughter inherited his noble qualities. She married, in 1830, Captain Alexander Chisholm of the Indian Army, and went with him to Madras, where she established, with the co-operation of the Governor, an industrial home for soldiers' daughters. In 1839 her husband went on sick leave to Australia, and took his family with him. On returning to India he decided to leave his family in N.S.W. Soon after their arrival, during the crash of insolvency of 1839, some Highland emigrants, who spoke no English and had large families, found difficulty in obtaining employment. A little money lent them by Captain Chisholm to purchase tools, and a little useful advice, set them up as wood-cutters, and they prospered. While assisting his countrymen, having seen the neglected state of the bounty emigrants, he pointed them out to his wife as fit objects for her charitable zeal and energy. By degrees Mrs. Chisholm's rooms were crowded by emigrants seeking advice. But it was the unprotected position of female friendless emigrants that awakened her warmest sympathies. She commenced her work by gathering information and acquiring the confidence of the working classes. Mrs. Chisholm found young women who had emigrated nominally under the care of friends, but really under that of strangers, at the instigation of the bounty agent, without home, some lodged in tents with companions of indifferent character, others wandering friendless through the streets of Sydney. Many of them having been collected in

rural districts knew more of cows and pigs than housework, and if engaged in town soon lost their situations, and were superseded by more accomplished servants from ships which arrived daily. Some of these poor creatures slept in retired nooks in the public gardens and in the rocks, rather than face the contamination of the streets. The total number of respectable females unemployed in Sydney at one time in 1840-1 amounted to six hundred. There were more serious evils attendant on emigration, as then conducted, than the condition of the emigrants on landing. A considerable number of females of notoriously bad character were sent out in the bounty ships for whom bounty was never claimed. The Emigration Board sat in Sydney merely to apportion the bounty; the utmost punishment they could inflict was to stop the passage-money due to the agents. In some ships the emigrants were deprived of their fair share of provisions, insulted by the crew, even by the officers, and otherwise abused. In others unrestrained intercourse took place between the officers and crew and the female passengers. On arrival in harbour, not only were single men allowed to choose housekeepers on board, but notorious procuresses regularly visited the emigrant ships. The captain and surgeon could not know them, and had no power to impede them if they did. There was no government officer on board to superintend the contracts or protect the emigrants; and thus, while women fell into the hands of seducers, there were keen hands who skimmed the cream of the labour from the ship on terms of very sharp practice. All these things oozed out in England among the emigrating classes, and made, long after they were to a great extent remedied, emigration very unpopular; but no one cared, or dared, to take up the obnoxious position of the emigrants' friend in Sydney. Mrs. Chisholm had courage and foresight. She began by appealing to the press and to private individuals on behalf of the destitute girl immigrants. At first she met with much discouragement, and a few civil speeches, but no assistance. The most imperious section of the employer class saw no advantage from the protection of the employed. The officials foresaw more work, some supervision, and no increase of pay. The Roman Catholics, as soon as they found it was to be a universal scheme of practical philanthropy, opposed it vehemently. But she pressed on her plan of a "Home," and when almost defeated was nerved to determination by the sight of a Highland beauty—"poor Flora"—whom she had known a happy, hopeful girl—drunken, despairing, and hastening to commit suicide. Mrs. Chisholm offered to devote her time gratuitously to a "Home of Protection," and to endeavour to procure situations for the emigrant girls, unengaged and out of place, in the country—an offer which was eventually accepted, after she had given an undertaking not to put the government to any expense. On obtaining this concession, she issued a circular stating

her objects, and soliciting subscriptions. The government building appropriated to the Home consisted of a low wooden barrack fourteen feet square. Mrs. Chisholm found it needful, for the protection of the characters of the girls, to sleep on the premises. A store-room seven feet square, without a fireplace, and infested with rats, was cleared out for her accommodation. There she dwelt, eating, drinking and sleeping, dependent on the kindness of a prisoner employed in the adjoining government printing-office for a kettle of hot water for tea, her only luxury; and there she laid the foundation of a system to which thousands owe their happiness in this world and the world to come—saved from temptation to vice, and put on the road to industrious independence. Following the example of great philosophers in every branch of science, Mrs. Chisholm was careful to collect facts, but slow to publish conclusions. If she claimed publicity it was not to propound a complicated theory, but to attack some flagrant abuse. The first party of girls collected within the Home amounted to ninety, whom Mrs. Chisholm protected from covert seduction and other evil influences. The difficulties were great, the annoyances wearying. The girls were many of them ignorant and awkward, others too proud and idle to work; but Mrs. Chisholm never gave them up while there was hope and a good heart. The general public, when they understood the nature of the plans Mrs. Chisholm was engaged upon, responded liberally to her appeal for assistance. But before they gained confidence in her plans the Home became crowded with a number of girls more fit for rough country work than town service. There was no machinery for distributing them, so Mrs. Chisholm determined to avail herself of the information supplied in answers to her circulars, and to send them into the country. The first dray that came to the door was sent away empty; frightened with foolish stories of blacks and bush-rangers, not one girl would go. A second attempt, the first failure having been kept a secret, was successful. Mrs. Chisholm, at her own risk and expense, took a party up the Hunter River district by steamboat. The enterprise was considered so Quixotish by her friends that, as she sat on deck in the centre of her troop of girls, no one of her acquaintance dared to expose himself to the ridicule of owning acquaintance by offering any refreshment. The plan succeeded; the girls were well placed in the families of respectable married people, and committees were induced to undertake the charge of Branch Homes in the interior. The bush journeys were repeated with parties of young women, varying from sixteen to thirty, who were conveyed to various inland towns, where she went from farm to farm, scrutinising the characters of the residents before she trusted them with "her children." The settlers came forward nobly, and supplied provisions, horses, and drays; the inns universally refused payment for Mrs. Chisholm's personal accommodation; and the coaches carried

her sick women and children free. William Bradley, a native, and member of the Legislative Council, gave an unlimited credit to draw for anything for the use of the emigrants—of which she was not obliged to avail herself, so liberally did the colonists of the interior come forward. Her own expenses for seven years amounted only to £1 18s. 6d. Very soon the fathers, brothers, sons, and husbands claimed the same care, and asked to be permitted to form part of her parties. Her journeys became longer and her armies larger: 147 souls left Sydney, which increased on the road to 240, in one party, in drays and on foot, Mrs. Chisholm leading the way on horseback. She established a registry office for servants, where names could be inscribed and agreements effected on fair terms gratuitously; she drew up and printed a *fair* agreement, of which the master took one, the servant one, and one was filed. The result of this registration was to extinguish litigation as far as regards servants engaged at the Home. Out of many thousands only two were litigated. For the first time the emigrants found a real friend. The abuse of power by captains, and the immorality of the inferior officers were checked by a prosecution which she compelled the Governor to institute against parties who had driven a girl mad by their violence. When Sir George Gipps, hesitating, said: "A Government prosecution is a very serious matter," she answered: "I am ready to prosecute; I have the necessary evidence; and if it be a risk whether I or these men shall go to prison, I am ready to stand the risk." That trial established a precedent and checked the abuse. By the end of 1842 Mrs. Chisholm had succeeded in placing comfortably two thousand emigrants of both sexes, and then, when slowly recovering from the effects of a serious illness brought on by her exertions, she published a very remarkable report of her proceedings. Her report produced a great effect. A considerable reform was introduced. Government protection was granted to friendless young women; an agent was appointed to superintend and witness the agreements with men on board ship; and the colonial press, when furnished with the materials, did good service to emigration reform. The whole cost to government of the guarding and distribution of the emigrants was little more than £100. The other expenses were borne by Mrs. Chisholm and the friends whom her clear-sighted policy had made among persons of all parties. In 1843, before a committee of the Legislative Council, appointed to consider the condition of the distressed labourers, and especially of three hundred large families whom, in the depressed condition of the colony, the settlers could not afford to engage, Mrs. Chisholm took another step forward. She proposed a plan which, at trifling expense, would have placed these families in a self-supporting position on land, instead of continuing to receive three shillings a day for nominal labour on government works. Sir George Gipps' instructions precluded him from

granting or *leasing* crown land for this valuable purpose. Nevertheless, on private property, on clearing leases, Mrs. Chisholm succeeded in placing some families of mechanics. Not being able to induce the Governor to go heartily into her land-colonising plans, Mrs. Chisholm continued to employ herself in dispersing the people through the interior. She worked hard for six years, warmly supported by some of the first among the colonists, and by the unanimous confidence of the working classes, but subject to much obstruction in official quarters. Sir George Gipps took a public opportunity of expressing his sense of the merit and utility of her plans—saying, "I think it right to make this public acknowledgment, having formerly thrown cold water upon them." In 1845 Captain Chisholm rejoined his family, and gave her the benefit of his hearty co-operation, and in 1846 the family left the colony for England. Before her departure, Mrs. Chisholm was presented with a public testimonial, and a purse of 150 guineas, which sum she devoted to her philanthropic schemes. During the six years and eight months which she spent in Australia, Mrs. Chisholm, without wealth or rank, or any support except what her earnest philanthropy gradually acquired, provided for eleven thousand souls. On returning to England she brought with her many important commissions from colonists to inquire for relatives and to assist them in emigrating. There she passed seven years actively employed in her good work, and amongst other plans she founded the "Family Colonisation Society," by which passage money was collected by weekly instalments, and she lectured throughout England in favour of emigration. Improved accommodation for females was by her efforts provided on board emigrant vessels. In 1854 she again visited Australia, but returned in a few years to England, where she died, 29th March 1877. To the last her philanthropic labours were unremitted. She was granted a pension from the Civil List for her eminent services. Mrs. Chisholm left a large family of sons and daughters.

CHRISTCHURCH, the capital of the Province of Canterbury, N.Z., is situated on the river Avon. It is distant from Lyttelton, the port, about eight miles, and is connected with it by a railway, tunnelled at great expense through the Lyttelton hills. It is advantageously situated on a large plain, and possesses numerous fine buildings. Christchurch has the advantage of having one of the finest and most equable climates in N.Z. It is encircled by high hills, and is the most "English" looking town in Australasia. It has wide, well-made streets; the main street is over half a mile in length, and from any portion of it green fields and willow and gorse hedges can be reached in two minutes. The Avon is a beautiful clear stream, abounding in whitebait, and overgrown with watercress. The district is particularly suitable for grain-growing and grazing purposes. The population of the city is about 25,000.

CHURCHILL ISLAND, in Westernport Bay, V., was discovered by Grant in 1801, and named after his friend, John Churchill of Dawlish, in Devonshire, England. Churchill was a public-spirited man, who supplied Grant with a variety of seeds of useful fruits and vegetables, enjoining him to plant them for the benefit of his fellow-men, whether civilised or savage; and Grant followed his generous counsel at this island.

CHUTE, SIR TREVOR, Commander of the British Forces in Australia, administered the Government of N.S.W. from the departure of Governor Young to the arrival of the Earl of Belmore, 24th December 1867, to 7th January 1868.

CIRCULAR HEAD, in T., discovered and named by Bass and Flinders in 1798, is almost the northernmost point of the island, and the most singular and striking object on the whole north coast. Joined to the mainland by a narrow low isthmus, its curious isolated rocky citadel is, except in that one spot, wholly surrounded by the ocean. It is 500 feet in height, with an area of eighty acres on the summit, the cliffs in many places nearly perpendicular, and in all very steep. In 1825 a grant of 250,000 acres passed the Home Government to the V.D.L. Company; and in 1826 their first settlement was formed under Edward Curr, at Circular Head. One of the persons in the service of this company was Jorgen Jorgenson. Circular Head was formerly a favourite resort of the aboriginal tribes. It was, and continues to be, the capital of the settlement made by the V.D.L. Company, whose agent resides here, and who, from the importance of his position as the company's representative, was in early days called the Governor of the North. Although this magnificent establishment failed in a pecuniary point of view, it laid the foundation of an important settlement, whose exports have varied of late years from £15,000 to £30,000 per annum. It was at Stanley, the township, that the unfortunate Hellyer, the most successful and accomplished of the early explorers of the north-west of T., terminated his existence by his own hand, his mind having given way during a lengthened period of compulsory inaction and annoyance. Stanley is situated on a flat lying E. of the cliff, facing a safe and commodious bay. Its population is about 500, and its distance from Launceston 142 miles N.W. The export trade is in farming produce, and the Circular Head potatoes are famed for their excellent quality.

CLAREMONT ISLES, five small islets on the N.E. coast of the continent, a little to the N. of Princess Charlotte's Bay. They are of coral formation, and are covered with small brushwood. They were discovered and named by King after the residence of the Princess Charlotte of England, in 1821.

CLARENCE RIVER, in N.S.W., 380 miles N. of Sydney. It is navigable for vessels for upwards

of eighty miles, rises in the dividing range near Benlomond, flows through the district of Clarence, and empties itself into the Pacific Ocean near Shoal Bay. This river was discovered by Captain Rouse, in H.M.S. *Rainbow*, in 1828, and named after the Duke of Clarence, afterwards King William the Fourth. Captain Barkus, in H.M. schooner *Alligator*, whilst in search of a supposed wreck, discovered a river of some magnitude south of the Tweed, supposed to be the Clarence or the Richmond of Captain Rouse, on 5th September 1827. Rouse discovered two large rivers to the northward of Sydney, where there is a firm and safe anchorage. He proceeded a considerable distance up both rivers, and reported the country to be well wooded, the climate salubrious, and the soil apparently of the richest description. One of these he named the Clarence, the other the Richmond. Both rivers lie between Sydney and Moreton Bay, in the usual track of vessels trading to Sydney, which makes it remarkable that they were not previously discovered. There is a large extent of agricultural land on the banks of the Clarence. The township is Grafton.

CLARENCE STRAITS, on the northern coast of the continent, lying to the westward of Van Diemen Gulf and dividing Melville Island from the mainland, was explored by King in 1819, and named by him after the Duke of Clarence.

CLARKE (—.) A vessel called the *Sydney Cove*, on its way to Port Jackson, was wrecked on Furneaux's Island in 1795. A large party headed by Clarke, the supercargo, started in boats, intending to sail along the coasts and obtain help from Sydney. They were thrown ashore by a storm at Cape Howe, and had to begin a dreary walk of three hundred miles through dense and unknown country. Their small store of provisions was soon used, and they could find neither food nor fresh water on their path. Many dropped down, exhausted by fatigue and hunger, and some were murdered by the natives. Only Clarke and one or two others reached Port Jackson; their clothes in tatters, and their bodies almost wasted to bones, and in such a state that when a boat was brought to carry them over the bay to Sydney, they had to be lifted on board like infants. Clarke, on his recovery, was able to give a very useful account of a large tract of land not previously explored.

CLARKE, COL. ANDREW, was Governor of W.A., in succession to Hall, from February 1846, till his death in February 1847.

CLARKE, SIR ANDREW (1824—) is eldest son of Colonel Andrew Clarke K.H., Governor of W.A. He was trained for the profession of the Royal Engineers, and in 1846 accompanied Sir W. Dennison to T. as private secretary, and served in that capacity till 1852. After the separation of V. from N.S.W., Clarke was appointed Surveyor-General and Chief Commissioner of Crown Lands (1853-58.) He was elected member of the first

Legislative Assembly for Emerald Hill, and became a member of the first Haines Ministry. During the session of 1855, he brought in a bill for the establishment of Municipal Institutions, and may be regarded as the founder of Municipal Government in Victoria. Through his exertions the public reserves and National Museum were permanently settled. The first Melbourne Industrial Exhibition owed its existence to him, as also the Gipps Land and Border Railway system. He left Australia in 1862, and resumed his profession in England. He was appointed by the Imperial Government to the office of Inspector-General of Naval and Military Establishments, and in that capacity superintended the construction of many large and costly public works. In 1873 he was appointed Governor of the Straits Settlement; and in 1874 he accepted the office of Member of the Supreme Council of India for Public Works, which office he still holds. He was made C.B. in 1869, and K.C.M.G. in 1873.

CLARKE, REV. WILLIAM BRANTHWAITE (1798—1878) was born at East Bergholt, county of Suffolk, England, on 2nd June 1798. He was educated at Dedham Grammar School and Cambridge, took his degree of B.A. in 1821, and was ordained the same year. At Cambridge he attended the lectures of Professor Sedgwick and Dr. E. Clarke, and thus acquired the foundation of his geological knowledge. In 1819 he wrote a poem on "Pompeii," which competed against Macaulay's prize poem on the same subject, and contributed to different periodicals. These fugitive writings were afterwards collected under the title of *Lays of Leisure*. He made many vacation tours of the Continent and Great Britain in pursuit of geological information. From 1828 to 1833 he published several essays, and contributed to the *Magazine of Natural History*. In 1833 he was presented to a living in Dorsetshire, and in 1837 the Bishop of Salisbury appointed him one of his chaplains. In 1839 he came to Australia, partly for health, and took charge of King's School, Parramatta, and performed clerical duty in that district; afterwards at Campbelltown. In 1846 he entered on the charge of St. Thomas's, Willoughby, near Sydney, where he continued until 1870. His numerous essays on science generally, and particularly the geology of Australia, have been the foundation of much of the local knowledge of the subject. In 1841 he gave abundant testimony from geological and mineralogical data as to the existence of gold in N.S.W.; and in 1844 described the existence of a gold-field in the Bathurst district without personal exploration, and without any knowledge of Strzelecki's previous discovery, on the very spot mentioned privately by the Polish discoverer, five years previously. For the same reasons as those given to Strzelecki, the Governor requested Clarke to keep the matter secret. In 1847, in his comparison of the geology of Russia with that of Australia, he stated that "N.S.W. will probably, on some future day, be found wonderfully rich in

metals," and this prophecy has been fulfilled. Clarke engaged in a controversy with the Victorian geologists respecting the value of the carboniferous formations of N.S.W., and conclusively proved that their assertions as to the value of the coal measures of that colony were incorrect, a fact further confirmed by the Examiner of Coal-fields. For his great services to science, he was elected a Fellow of the Royal Society; and the Legislature voted him a grant of £1000 for his services in connection with the gold discovery. He died on 16th June 1878, at his residence, North Shore, Sydney. Clarke was a man of the highest attainments in science, a fine scholar, a Christian gentleman of the noblest stamp. His public services deserve from the people of N.S.W. a lasting public recognition.

CLARKE, WILLIAM JOHN, a native of T., came to V. in 1850, and engaged in pastoral pursuits, eventually taking charge of his father's extensive business as landowner. In 1870 his father died, bequeathing him the bulk of his vast property. In 1876 he was elected member of the Legislative Council. He is held in very high respect for his large-handed liberality, both public and private. He gave £10,000 towards the Cathedral Fund of the Church of England, £2000 to the Indian Famine Fund, and many equally generous benefactions. He brought to the colony and maintained at his own expense Mr. McIvor, a first-class scientific agriculturalist, whose services are freely given to the promotion of the farming interest throughout the colony. Clarke is President of the Commission for the V. International Exhibition of 1880.

CLAUDE RIVER, in Q., was discovered by Mitchell in 1846, and named by him after the famous Italian painter of quiet pastoral scenery. It is a branch of the Salvator, and tributary of the Nogoa.

CLEVELAND BAY, in Q., commences at a mile and a half to the S. of Cape Cleveland, and extends to the southward for nearly two miles. Over this beach two or three streams of fresh water communicate with the sea; they take their rise from the hills and are seldom dry. The township of Townsville stands on its shores. It was discovered and named by King after the Duke of Cleveland in 1821.

CLEVELAND CAPE rises abruptly from a projection of low land separating the bay from a deep sinuosity, extending under the base of Mount Elliot, a high range with a rounded hill and peak visible at sea from twenty-five leagues distant.

CLIFFTOWN, a mining village in N.S.W., situated about 200 feet above sea level on the steep cliffs overhanging the ocean at the Coal Cliff, in the district of Wollongong, thirty miles S. from Sydney, Stewart and Co. own about 4,000 acres of coal land at this locality. The seam of coal is six feet thick and of excellent quality. A jetty, 500 feet long, runs from the

mouth of the mine into the sea. This is one of the most remarkable undertakings for working a mine to be found in any part of the world. The coal is brought out of the mine, screened on the jetty, and put into steam colliers; it being unsafe for sailing vessels to come so near the bold rocky coast. Owing to the roughness of the beach, and the precipitous nature of the cliffs, the steam boiler, sheds, offices, store-room, blacksmiths' and carpenters' shops necessary for working the mine had all to be built on the jetty. The first shipment of coals was made in January 1878, and up to August the steam colliers made fifty-one trips, carrying upwards of 10,000 tons of coal to Sydney. The site of the village is most picturesque; a view of the ocean for thirty miles all round is obtained. The Coal Cliff rises abruptly from the ocean to a perpendicular height of 1350 feet. Excellent fire clay and a seam of clay band iron ore, forty feet thick, yielding by assays 24 per cent of metallic iron, are found in the coal measures north and south of this locality.

CLONCURRY, a township in Q., on the river of the same name, about 540 miles from Townsville, and 1500 miles N.W. of Brisbane. The locality is described as consisting of four camps, namely—The Cloncurry Copper Mines; Fisher's Creek, where are a stamper machine and several reefs; Bethops, the *locale* of several claims; and the Top Camp, which is noted for its rich alluvial diggings. Copper in large quantities has been found here, and also gold; and the district is rich in tin, and has fine grazing capabilities.

CLUNES, a mining township in V., 120 miles N.W. from Melbourne. Gold was first discovered here in July 1851. The mining is principally quartz reefing. The town lies low, and in the winter time is subject to floods. The town and mines are well supplied with water from the Bullarook forest. The waterworks, which are the most perfect of their kind in the colony, cost £75,000. The Port Phillip Company's claim here has been worked for twenty-one years, during which time 985,165 tons of quartz have been raised, the total yield of gold being 420,226 ounces. Up to 1876, £141,898 17s. 6d. had been paid in dividends. The population of Clunes is about 7000.

CLYDE RIVER, in N.S.W., rises near the mountain called Pigeon-house, and flows into the M'Leay river, at Bateman's Bay. It was discovered and named by Lieutenant Johnston in December 1820, after the Scotch river of the same name. Johnston, in the cutter *Schnapper*, with a party of which Hamilton Hume was one explored the Clyde for thirty miles, and learned from the natives that Captain Stewart and party, who had left Sydney a few months previously to make an examination of the coast of Twofold Bay, had been wrecked, and probably murdered by the natives whilst endeavouring to make their way back overland.

CLYWD, VALE OF, a beautiful valley of the Blue Mountains in N.S.W., watered by Cox's river. It is 796 feet lower than Mount York, and lies at its base. It was named by Governor Macquarie in 1815, from the strong resemblance it bears to the vale of that name in North Wales. It extends six miles E. and W., and is watered by a small stream called the river Lett, on which stands the township of Hartley. The valley is 2300 feet above the level of the sea. Rich and apparently inexhaustible deposits of coal and kerosene shale have been discovered here. The shale is rich in oil, and large quantities are exported for gas-making purposes. It is said to yield 150 gallons of crude oil to the ton, and 18,000 cubic feet of gas. Iron works, copper smelting, and the manufacture of fire-proof bricks, drain pipes and terracotta goods, are leading industries of the locality.

COBURG PENINSULA, the most northerly part of the continent to the west of the Gulf of Carpentaria, runs out in a north-west direction towards Melville Island, from which it is divided by Dundas Strait. On its north-east side lies Port Essington, at the head of which was established in 1839 the settlement of Victoria, abandoned on account of its insalubrity six years afterwards. It was named by King in 1818, after the Ducal House of Coburg in Europe.

COCKBURN MOUNT, on the N.W. coast of the continent, lies at the head of a large inlet of Cambridge Gulf. It was discovered and named by King in 1819, after Admiral Sir George Cockburn.

COCKBURN RIVER, in N.S.W., in the district of Liverpool Plains, is a branch of the river Peel, and empties its waters into this river near Tamworth.

COCKBURN ISLES, are situated off the N.E. coast of Australia, discovered and named by King, in 1819.

COCKBURN SOUND, in W.A., seven miles from Freemantle, is formed by Garden Island and the mainland, and was named by King in 1821.

COCKLE, SIR JAMES, Chief Justice of Q., was educated at Charterhouse School and Cambridge, where he graduated B.A. in 1841. In 1845 he took his M.A. degree. In 1846 he was called to the English Bar. In 1854 he was elected F.R.A.S., and two years afterwards F.C.P.S. In 1862 he was appointed Chief Justice of Queensland, and was knighted in 1869.

COFFIN'S BAY, in S.A., a deep indentation running into the land in a S.E. direction, and lying between a sandy peninsula on the S. and the mainland on the N. It is about nine miles in width, and offers excellent anchorage except in N. and N.E. gales. An indentation near the head of the bay, and running in a N. direction, is known as port Douglas. Point Sir Isaac forms the S. head of Coffin's Bay. This bay, called after Sir Isaac Coffin, who had fitted out Flinders' exploration ship, the *Investigator*, has a moderately high coast, with but little timber, and rocky and barren.

COGOON RIVER, in Q., discovered by Mitchell in 1845, falls into the Balonne at its junction with the Maranoa. It was from Macpherson's station on this river that Leichhardt wrote his last letter, dated 3rd April 1848.

COHEN, EDWARD (1822-1874) came to Sydney in 1833, and in 1842 to Melbourne. In 1853 he returned to Sydney, but returned to V. and was Mayor of Melbourne in 1862-3. He was elected to the Legislative Assembly for East Melbourne in 1861, and was Commissioner of Customs in 1869-70, and again from 1872 to 1873.

COHEN, HENRY EMANUEL (1840—) came to Sydney in 1848. From 1864 to 1868 he was engaged in commercial pursuits, when he proceeded to England to read for the Bar, to which he was called in June 1871. He left London on his return to N.S.W. in the *Rangoon*, which vessel was lost at Galle. In 1874 Cohen was elected member for West Maitland, and was Treasurer in the Farnell Ministry from December 1877 to December 1878.

COLAC, LAKE, in the Western district of V., is the principal of a number of lakes, chiefly salt, in the neighbourhood of the huge Korangamite. The district in which these lakes are situated is beautiful and fertile; the scenery delightful in its variety, and the herbage nutritious and abundant.

COLBORNE RIVER, in N.S.W., flows into the Abercrombie River, about 130 miles from Sydney. It was discovered and named by Mitchell in 1836, after General Sir John Colborne.

COLE, GEORGE WARD (1793-1879) entered the Royal Navy in 1807, where he saw much active service during the wars with Napoleon; being also present at the capture of Washington and at the attack on Baltimore in 1814. He retired on half-pay in 1817. In 1839 he came to Sydney, and purchased land for the construction of a patent slip, but after a visit to England for machinery, resolved on settling in Port Phillip. He bought the schooner *Water Lily*, and in her arrived in Melbourne early in 1840, where he commenced business as a merchant and shipping agent. At the reception given to Sir George Gipps on visiting Port Phillip in October 1841, Cole was chairman of the committee for the public dinner to His Excellency. In 1842 he bought the land on the north bank of the Yarra on which now stands Cole's Wharf. In constructing this great public accommodation, the expenditure outstripped calculation, and Cole became involved in difficulties. A composition with creditors had to be made, but afterwards he was enabled to discharge all his liabilities in full. For a few years he devoted himself to squatting, and was the holder of a station in the Pyrenees district, known as Mount Cole, although this name was given it previously by Sir F. Mitchell. In 1851 he built the steamer *City of Melbourne*, the first screw steamer ever built or seen on this side the equator. She traded between Melbourne

and Launceston, and was finally wrecked on King's Island. In 1863 he introduced sugar-beet into the colony, having procured a supply of seed from Holland, which he distributed freely. Cole was an advocate for the separation of the Port Phillip district from N.S.W., and also an opponent of transportation, subscribing 100 guineas to the funds of the Australasian Anti-Transportation League. Separation having been obtained, Cole became a candidate for the representation of Melbourne in the first Legislative Council at the election in 1851, but was unsuccessful. On Robert Turnbull resigning his seat for Gippsland in 1853, Cole offered himself for the vacancy, and was elected. He assisted in the framing of the Constitution Act, and remained in the Legislative Council until May 1855, when he resigned. Shortly afterwards he paid a visit to Europe, where he remained about two years. On his return in 1879 he was elected to represent the Central Province in the Upper House in succession to John Hood, who had resigned. The following year he was re-elected for a period of ten years without opposition. He was also re-elected in 1870 for a similar period. For some years he was the representative of the McCulloch Government in the Legislative Council, whom he supported strenuously throughout the "Darling deadlock." He was made an Executive Councillor in 1867. His age and venerable appearance made him one of the most conspicuous figures of the Council Chamber. Cole was a strong protectionist, and set forth his views on the question in a pamphlet. He took great interest in the establishment of a Melbourne Harbour Trust and in the defences of Port Phillip; and he was the originator of the design to improve the Yarra by cutting through Fisherman's Bend. He published a pamphlet on the subject, and tendered it in evidence to the Royal Commission of 1873 on the Local Defences, of which he was himself a member.

COLE, MOUNT, a conspicuous mountain in the W. district of V. It was named by Mitchell during his journey into Australia Felix. Under date 23rd September, 1836, he writes:—"They"—the hills he was approaching—"resemble very much some hills in the Lower Pyrenees in Spain, and I named the hill Mount Cole." And again—"A range of grassy hills between the Grampians and the Alps I named the Australian Pyrenees, distinguishing the principal fixed summits by the names of Cole &c."—(Paper communicated to the Royal Geographical Society, and published in its *Journal*, Vol. VII. p. 227.) Mitchell's mind, all through the course of his exploration into Australia Felix, was constantly reverting to Peninsular scenes and to his Peninsular comrades; and extracts from his private journal show that the mountain was named after Sir Galbraith Lowry Cole G.C.B., one of the generals of brigade who fought under Wellington in the Peninsula, and was afterwards Governor, in succession, of the Mauritius and of the Cape of Good Hope.

COLE'S ISLANDS; four small bushy islets, from a quarter to half a mile in extent, on the N.E. coast of Q., lying about five miles N.E. from Point Murdoch, and a little to the south of Cape Melville. They were named by King in 1821, probably after General Sir Lowry Cole.

COLLIER BAY, on the N.W. coast of the continent, between Camden Sound and King's Sound. It is twenty miles wide at its entrance. In this bay the tide rises about thirty-six feet. The cause of this great rise of tide may be attributed to there being no escape for the vast body of water flowing into it. This bay was discovered and named by King in 1820.

COLLINS, COLONEL DAVID, (1754-1810) first Governor of V.D.L., from 19th February 1804 to 24th March 1810, was, next to Phillip, the most prominent and talented man connected with the foundation and early history of the British communities in Australasia. He was the son of General Arthur Tooker Collins, and grandson of Arthur Collins, author of a well-known work on the Peerage of England. He was born at Exeter in England, and entered the navy at an early age. In 1770 he was appointed Lieutenant of Marines. In 1772 he was engaged with Admiral M'Bride in rescuing Matilda, Queen of Denmark, sister of George III. In 1775 he greatly distinguished himself in the revolutionary war in America, especially at the battle of Bunker's Hill. In 1784 he took part, as Captain of Marines in the *Courageux* of seventy-four guns, in the relief of Gibraltar. When the British Government resolved on founding a colony in Australia, Collins was appointed Judge-Advocate, to preside in the military court for the administration of justice. Governor Phillip also appointed him his secretary. It was the lot of Collins to proclaim the dominion of Great Britain at the inauguration of Phillip, and thus to announce the beginning of a new empire in the south. For ten years he ably sustained the Governor, and fulfilled faithfully his duties, sharing all the privations of the colonists in those early days. He returned to England in 1797, and published there the first History of the new settlement. The work was received with great favour by the English reviewers. But Collins had the mortification of finding, on his return to England, that his ten years of arduous service in the colony were rewarded with merely the brevet rank of lieutenant-colonel, while his remuneration was confined to the pittance of a half-pay captain; the time spent in the colony not being allowed to count. This injustice, for which he was never able to obtain effectual redress, wrung from him some complaint at the close of his *History*. The attention thus drawn to his case induced the Government to offer him the Governorship of the projected settlement at Port Phillip. He accepted the offer, and two ships—the *Calcutta* man-of-war and the *Ocean* transport—were placed under his command with the necessary provisions,

tools, and stores to last for three years. On board the former were 300 prisoners, about 50 marines, a few free settlers, with 25 women, 10 children, and the proper complement of officers. The *Ocean* arrived at Port Phillip on the first week of October 1803, and the *Calcutta* on the 10th of the same month. Soon after the discovery by Captain Murray of the magnificent bay on whose shores it was intended to found the settlement, and the visit of Flinders, Port Phillip was examined and reported on by Charles Grimes, Surveyor-General of N.S.W. His report was not favourable, and it is not quite clear why this site was chosen for the settlement. The exact spot where Collins landed his party lies near the present village of Sorrento. Collins wrote his first despatch from Sullivan's Bay, a name he transferred to his first anchorage in T., bestowed in honour of John Sullivan, Under-Secretary for the Colonies. Shortly after landing, however, Collins and those under his charge became dissatisfied with the place and their prospects. The situation on which the encampment was formed was badly chosen, water was scarce, and the natives were numerous and turbulent. Collins at once represented to Governor King, in Sydney, the desirability of removing the settlement to V.D.L., and having gained permission to do so, operations to effect that object were shortly afterwards commenced; the *Ocean* transport being employed for their removal to their new destination. The spot to which it was determined to remove was Sullivan's Bay, opposite Risdon Cove at the Derwent, chosen by Lieutenant Bowen as the place on which the people removed from Norfolk Island were to form their new settlement, and now the site of Hobart Town. The first part of the expedition sailed on 30th January 1804, and the remainder followed in June. The historian of the expedition, Lieutenant Tuckey, notes the departure in these words:—"The kangaroo seems to reign undisturbed lord of the soil; a dominion which, by the evacuation of Port Phillip, he is likely to retain for ages." On board the *Ocean* was John Pascoe Fawcner, then a boy of eleven years old. While Collins was camped in Port Phillip, several prisoners made their escape, and amongst them was Buckley. Most of them perished in the bush. Amongst the officers under Collins' command were the Rev. R. Knopwood, chaplain; E. Bromley, surgeon-superintendent; W. Anson, colonial surgeon; M. Boden and W. Hopley, assistant surgeons; P. H. Humphrey, mineralogist; Lieutenant Fosbrook, deputy commissary-general; G. P. Harris, deputy surveyor; John Clarke and William Patterson, superintendents of prisoners. The military consisted of forty-four marines, under Lieutenants Sladen, Johnson, and Lord, having in their charge 367 male prisoners. In addition to the party from Sydney, under command of Lieutenant Bowen, which Collins found at Risdon Cove, a number of prisoners were soon afterwards sent from Sydney. These consisted for the most part of persons who had been transported

for their share in the Irish rebellion, and who were connected with the outbreak at Castlehill in N.S.W. To these were added some of the Norfolk Island settlers, whose removal commenced a few months subsequently. Houses were quickly erected; posts stuck in the ground, interwoven with wattle twigs, and daubed over with mud, formed the walls; a few stones with turf, rudely built together, formed the chimneys; and roofs of grass completed the structures. In honour of Lord Hobart, Secretary of State, the settlement was named Hobart Town. Collins continued Governor for six years, during which period the settlement progressed from a condition of struggling poverty into comparative affluence. The records of the early days of Tasmanian colonisation resemble in their general features those of N.S.W. Frequently recurring scarcities of food, hardships, privations, crimes, and conflicts with the natives, make up the staple of both narratives. The settlement formed by Colonel Patterson at York Town, on the Tamar, underwent as full a share of difficulties and disasters as the larger settlement on the Derwent. For several years both had to make desperate struggles for existence. Sometimes there was no beef, sometimes no flour. Kangaroos were purchased at eightpence a pound, and flour, when it could be had at all, was often more than £100 sterling a ton, and at one time as much as £200, and wheat £4 a bushel. Very few official documents relative to the early days of the settlement are now in existence; and it is asserted that on the night of Governor Collins' death all his official papers were burnt. For 1809 the only record now in the archives of the colony is the garrison order-book. Collins died on the 24th March 1810, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, having held the administration six years and thirty-six days. His death was sudden; except a slight cold, there was little warning of it. He died while sitting in his chair and conversing with his attendant. His funeral was celebrated with all the pomp the colony could command, 600 persons being present. The share he accepted in the responsibility of the deposition of Bligh disturbed his tranquillity, and it was thought hastened his end. Collins was buried in the churchyard of St. David's, Hobart Town. To provide a temporary place for public worship, a small wooden church was erected on the spot, and its altar was reared over his grave. This building was afterwards blown down in a tempest, and its materials being carried off, left the resting place of Collins exposed to the careless tread of the stranger. Sir John Franklin erected a monument bearing an inscription, commemorating him as the first governor of the settlement and the founder of Hobart Town. Collins was a man of humane disposition, and was beloved by everybody. Holt, the Irish rebel, bears testimony to his many estimable qualities. He was also possessed of great governing abilities, earnest and upright. His name stands on the roll of the heroes of Australasian history.

COMET RIVER, in Q., discovered by Leichhardt on 29th December 1844, and so named from his having seen the comet whilst travelling along its banks. There is a township on its banks which lies 140 W. of Rockhampton, and on the line of the Northern Railway.

CONCORD LAND, (OR LAND OF EENDRACHT) comprises all that portion of the W. coast of the continent lying between the Tropic of Capricorn and the parallel of 28° S. It was discovered in 1616 by Dirk Hatichs, and named from the ship in which he sailed.

CONDAMINE RIVER, in Q., in the district of Darling Downs, a branch of the river Darling. It was explored by the Russels in 1841-2.

CONOLLY, PHILLIP, the first R.C. clergyman established in V.D.L., came to Australia in 1820, and was stationed for a few months in Parramatta. He landed in V.D.L. in March 1821, and held his first services in Curr's stores, Bathurst-street, Hobart Town. A piece of land in Harrington-street being granted by the Crown, he erected a humble chapel and dwelling-house, "which he ascribed," says West, "partly to charity and partly the penance of his flock. Less polished than his Protestant friend, Knopwood, he was not less genial in his temper; the pastor of a people chiefly drawn from the Irish peasantry, he well understood their character." While in N.S.W. in 1820 Conolly presided at a meeting held in the Court-house, Sydney, for the purpose of devising measures for the erection of a suitable R.C. Church. At that meeting the Cathedral of St. Mary's was projected. He died in V.D.L. in 1839.

CONWAY, CAPE, on the N.E. coast of the Continent, is the western limit of the S. entrance of Whit-Sunday passage, and is a steep point sloping off the eastward. It was discovered and named by Cook, after General Conway.

"**COOEY**," with the rising inflection on the second syllable, is the call universally used by the aborigines of Australia. It can be heard to a much greater distance than any call made by Europeans; and the repetition of the "Cooey" from a distant part of the forest establishes a communication between two parties at once. A young lady from N.S.W. once successfully used it in the streets of London to regain her party, from whom she had been accidentally separated.

COOK, JAMES (1728-1779) the Prince of English navigators, and founder of the British dominion in Australasia. It is not needful to give in these pages a complete biography of this illustrious man. "Cook's Life and Voyages" ought to be as familiar a book as the Bible to every Australian boy. Every incident in his career, from his birth in an obscure village in Yorkshire to his death in Owhyhee, should be stamped on the memory in youth, and held in grateful and loving recollection through life. What George Washington is to the young American, that should James Cook

be to the young Australian,—a sacred name associated with his proudest feelings of national greatness and personal freedom. An outline narrative of Cook's discoveries in Australia, mainly designed to fix names and dates, will be sufficient for the purposes of this *Cyclopædia*. Chosen by the British Government in 1768 to conduct the expedition to the South Seas, with the object of observing the transit of Venus, Cook—with a prescient eye to discovery—selected an old collier vessel, the *Endeavour*, of 370 tons burden, as being the most suitable for his purpose. She was victualled for an eighteen months voyage, and had an ample store of arms and ammunition on board. His officers were Zachary Hicks, John Gore, Robert Molineaux, Charles Clerke, John Gathray, Stephen Forward, John Satterley, William B. Munkhouse, Richard Orton. The scientific staff consisted of Charles Green, Dr. Solander, with two draughtsmen. Sir Joseph Banks also joined the expedition at his own charges. The expedition sailed from Plymouth Sound on 26th August 1768, reached Tahiti on 10th April 1769, left that island on 13th July, and on 6th October sighted N.Z. Cook's graphic account of his first adventures here cannot be abridged. On the 8th Cook landed at, and three days after left, the unfortunate and inhospitable place to which he gave the name of Poverty Bay. It is now the site of a prosperous and flourishing European settlement. Sailing south Cook sighted and named Table Cape, Portland Island, Cape Kidnappers, Hawke's Bay, and Cape Turnagain. Changing his course, he passed Poverty Bay, sighted and named Gable-End Foreland, Tolago Bay, East Cape and Island, Hicks Bay, and Cape Runaway. On 1st November he anchored in Mercury Bay; on the 26th he passed and named Cape Brett; on the 29th he anchored in the Bay of Islands, and stayed there till 6th December. On the 9th he passed and named Doubtless Bay; on 17th doubled the North Cape; on 24th sighted the Three Kings Island; and on the 30th Cape Maria Van Diemen. On the 10th January 1770, he sighted and named Mount Egmont; and on 15th anchored in Queen Charlotte's Sound. Here he landed, and took formal possession of N.Z. in the name of King George III. On 6th February he left the Sound and sailed through COOK STRAITS. He named the two eastern capes Palliser and Campbell. On the 9th he again sighted Cape Turnagain, and thus completed the circumnavigation of the northern island. Turning southward, he reached Cape South on 9th March, and on the 26th arrived at the Sound, thus completing the circumnavigation of N.Z. On 31st March he took his departure from Cape Farewell, and at six in the morning of 18th April Cook sighted the continent at a point named Point Hicks, to the west of Cape Howe. Rounding the Cape (which he named) he passed Cape George, Long Nose, and Red Point, and on the 28th landed in Botany Bay. On 6th May he discovered and named Port Jackson. Four subsequent landings

were effected on the eastern coast of the continent. On 22nd May in Bustard Bay; on the 30th in Thirsty Sound; on 18th June at the Endeavour river; and on 21st August, after rounding and naming Cape York, he landed at Possession Island, near Cape York, and ascending a hill whence he had a clear view over forty miles, he perceived that there was an open passage to the Indian seas. Cook then addressed the following words to his companions:—"As I am now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland, which I have coasted from latitude 38 degrees to this place, and which I am confident no European has ever seen before, I once more hoist English colours; and though I have already taken possession of several parts, I now take possession of the whole of the eastern coast, by the name of New South Wales (from its great similarity to that part of the principality,) in the right of my sovereign, George the Third, king of Great Britain." His men then fired three volleys of firearms, which were answered by the same number from the guns of the ship, and by three cheers from the sailors in the main shrouds. Thus was founded the province which has since grown into the three great and flourishing colonies of New South Wales, Victoria, and Queensland. The prominent points along the coast were named in this voyage. At Cape Tribulation the *Endeavour* narrowly escaped shipwreck from striking on a coral reef. On 23rd August 1770 Cook left the coast of Australia, arriving in England on 12th July 1771. During the voyage the following officers died—Munkhouse, surgeon; Gathray, boatswain; Satterley, carpenter; Molineux, master; Hicks, lieutenant. A second expedition, designed to determine the facts relating to the supposed Great Southern Continent, was fitted out in 1772. Two ships, the *Resolution* and the *Adventure*, were placed under the command of Cook, with Furneaux as second. The expedition sailed on 13th July, and on 17th December crossed the Antarctic circle. The search for the great continent was here abandoned, and Cook turned his course towards N.Z. On 8th February 1773 the two vessels lost sight of each other in hazy weather, and Cook steered for Queen Charlotte Sound. On 25th March he came to anchor in Dusky Bay; on 28th removed to Pickersgill Harbour; and on 18th May reached the Sound, where he found the *Adventure* awaiting him. Sailing again on 7th June he explored the Southern Ocean as far as the Society Islands; and on 3rd November returned to N.Z., having again lost sight of the *Adventure*. Cook left N.Z. on 26th November; discovered and named New Caledonia on 5th September 1774; Norfolk Island on 10th October; and on the 18th anchored for the third time in the Sound. He left N.Z. on 10th November, doubled the Cape of Good Hope on 19th March 1775, and on 30th July reached England after an absence of three years and eighteen days. A third expedition was fitted out in 1776. The *Resolution* was again placed under Cook's command, with the *Discovery*,

Captain Clarke, as its companion. On 12th July the *Resolution* sailed, and the *Discovery* a few days afterwards, both vessels meeting at the Cape of Good Hope on 10th November. On 24th January 1777 the expedition reached V.D.L. and anchored in Adventure Bay, which they left on the 30th, and on 12th February were in Queen Charlotte's Sound. Cook took his final leave of Australasia on the 25th, and sailed for the Society Islands. Here ends the story of Cook's connection with the splendid dominion he gave to Great Britain. He perished in the very noon of life and of his services to the world. He was great in everything he undertook. Amongst the benefactors of mankind, he holds all but the very highest rank. The lapse of time will but extend his fame and deepen the affection of all Australasians for his memory. All Europe mourned the death of the great navigator, and distinguished honours were rendered to his name alike by foreigners and his own countrymen. A medal to commemorate his services was struck by the Royal Society of London. His widow and children were pensioned by the King. Monuments to his memory were erected in his native village and other places. The family monument is in the Church of St. Andrew the Great, Cambridge, England. A memorial cross, erected by the officers of the British warship *Blonde*, marks the spot where Cook was murdered in Owhyhee. Captain Watson of Sydney erected a monument to his memory in the garden of his residence near Sydney. On the 25th February 1879, the ceremony of unveiling the magnificent national statue erected to Cook, in Hyde Park at Sydney, was performed by Governor Robinson, with much splendour, in the presence of a vast assemblage of spectators. The foundation stone of the statue was laid by Prince Alfred on 27th March 1868. Its cost was £4000.

COOK STRAIT, separating the north and middle island of N.Z., was discovered by Cook in 1770. The proof of its existence dissipated the belief that N.Z. was merely a salient point of a great southern continent.

COOKTOWN, a township in Q., on the southern bank of the Endeavour River, about 1050 miles N.W. of Brisbane. The entrance to the river is about 800 yards wide, it lies between Grassy Hill on the south side and a low sandy point on the north, and is easy of access, Mount Cook being a prominent landmark. In 1770 Cook beached his vessel, the *Endeavour*, in the river for repairs.

COOPER, SIR CHARLES (1795—) was called to the English bar in 1827, and went on the Oxford Circuit until 1838, when he was appointed Judge of South Australia. He landed in Adelaide in March 1839 and was sole judge until 1849, when he was appointed Chief Justice. In 1858 he was knighted. In 1862 he resigned on account of ill health, received a pension, and returned to England.

COOPER, SIR DANIEL (1821—) came to N.S.W. early in life, but went to England in 1835 to study at the London University, where he remained four years. In 1843 he returned to Sydney, and joined the firm of Holt and Cooper, which in 1852 became D. Cooper and Co. In 1850 he entered into politics. During the Crimean war, he exerted himself in raising subscriptions for the relief of the widows and orphans of the soldiers who fell in battle, towards which he gave £1000 and £500 per annum during the continuance of the war. He was Speaker of the Legislative Assembly from May 1856 to August 1859. In 1857 he was knighted, and in 1863 was made a baronet for the part which he took in promoting the Lancashire Relief Fund. He has visited England several times, and during his residence there exerted himself to put the warehousing and sale of wool on more equitable terms.

COOPER'S CREEK, a fine stream of fresh water in the interior of the continent, perhaps the most important in the history of Australian exploration. The main stream is known as the "diamond of the desert." It forms two branches, one flowing S.W. and called the Strzelecki Creek; and the other flowing N.W. and retaining the name of Cooper's Creek. This creek was discovered by Sturt in October 1845, and was named by him after Sir Charles Cooper, Chief-Justice of S.A. Its native name is the Barcoo. Mitchell called it the Victoria River, and it was also proposed to call it the Cooper's River and the Gregory. Sturt's name is the one most used, although the creek is a river in some places two miles wide. Sturt describes it as a splendid creek containing fine reaches of water, covered with aquatic birds and its pools stocked with fish. The grass was beautiful round it, and the banks were lined with fine gum trees. Kennedy supposed this river to be identical with the Thompson or Victoria River, a fact proved by Landsborough in 1862. The chief interest attached to this stream, however, centres in its connection with the Burke and Wills expedition. A *dépôt* or *cache* was established on the creek at fort White, and a *dépôt* party instructed to wait there with provisions until the return of the exploring party; but on the arrival of the survivors—Burke, Wills and King—on 20th April 1861, Gray having died at some distance up the creek on the 16th,—they found that the camp had been deserted that very morning by Brahe and Wright's *dépôt* party. This lamentable error caused the deaths of Burke and Wills, who perished in the wilderness, King being found afterwards by Howitt's party living with the blacks near the bank of the creek. Warburton traced from its mouth in lake Eyre a fine river, which he was convinced was the Barcoo, although he could not reach the part of it known as Cooper's Creek. He found on his course a large fresh water lake, many good creeks, and large tracts of excellent well-watered country. He describes the banks of this river as boggy, with deep ravines, and covered with tangled masses

of polygonum and dense forests of gigantic marsh-mallows and heavy timber, and the natives as rank cannibals. Cooper's Creek, or the Barcoo River, probably finds a final receptacle for its waters in the basin of lake Eyre.

COORONG LAKE, in S.A., an arm or inlet of the sea, having its opening in the S.E. part of lake Alexandrina, not far from the Murray mouth, and running parallel with the coast in a S.E. direction for about twenty-five miles, in a narrow sheet, whose greatest width is only about two miles. There is only a narrow strip of sand-hills lying between this singular lake and the sea for the entire distance. Woods supposes that this strange geographical feature may have been a sand-bank under the sea which has been raised by upheaval, while the low land intervening between it and the former coast is still covered by water. The Coorong lake covers an area of more than fifty square miles; it lies between the coast hills which border the edges of the sea, and a continuation of the Stone Hut range. The banks consist of level flats covered with black mud, limestone, and saltwater shells. The water is fresh or brackish and very shallow, and one or two creeks flow into it, but there are few outlets, and evaporation goes on rapidly. On this lake a brittle inflammable substance resembling resin in appearance, which burns slowly with a clear flame and gives out a bituminous smell, has been found in considerable quantities.

COPPIN, GEORGE, Theatrical Manager and Comedian (1819—) came to Sydney in 1843, and for some time followed his profession in that city and also in T. In 1845 he engaged a company in Launceston to perform in Melbourne. It included G. H. Rogers, some of the Howson family, and many other well-known actors. He was lessee of the Queen's Theatre for a year; and in 1846 he left Melbourne for Adelaide, where he built a theatre in five weeks. In 1852 he became manager of the Geelong Theatre, was successful, and in 1854 retired with a fortune and went to England. He played in London and the provinces, and then entered into an engagement with G. V. Brooke and other well-known actors to come to Australia. The company arrived in Melbourne at the end of the same year, bringing with them an iron theatre. Coppin erected his theatre, named it the Olympic—the popular name for it was the "Iron Pot"—entered into partnership with Brooke, and bought the Theatre Royal and Cremorne Gardens. The partnership was dissolved in 1859. After two years spent in travelling in America, Coppin returned to Melbourne and again took the Theatre Royal, but the building was accidentally burned down in 1862. Coppin then formed a proprietary company, and rebuilt the theatre, which was opened in 1872. He was elected a member of the Legislative Council in 1858, and sat for five years, when he resigned. In 1874 he was elected to represent East Melbourne in the Assembly. He founded the Melbourne Humane Society, the

Dramatic and Musical Association, and the Old Colonists Association, and took an active part in municipal and public affairs. He also introduced Torrens' Act for facilitating the transfer of land into V., and promoted many other useful public measures. The personal history of George Coppin is the history of the establishment and progress of the drama in Australia. He was perhaps the first Englishman that ever combined the functions of legislator and actor, and that achieved distinction in both these dissimilar departments of public life.

CORIO BAY, a picturesque indentation of the land at the head of Geelong Harbour, V., forming the port of Geelong. It was first seen by Flinders from the top of the You Yangs in April 1802, who wondered that so large a sheet of water should have so small an outlet, and speculated on the future settlement which doubtless would be founded hereafter. Grimes explored the bay in 1803. Hume and Hovell saw it from the same spot as Flinders in December 1824. The bay lies to the S. of the inner harbour, and affords good protection to ships. Between Point Henry, its E. head, and the mainland on the W., a distance of about four miles, is the width of the bay. It is generally shallow, although there is deep water alongside the wharves at Geelong, for ships of the largest tonnage. Corio was the aboriginal name given to the village which has since grown into the large and important town of Geelong.

CORNER INLET, in Gippsland V., an extensive shallow bay, formed by Wilson's Promontory and the mainland, about fifteen miles from N. to S. and twelve miles from E. to W., with an entrance on the E. about two and a-half miles wide, between the head of Mount Singapore and Snake Island. There are several small islands in the inlet. The shores generally consist of mud and sandflats, dry at low water, and extending for a considerable distance. Several streams flow into the inlet, and its banks are well wooded with large timber of fine quality, some of the bluegum trees being 300 feet in height, the cutting of which furnishes employment to a small number of persons.

COROMANDEL, a district in the Province of Auckland, N.Z., situated on a peninsula of the same name. The chief township is Kapanga, about forty miles E. from Auckland. Gold was discovered here in 1851, but owing to the native jealousy little mining was done until 1862. In 1864 the Kapanga Company started work, and in four years took out two tons of the precious metal, when they were driven from the workings by the water. They have resumed operations on an extensive scale under the management of an English directory, with hopeful prospects.

CORONATION ISLANDS, situated off the N.W. coast of the continent, between Prince Frederick Harbour and Brunswick Bay, were discovered and named by King in 1820.

CORROBBOREE, the native dance of the Australian aborigines. The dances usually take place on moonlight nights, and are either warlike, licentious, or an imitation of the motions, habits, and chase of animals. Whole tribes often meet on these occasions, and many ceremonies are gone through. The dancers get powerfully excited, and the dance is sometimes kept up through the whole night. Sir Thomas Mitchell describes this dance :—"The amusement always takes place at night, and by the light of blazing boughs. They dance to beaten time, accompanied by a song. The dancers paint themselves white, in such remarkable varied ways that no two individuals are at all alike. The surrounding darkness seems necessary to the effect of the whole, all these dances being more or less dramatic; the painted figures coming forward in mystic order from the obscurity of the background, while the singers and beaters of time are invisible, have a highly theatrical effect. Each dance seems most tastefully progressive, the movement being at first slow, and introduced by two persons displaying the most graceful motions both of arms and legs, while others one by one drop in, until each imperceptibly wears into the truly savage attitude of the 'Corrobboree' jump—the legs striding to the utmost, the head turned over one shoulder, the eyes glaring and fixed with savage energy in one direction, the arms raised and inclined towards the head, the hands usually grasping waddies, boomerangs, or other warlike weapons. The jump now keeps time with each beat, and at each leap the dancer takes six inches to one side, all being in a connected line, led by the first dancer. The line is doubled or tripled according to space and numbers, and this gives great effect, for when the first line jumps to the left, the second jumps to the right, the third to the left again, and so on, until the action acquires due intensity, when all simultaneously and suddenly stop. The excitement which this dance produces in the savage is very remarkable; however listless the individual, lying half asleep perhaps, as they usually are when not intent on game, set him to this dance and he is fired with sudden energy, every nerve is strung to such a degree that he is no longer to be recognised as the same individual, until he ceases to dance and comes to you again. There can be little doubt that the Corrobboree is the medium through which the delights of poetry and the drama are enjoyed in a limited degree, even by these primitive savages of New Holland. In 1844 a grand corrobboree was held in Melbourne, attended by about 700 natives. Their strange wild antics caused some alarm to the citizens."

COSTERFIELD, a mining township in V., on the McIvor and Major's Creeks, seventy-five miles N. of Melbourne. Antimony mines were discovered here in 1861, and have been profitably worked for some time. During 1877, 1696 tons of ore were raised; the smelting of 274 tons yielded 139 tons of metallic antimony. The population is 350.

COWIE, WILLIAM GARDEN, D.D. (1831—) first Bishop of Auckland, N.Z., was educated at Cambridge (B.A. 1855; M.A. 1865; D.D. 1869.) After taking orders he officiated as an army chaplain for some years; he became domestic chaplain to Bishop Cotton of Calcutta in 1864; rector of Stafford in 1867; and was consecrated Bishop of Auckland in 1869, in succession to Dr. Selwyn (Bishop of Lichfield,) who bore the title of Bishop of N.Z. and Metropolitan.

COWPASTURES, an extensive agricultural and grazing district of N.S.W., forty miles S. from Sydney, watered by the Cowpasture River, which, after its junction with the Warragamba, a stream issuing from the Blue Mountains, forms the Nepean. It was discovered during the government of Captain Hunter in 1796, and derived its name from a herd of wild cattle which were found ranging over its untraversed wilds when it was first discovered by civilised man. These cattle were the offspring of two bulls and three cows of the Cape of Good Hope buffalo breed, which had been landed in the colony by Governor Phillip, but had strayed into the woods during the first week after the formation of Sydney, and could never afterwards be found.

COWPER, SIR CHARLES (1807-1875) came to Sydney in 1809 with his father the Rev. Dr. Cowper, afterwards Archdeacon. In 1825 he was appointed clerk in the Commissariat, and in 1826 secretary to the Church and School Lands Corporation, to which a large area of land had been granted by Royal Charter for the Church of England. He conducted the affairs of this Corporation until it was dissolved in 1833. Sir Richard Bourke offered Cowper the position of agent for the lands which thus reverted to the Government; but he preferred to enter on sheep-farming in the southern district. In 1839 he was made a magistrate of the territory. In 1843 he came forward as candidate for Camden, for the Legislative Council. He was opposed by Roger Therry, Attorney-General, and defeated by a majority of ten votes. As soon as the result was known, Cowper was invited to stand for the county of Cumberland, and was returned at the head of the poll by a large majority above Lawson and James Macarthur. In 1846 he took up the project of railway construction. A company was formed for this purpose, and he was elected chairman. In the Legislature he exerted himself with good effect to secure improvements in the administration, including the more humane treatment of lunatics. In 1850 he took a leading part in the organised opposition to the continuance of transportation to the colonies, and presided over a conference of delegates who met in Sydney to carry out this work. At the general election of 1851 he was nominated with four other candidates for Sydney, then one electorate returning three members. On that occasion Dr. Lang was returned at the head of the poll, Captain Lamb second, and Wentworth third, Cowper being defeated. He

had been nominated both in Durham and in Cumberland, and was returned for Durham. During the next few years he introduced the Act incorporating the Sydney Grammar School and that for establishing the Affiliated Colleges. He also started the proposal for the Naval Brigade, and did much to promote the formation of the Volunteer Force. He left the Legislature for a short time to give more attention to the affairs of the Railway Company; and when that body handed over the work to the Government his services were recognised by their voting him £500 for a service of plate. Sir Charles Fitzroy about the same time offered him the position of Chief Commissioner of the City of Sydney, with a salary of £1000 a year. This, however, he declined. At the general election of 1856 Cowper was returned at the head of the poll for Sydney. The introduction of Responsible Government took place in that year; and it was generally expected that Cowper would be the first Colonial Secretary and Premier in the new order of things. But when the Thomson Ministry resigned, Sir William Denison sent for S. A. Donaldson to form the first responsible Ministry. That gentleman offered Cowper the position of Colonial Secretary, which he declined to accept, believing that his political standing in the Legislature and in the opinion of the country gave him a title to be entrusted with the formation of a Cabinet. The Donaldson Ministry, after being a little more than two months in office, were defeated on a motion of want of confidence moved by Cowper. They resigned 25th August, and Sir William Denison sent for Cowper to form a Ministry. Taking the office of Colonial Secretary, he named Robert Campbell as Treasurer, T. A. Murray Minister for Lands and Works, Martin Attorney-General, and Lutwyche Solicitor-General. Objection was taken by the Opposition to the personal composition of the Ministry, and on a motion by Hay they were defeated. Cowper resigned, after being less than six weeks in power; and Watson Parker came in as Premier. In September 1857 this Ministry was defeated on its Electoral Bill, and Cowper came into office a second time, with Richard Jones as Treasurer, Murray Secretary for Lands and Works, Martin Attorney-General, Lutwyche Solicitor-General. During the two years this Government continued several changes took place. Robert Campbell took Jones's place as Treasurer, and dying in office was succeeded by Weekes. Murray retired, and his office was divided, John Robertson taking the Department of Lands and Flood that of Works. Martin left the Ministry and was succeeded by Lutwyche and Bayley. W. B. Dalley became Solicitor-General, and after him J. F. Hargrave. In 1858 they introduced and carried the Electoral Act, extending the franchise to all classes of the people, dividing the colony into electorates on a population basis, with modifications deemed equitable or expedient, and establishing the ballot. In the same year

Cowper's Municipalities Act was passed, and paved the way for the establishment of Municipal Corporations. In 1861 Robertson introduced his Land Bill, which was carried. In 1862 Cowper's Bill to prohibit future grants for public worship was carried. Each of these measures embodied the decisive settlement of a question which had deeply agitated the minds of the people. On 26th October 1859 he was defeated by a large majority on his Education Bill, and Forster came into power as Premier. In the following March that Ministry resigned; and Robertson formed a Ministry of which Cowper was Colonial Secretary, and afterwards became Premier. This Ministry remained in office for more than three years and a-half. In October 1863 they were defeated; and Martin formed his first Ministry. The protectionist propositions of the Martin Government were disapproved of; and in February 1865 Cowper again came into office. This Administration was embarrassed with financial difficulties; and Cowper, to save the credit of the country, about which a great alarm had arisen, proposed and carried the *ad valorem* duties. This step for the time cost him his popularity; but it provided additional revenue for his successors, the Martin-Parkes Government, which came into power in January 1866. Cowper then retired into private life for nearly four years; but in the beginning of 1870 he took his place for the fifth time at the head of the Administration, Robertson having succeeded in ousting the Martin Ministry in the latter part of 1868, and after holding for a year the position of Premier induced his old colleague once more to take the lead. But the accession of Cowper did not enable the Government to stand their ground long. Towards the end of 1870 a change took place, and Cowper was appointed Agent-General for the Colony. He held that office with credit and advantage to N.S.W., until illness disabled him from attention to business. For some months he was almost incapacitated for exertion of any kind; he died 20th October 1875. Some years previous to the death of Sir Charles Cowper, the estate of Wivenhoe had been settled on Lady Cowper by a subscription of the people of N.S.W. to mark their appreciation of Cowper's political services to the country.

COWPER, WILLIAM, D.D. (1780-1858) came to Sydney in 1809 as Assistant-Chaplain, and was appointed incumbent of St. Philip's, Sydney. He organised the Benevolent and the Bible and Religious Tract Societies, and was secretary of the Diocesan Committee of the Societies for Promoting Christian Knowledge and for the Propagation of the Gospel. He visited England in 1842, and on his departure was presented with an address and a purse of £780. He returned to the colony in 1843, having had the honorary degree of D.D. conferred upon him. In 1848 he was made Archdeacon of Cumberland and Camden,

and in 1852 Bishop Broughton appointed him his special commissary during his absence in Europe.

COX, JOHN HENRY, navigator. On 3rd July 1789 the brig *Mercury*, commanded by Captain Cox, anchored at a deep entrance on the S. side of V.D.L. This bay was then first discovered, and has received the name of Cox's Bight, although it is not certain that Cox himself named it.

COX RIVER, in N.S.W., rises in the county of Cook and joins the Wollondilly at its junction with the Warragamba. The banks lower down, where it unites with the Werriberri Creek, are inaccessible for about four miles. It is named after George Cox of Mulgoa.

COXEN'S RANGE, a range of mountains in Q., discovered and named by Leichhardt in 1844. It is an excellent landmark, and lies to the westward of the river Isaacs.

CRANE, MARTIN, D.D. (1818—) first R. C. Bishop of Sandhurst, V., a native of Ireland, came to Melbourne in 1874, and was installed Bishop in 1875.

CRESWICK, a mining township in V., 112 miles N.W. from Melbourne, with a population of about 4000. The diggings in the neighbourhood are of great extent and richness; they were discovered early in 1852, and the sinking being easy and shallow attracted a large number of miners. The claims are now worked by companies. About thirteen square miles of ground are being worked upon, and sixteen reefs have been proved to be auriferous. The surrounding country is elevated, with timbered land on the S.E., pastoral land on the N. and W. The land to the E. and N. is fine agricultural and under settled cultivation. The land generally is alluvial, of a fertile character, and well watered by numerous creeks. The district is volcanic throughout, and the alluvial drift is peculiarly adapted for sluicing.

CROKER RIVER, in N.S.W., in the district of New England, was named by Oxley in honour of the Secretary of the Admiralty, John Wilson Croker.

CROKERS (Native name Warre Mountains) a range in N.S.W., in the district of Wellington, between Goobang Creek and the River Byrne. They were named by Oxley, after J. W. Croker.

CROZET, LIEUTENANT, French navigator, was second in command of Marion's expedition in 1771, and wrote an account of it. His share in the massacre of the natives of N.Z. will be found detailed in the article "Marion." His account is printed in the Abbé Rochon's *Voyages aux Indes Orientales*.

CUMBERLAND ISLES, on the N.E. coast of the continent. They consist generally of elevated rocky islands, but are all abundantly wooded, particularly with pines, which grow to a larger size than at the Percy Isles. They were named by Cook in 1770, in honour of the Duke of Cumberland.

CUNNINGHAM, ALLAN (1791-1839) botanist, a native of Wimbledon in England, was first

employed in a conveyancer's office, but afterwards more congenially at the Kew Gardens near London. In 1814 Sir Joseph Banks recommended him as collector for the gardens at Kew; he received the appointment, and sailed in the *Duncan* with James Bowie, for Rio Janeiro, where he arrived 18th December. On 3rd April 1815 they started for the country, and were actively employed for some months in collecting plants and seeds. On their return to Rio they left, according to orders awaiting them, Bowie for the Cape of Good Hope, Cunningham for Sydney, where he arrived 20th December. On 25th April 1817 he was attached to Oxley's expedition to explore the Lachlan, which was stopped by the marshes, and returned to Bathurst 27th August. This journey added largely to the existing knowledge of the botany of Australia. The next five years were spent in four voyages in the *Mermaid*, and one in the *Bathurst* with Captain King, employed in surveying the east, north, and west coasts of the continent, in which Cunningham energetically pursued his researches in spite of bad health which, on two occasions, endangered his life and left him greatly debilitated. In September 1822 he made an excursion across the Blue Mountains and in the Bathurst district, returning 4th January 1823. On 15th April he left Bathurst with five men to endeavour to find a practicable pass over the Liverpool Range to Liverpool Plains, discovered by Oxley in 1818, and after five weeks ill-success his perseverance was rewarded by his discovery of an easy route, appropriately named by him "Pandora's Pass." He then returned, reaching Bathurst 27th June. The next two months were employed in an excursion to the Illawarra district. In September 1824 he went with Oxley to Moreton Bay, and surveyed the river Brisbane to the head of the boat navigation. In April 1825 he passed by the Pandora Pass to the back country, and with much inconvenience from the bogs and marshes crossed Liverpool Plains to lat. 30° 47'. On 18th May he commenced his return, reaching Bathurst 7th June. At the end of 1825 he was again attacked by illness, but by the end of February 1826 was working with his accustomed energy. On 28th August he paid a visit to N.Z., returning in January 1827. On 30th April 1827 he started from Gegenhoe, and on 19th May reached the Peel. Continuing north he passed the Dumaesq, and on 6th June discovered the Darling Downs. On the 16th he commenced his return, and keeping more to the westward on 10th July crossed the Gwydir; 21st reached Liverpool Plains; and 28th arrived again at Gegenhoe. In June 1828 he went to Moreton Bay, where he arrived on 1st July, and started to endeavour to find a practicable passage over the mountains. On 25th August he discovered the Gap, now called "Cunningham's Gap," an easy pass to Darling Downs. In May 1829 he went on another collecting tour to Brisbane, returning at the end of September. In May 1830 he visited

Norfolk Island, and returned in August. In February 1831 he returned to England in the *Forth*, arriving there in July. He came to Sydney again as Colonial Botanist in February 1837, but finding other duties expected from him incompatible with his botanical labours, he resigned in December. In April 1838 he visited N.Z. in the French corvette *L'Héroïne*, returning in bad health in October. His health continuing to decline, he had to give up an intended trip in the *Beagle*, and died in Sydney 27th June 1839. A monument to his memory stands in the Botanical Gardens at Sydney.

CUNNINGHAM, RICHARD, botanist, younger brother of Allan, accompanied Mitchell in his second expedition in 1835. When they reached the Bogan, Cunningham was missed. A search was at once instituted, but the botanist was never found. Afterwards the melancholy facts were revealed by a civilised blackfellow to Lieutenant Zouch. Cunningham had lost his way when botanising, and wandered about for five days, when he fell in with some natives. At first they treated him kindly, but the horrible nature of his position overpowered his strength of mind and he became delirious. This sealed his fate. The blacks became terrified at their strange guest and murdered him. The only relics of him found in the blacks' encampment were his gloves and riding whip. A monument is erected to his memory on the spot.

CURR, EDWARD, was first manager of the V.D.L. Company at Circular Head in 1826. Subsequently he came to V., and was one of the foremost advocates of separation from N.S.W. In 1842 Melbourne was incorporated a city. There were two candidates for the mayoralty, Henry Condell and Edward Curr, and a severe contest arose in which the elements of sectarian bitterness were strongly mingled. Curr was a prominent member of the Roman Catholic Church, and a great effort was made on his behalf by his co-religionists. There was some rioting; the Riot Act was read, and the police were called out. The bad blood thus created did not die out for some years. Curr died on the 11th November 1850, the day on which the news came of the colony's independence. "The death of Mr. Curr (says McCombie) who had taken a part in the great fight, and had been a leading politician in the district, on the very day the grateful intelligence arrived, was regarded by all the old colonists as a melancholy coincidence."

CURTIS ISLAND, in Bass Straits, was named by its discoverer, Lieutenant Grant, after Sir Roger Curtis, who commanded at the Cape of Good Hope. It resembles the Lion's mouth at the Cape. The central position of the island renders it a finger post for ships passing through the straits. It has at the south end a summit 1060 feet high. Towards the N. it slopes away in the form of a shoe; hence it is called "the slipper."

CURTIS, PORT, in Q., to the south of Keppel Bay, was discovered by Flinders in 1802, and named after General Sir Roger Curtis. In 1858 the announcement of the discovery of the Canoona diggings caused a great rush of miners from the southern colonies to Port Curtis. Thousands were disappointed, and great suffering resulted. The Governments of N.S.W. and V. were obliged to send vessels thither to convey the starving miners home again. But Q. gained by the rush a considerable accession to its permanent population, as many miners remained and settled down to other pursuits. The township at Port Curtis is Gladstone, with a population of about 500. There is a fine harbour into which falls the Auckland Creek. It is spacious, deep and well sheltered by Facing and Curtis Islands.

CUTHILL, ALEXANDER, M.D., an old and much respected medical practitioner in Sydney, was shot by an insane person in 1854. He had long been celebrated for his benevolence and humanity, and he confirmed his character in this respect by leaving a legacy of £10,000 to the Asylum for Destitute Children in Sydney.

CUVIER, CAPE, on the W. coast of the Continent. It is like an enormous bastion, and is distinguished a considerable distance by its deeply ensanguined colour. It was named by Baudin after the famous French naturalist.

D.

D'AGUILAR'S RANGE, a ridge of elevated hills in the county of Stanley in Q., named by Mitchell after General D'Aguilar, an old Peninsular officer.

D'ALBERTIS, LUIGI M. (1841—) New Guinea explorer, is a native of Genoa, and was educated at Turin. In 1859 he joined Garibaldi in his march of triumph from Sicily to Naples. In 1871 he joined Dr. C. Beccari in a voyage of discovery. They went to Bombay, Singapore, and several of the Eastern islands, and having a small schooner they visited several points on the coast of New Guinea. In 1872 D'Albertis continued his explorations, but having suffered from repeated attacks of fever he came to Sydney in 1873, and at the end of that year returned to Europe. In 1875 he again went to New Guinea, and having in December been up the Fly River in the steamer *Ellangowan*, he came to Sydney to make arrangements for its further exploration. In 1877 he did so in the steam-launch *Neva*, and ascended the river for 500 miles. In 1878 he visited England, where he delivered lectures on New Guinea before the Royal Geographical Society and the Royal Colonial Institute.

DALLEY, WILLIAM BEDE (1831—) is a native of Sydney. He early displayed great oratorical talent, and having studied for the

legal profession was called to the Bar in 1856. He was shortly afterwards elected Member of the Assembly for Sydney, and was appointed Solicitor-General to the Cowper Ministry. As Member of the Assembly Dalley made some of the most eloquent speeches ever heard in that chamber; and being a native of the colony was hailed by older patriots as a young orator of great promise. He was a second time Solicitor-General in the Cowper Ministry in 1858-59; Attorney-General of the Robertson Ministry in 1875-77; and again for several months in the Robertson Ministry from August to December 1877. He was nominated Member of the Legislative Council on 9th February 1875. Dalley is a writer of great ability on literary and political topics.

DALRYMPLE, a township in Q., on the Burdekin River, about seventy-five miles from Townsville and 830 miles N.W. of Brisbane. The district is entirely of a pastoral character. Dalrymple is on the main line of road between Townsville and the northern gold-fields, and is the last township on the route. A few miles from it is a wonderful basaltic wall covering nearly seventy miles. It is of volcanic formation, and is one of the greatest natural curiosities on the Australian Continent. It is said to be inaccessible to horsemen, and is a great stronghold of the aborigines. It is named after G. E. Dalrymple, the explorer.

DALRYMPLE, ALEXANDER (1737-1808) a member of the celebrated Scotch family of Stair and younger brother of Lord Hailes, obtained an appointment in the East India Company's service and went to Madras in 1752. There he fell upon some papers in the Secretary's office relating to the commerce of the Eastern Archipelago, and became so engrossed with the subject that he relinquished his appointment, and made a voyage of observation amongst the eastern islands. While at Manilla, in the Philippine Islands in 1762, he discovered the Journal kept by Torres of his voyage under Quiros in 1606, which the Spaniards had suppressed. Dalrymple kept possession of the papers—Manilla being then in the hands of the British—and gave them to the world in a historical work. Zealous for the fame of the great Spanish navigator, he gave the name of Torres to the Straits which he was the first European to penetrate. Dalrymple subsequently became Hydrographer to the Admiralty, which he held till within a short period of his death. He was the author of a vast number of pamphlets, letters &c., suggesting plans for the promotion of British commerce in various parts of the world. His name is given to Port Dalrymple in T.

DALRYMPLE, GEORGE ELPHINSTONE, explorer. In 1859 he started with a party of five on an exploration in the districts of Burdekin, Suttor and Belyando, between the parallels of 19° and 20° S. They greatly extended the knowledge of the country which Leichhardt, Mitchell,

Kennedy, and Gregory had opened up. In 1862 Dalrymple made a second journey, and traced an opening from the Valley of Lagoons to Rockingham Bay in Q.

DALRYMPLE, PORT, on the north coast of T., the entrance to the Tamar river, was discovered by Bass and Flinders in 1798, and named by Governor Hunter after their return in honour of Alexander Dalrymple, Hydrographer to the Admiralty. The northern settlement in T. bore the name of Port Dalrymple from its foundation in 1804 till 1812.

DALTON AND KELLY, notorious bushrangers of V.D.L. in 1852, where they perpetrated many enormous crimes. The capture of Dalton was cleverly done. He and Kelly had crossed Bass Straits in an open boat from T., and succeeded in entering Melbourne unperceived. They went into a restaurant in Bourke-street at midnight, and in an unostentatious manner Dalton intimated to the shopman that he intended to leave for England the following morning, and would be obliged by getting change for some V.D.L. bank-notes. The shopman declined, and the two men turned to leave the place, but were accosted by a gentleman present who said he thought he could accommodate them; and taking some notes from his pocket remarked that he had not money enough, but had a friend near who would lend what he wanted. The men accompanied their new acquaintance, Bryce, formerly in the police, who led them into the station-house, where the second man disappeared. The other man also showed signs of wishing to retreat; but detectives Murray and Williams happening to come at the moment were informed by Bryce of the suspicions he entertained, that the fellows had come by the money in a dishonest manner. There being no specific charge, however, Dalton was on the eve of being allowed to depart, when Murray recognised in the man before him the description of the noted bushranger and rushed on him. The three at once closed with and secured him. He swore and stamped in a frantic manner at having been so easily entrapped, regretted that he had not known Murray's intentions a few seconds before, that he might have cleared the station-house—a threat he would have carried into effect, as he had three loaded pistols ready cocked about him. He had shot a constable named Buckmaster in V.D.L. in a similar attempt to arrest him. The second man was, no doubt, Andrew Kelly, but he eluded the vigilance of the police. The detective officers became entitled to the reward of £100 offered by the Governor of V.D.L. for the apprehension of Dalton, who was subsequently executed in the island.

DALY, SIR DOMINICK (1798-1868) seventh Governor of S.A., was a native of the County of Galway in Ireland, and was educated at Oscott College near Birmingham. He afterwards went to Canada, where he held the office of Chief

Secretary from 1825 to 1848. In 1849 he was appointed Commissioner of Woods and Forests, and in 1851 received the appointment of Lieutenant-Governor of the Island of Tobago in the West Indies. This position he held but a few months when he was offered the Lieutenant-Governorship of Prince Edward's Island, which he retained until 1859. He was subsequently promoted to the governorship of S.A., which he assumed in March 1862 and retained until his death, 19th February 1868. In 1867 on the visit of Prince Alfred to the Australian Colonies, Sir D. Daly had the honour of being the first Governor to entertain His Royal Highness, which he did in a manner that procured him the thanks of the Prince. Sir D. Daly was a man of a genial, kindly disposition; a thorough Irish gentleman who, during his term of office, endeared himself to the people of S.A. by his courtesy and affability, and by the interest he always manifested in everything affecting the welfare of the colony. He was a man of great official experience, an excellent administrator, and a very popular Governor. He was a Roman Catholic; but kept his religious views to himself, and never obtruded them into the region of politics. He was accessible to all classes of the community, and identified himself with everything likely to benefit the colonists. He died in the colony, and was deeply mourned by all classes, whose loving esteem he had won by his urbanity and quiet hospitality. A son of Sir Dominick's, Daniel Dominick Daly, came to S.A. as Aide-de-camp to his father. In 1866 he was appointed Surveyor under the Government; took part in the Northern Territory Expedition as Surveyor from 1868 to 1870; in February 1874 joined the Engineer-in-Chief's department, and in March 1875 was appointed Surveyor for Native States in the Malayan Peninsula.

DAMPIER, WILLIAM, the Prince of Voyagers. He was of English yeoman stock, and received a fair education; but his parents dying he was taken from school and bound apprentice to a shipmaster of Weymouth. A voyage to France and one to Newfoundland, made before he was twenty years of age, excited in his breast the ambition of a great adventurer. He possessed every element of character fitting him for such a vocation. After many strange experiences of sea life, at the age of twenty-seven he joined the buccaneers of America, and from that time forward his life was one wild romance. In 1683 with some bold confederates he seized a Danish vessel, which they re-named the *Bachelors Delight*, and set off to circumnavigate the globe. After meeting with many remarkable adventures their leader gained the command of a vessel named the *Cygnet*, in which he sailed for the Philippine Islands, and when there resolved on making a cruise to New Holland. On 4th January 1688 he fell in with the Continent in latitude 16° 50', and next day anchored two miles from the shore. He describes the inhabitants of this country as being the "miserablest people in the

world." He quitted the coast of New Holland on 12th March 1688 and directing his course northward reached the Nicobar Islands in May. Here he quitted the expedition and sailed for England, where he arrived, after passing through many perils and adventures, 16th September 1691. In 1699 an English expedition for the discovery of unknown lands was projected by William III., and the command was entrusted to Dampier, whose great qualifications as a navigator were now fully recognised. The countries which he was more particularly to examine were New Holland and New Guinea. The vessel in which he sailed, the *Roebuck*, old and crazy before she left port, carried twelve guns and a crew of fifty men and boys with provisions for twenty months. He left the downs 14th January 1699 and made a favourable voyage until, on 4th July, the coast of New Holland was neared. On the night of 1st August the ship struck bottom on the northern part of the Abrolhos shoal. Next morning the voyagers descried the mainland at the distance of six leagues, but were unable to find a safe harbour, and owing to foul weather were compelled to stand off till the 6th, when they ran into an opening and moored two miles from shore in the harbour named Dirk Hatich's Reede. To this place the navigator gave the name of Sharks Bay. On 14th August he sailed out of this bay, and plied off and on towards the north. On the 28th an armed party landed in search of water, carrying with them pickaxes and shovels. Three tall natives were seen on the beach but speedily retreated. An affray took place in which one native was killed. The party landed at the north-west coast and lived for twelve days at the place now called "Buccaneers Archipelago." Dampier was the first European who held any communication with the natives of Australia, and the first to publish a detailed account of his voyage thither. Water having been at last obtained he left these sterile coasts on the 5th September and shaped his course to New Guinea. After passing through many adventures and making several important discoveries he went to Timor, from whence he intended to run down once more to the coast of New Holland. But although he obtained soundings at forty fathoms, he did not sight the land. Unhappily he fell sick, and as his officers were indifferent or incompetent the voyage was not prosecuted. The crew, moreover, were suffering from scurvy and the ship was greatly in want of repair. Under these circumstances he ordered the officers to sail for Java. Subsequently the old craft was wrecked on Ascension Island, and the navigator lost his collection of curious shells gathered on the coast of New Holland, together with many valuable books and papers. The shipwrecked crew lived for five weeks on the island, and were at length rescued by some English vessels that had observed their signals. When he arrived in England he published an account of his voyage to New Holland,

which he dedicated to the Earl of Pembroke, his patron. But his signal services to England and to the world were allowed to go entirely unrewarded. The rest of his life, however, was by no means spent in idleness. He passed through a variety of romantic adventures. He was pilot in Woodes Rogers' expedition in 1708, when Alexander Selkirk, the prototype of De Foe's immortal Robinson Crusoe, was rescued from the Island of Juan Fernandez after a solitary exile of four years. The expedition returned to England in October 1711 bringing with it a treasure of booty in money and merchandise valued at £150,000. But at this point Dampier's name disappears from history. In addition to the *Voyage Round the World*, published in 1691, he wrote *Voyages to the Bay of Campeachy* (1729,) and a *Treatise on the Winds and Tides* (1707,) a work of a strictly technical character. The strait between New Guinea and New Britain was discovered by Dampier, and is named after him.

DAMPIER ARCHIPELAGO, (or Buccaneer's Archipelago,) the names indifferently given by geographers to the group of islands lying off the north-west coast of the continent, in lat. 21° S. and long. 117° E. The principal islands are Enderby, Lewis, Rosemary, Legendre, and Depuch.

DAMPIER LAND, the name given by geographers to the promontory on the north-west coast of the continent between the ocean and King Sound. It was skirted by Alexander Forrest in his exploring journey in 1879.

DANIELL, CAPTAIN, was Acting Lieutenant-Governor of W.A. from September 1833 till 11th May 1834.

DARLING, SIR CHARLES HENRY, third Governor of V., was nephew of Governor Sir Ralph Darling. He was appointed in succession to Barkly, in September 1863. His rule was marked by the occurrence of the historical incident designated the "Deadlock." It happened thus:—The country having declared in favour of a protective policy McCulloch who was then Premier introduced a protective tariff, which was passed by the Assembly but rejected by the Council. This difference brought about a dissolution, the Ministry going back in the next Parliament stronger than ever. The tariff was again sent up, and again rejected. The Attorney-General (Higinbotham) advised the Cabinet that they were justified in tacking the tariff to the Estimates, both being money bills. This course was adopted, with the concurrence of the Governor. This bill, with the tack, on being sent up to the Council was rejected, the consequence being that supplies were stopped. In order to avert the non-payment of civil servants, the Governor consented to the signing of judgments on behalf of the Queen, so as to enable civil servants, contractors, and others to obtain the money due to them by the State. This course was objected to by the Council, who wrote a minute to the Secretary of State in

England, protesting against the action of the Governor; to which Darling replied by another minute, most injudiciously reflecting on the character and standing of some of the members of the Upper House. During the continuance of the deadlock the affairs of the colony were thrown into great confusion. The civil servants were reduced to great straits. In their emergency the Ministry applied to the banks for a loan of money; five of them refused, but the sixth agreed to lend forty thousand pounds. With this the Government servants were paid, and then the bank demanded its money from the Government; but the Government had now no money, and the bank brought its legal action. The Supreme Court gave its order, the money was paid to the bank out of the Treasury; and thus a means had been discovered of obtaining all the money that was required without asking the consent of Parliament. Throughout the year 1865 the salaries of officers were obtained in this way; but in 1866 the Upper and Lower Houses agreed to hold a conference. Each made concessions to the other, the Tariff Bill was passed, the Appropriation Bill was then agreed to in the ordinary way, and the "Deadlock" came to an end for the time. But in its train other troubles followed. The Imperial authorities were displeased with Darling for allowing such a state of things; showed how he might have prevented it, and to mark their dissatisfaction recalled him. He complained bitterly of this harsh treatment; and the Assembly, regarding him as in some measure a martyr to the popular cause, determined to recompense him for his loss of salary. The Upper House owed no debt of gratitude to Sir Charles, and accordingly once more threw out the Appropriation Bill. Again there was the same bitter dispute, and again the public creditors were obliged to sue for their money in the Supreme Court. In a short time four thousand five hundred such pretended actions were laid, the Government making no defence, and the order being given in each case that the money should be paid. In 1866, the new Governor, Sir J. H. Mannors-Sutton, arrived. He refused to sign judgments, and the Ministry resigned, a fresh Ministry being formed under Sladen and Fellows, which Ministry was met at once by a vote of want of confidence in the Assembly, but insisted on holding office in spite of an overwhelming opposition in that House. The Governor, most unwisely, upheld them in this unconstitutional course. Eventually the tack was taken off, and the estimates and protective tariff were passed by the Upper House. The Sladen Ministry then resigned, and the McCulloch Ministry resumed power. Shortly after the Imperial Government intimated to Darling that he was ineligible for a further appointment, and that having been recalled he was not entitled to a pension. The Victorian Assembly, prompted by the Ministry, thereupon voted him a sum of £20,000 which the Council rejected, asserting that an Imperial officer of his grade could not receive any

gratuity from a Colonial Government with which he had been connected. The Bill was then altered, making the vote in favour of Lady Darling. This too was rejected by the Council, and after a dissolution it was tacked in the same manner as the tariff had been, but was again rejected, and a similar deadlock took place. While this was going on, the death of Darling took place in England, and after another conference the Bills were untacked, and the Council passed a Bill for an annuity of £1000 a year to Lady Darling for life. Darling left Victoria on 8th May 1866. A demonstration of his sympathisers was made on his departure. A vast crowd turned out to bid him farewell with every mark of respectful regret. He was exceedingly popular and a very good administrator. His error was in taking sides too strongly with the Ministry and the popular party, and above all in writing despatches containing personal reflections on leading men on the other side.

DARLING, LIEUTENANT-GENERAL SIR RALPH, seventh Governor of N.S.W. in succession to Brisbane, arrived in the colony in December 1825. On his way out he called at V.D.L. which was then a dependency of N.S.W., and proclaimed (on 3rd December) its independence and establishment as a separate colony. His arrival at Sydney was not welcomed by the colonists, with whom (excepting a small exclusive class) Brisbane had been exceedingly popular. Darling, besides, was dreaded as a red-tape formalist, a martinet in discipline and a mere soldier. On assuming the Government he found the various departments in a state of great confusion, owing to his predecessor's want of business habits. His first task therefore was to reorganise the civil service, and this naturally led to much ill-feeling and discontent. His conduct confirmed the worst fears of the colonists. He was precise and methodical and his habits were painfully careful, exhibiting that sort of diligence which takes infinite trouble and anxiety over details to the neglect of larger and more important matters. He had not been long in the colony before he brought himself into antagonism with the press, and put on the fourth estate a censorship that savoured of tyranny. In this attempt, however, he was foiled by the firmness of Chief Justice Forbes. His despotic character embroiled him further in a large number of prosecutions against newspapers for libel, and his chief adviser, Archdeacon Scott, who had been called by one journal "not a man of peace," resented the remark by ordering the pew of the offending editor to be "decked over" to prevent its being occupied! At this time the mania of joint-stock companies occurred in England, and its effects were felt in the colony in an eager desire to enter into speculations in stock. "The soldier unbuckled his belt to become a keeper of sheep, and the priest forsook his altar to become a herdsman of cattle." A drought of three years ensued, a financial crash followed, and the value

of cattle fell from pounds to shillings. The Governor reduced the compulsory scale of rations issued to assigned servants, in consequence of the scarcity, and of course became still more unpopular. It wanted but one thing more—an act of personal despotism—to render complete the exasperation of his opponents. This excuse was found in his conduct to Sudds and Thompson, two soldiers who committed a theft, in order as they thought to better their condition. Darling subjected them to rigorous military punishment and Sudds died in confinement. These circumstances produced immense excitement. Wentworth, the leader of the popular party, drew up an impeachment which he caused to be formally delivered at Government House, and openly threatened never to lose sight of so great a criminal until he had brought him to justice. The case was repeatedly brought before the House of Commons, but it was not until 1835, four years after Darling's return to England, that a committee of inquiry was granted. When at length it was obtained, the evidence for the prosecution fell through, and Darling was honourably acquitted. He was knighted soon afterwards, and in England public sympathy was entirely on his side. The best his apologists could say in his defence in this case was that he erred with the best intentions. After a prolonged struggle with Darling's military despotism the colonists succeeded in 1829 in gaining the precious boon of trial by jury. Previously to that time military juries only were the tribunals before which all penal offences were tried. The Australian Agricultural Company was established during Darling's rule. The Executive Council of Brisbane was enlarged into a Legislative Council of fifteen members, but with secret proceedings. This body it was that granted trial by jury. A period of excessive extravagance succeeded the grazing mania, and ended in a great financial crash of a very disastrous character, aggravated by drought. The colony was in a state of universal bankruptcy. To this succeeded a period of prosperity, and for the last three or four years of Darling's rule the colony made rapid progress. The differences between the Governor and the principal colonists became so acrimonious that, in December 1827, he resigned his patronage of the Turf Club in consequence of some speeches which were made at a dinner given by the Club; in these severe remarks were uttered in reference to the Governor's administration, and invidious comparisons drawn between him and the late Governor; and to crown the insult, when the Governor's health was drunk the musicians played the air "Over the hills and far away," very appropriate to the desire for his departure. The insult was too marked to be passed over, and the Governor directed his aide-de-camp to inform the secretary of the Club that His Excellency had ceased to be Patron of the Association. Darling was recalled from his administration of the colony, and embarked for England in October 1831. No

demonstration was shown on his leaving. A number of persons assembled at Government House and escorted him to the wharf, but there was no display either of regret or gladness. Those who were hostile to his administration showed some contempt at his departure. A number of persons assembled at Vacluse, where a bullock was roasted, drink was distributed, and the crowd gave full vent to their joy, real or assumed. A notice was given that there would be an illumination on the night of his departure, but only one house was illuminated—that where the opposition newspaper was printed. Darling was a conscientious and honourable man, but his great deficiency was a want of magnanimity. This defect deprived him of the warm sympathy of his friends, whilst combined with a large amount of rigour it gained him the unrelenting hatred of his enemies. The formation of the aqueduct which supplies Sydney with water redeems Darling's rule from the imputation of being altogether useless to the country.

DARLING DOWNS, a district of Q., including an extensive tract of downs on the summit of the Dividing Range, to the west of the Moreton district. It was discovered in 1827 by Allan Cunningham the Botanist, and named after Governor Sir Ralph Darling. It is the richest pastoral district in the colony, and also comprises a vast extent of fine agricultural land. Wheat, maize, barley, oats, arrowroot, potatoes, and all kinds of vegetables are cultivated with success. Good coal is also reported to exist over several parts of the Downs. The principal towns are Condamine, Dalby, Bowenville, Warwick, Drayton, and Toowoomba. The rivers flowing through it are the Condamine, Weir, and Moonie. It has an area of 6000 square miles, or 3,840,000 acres. The population is about 8000.

DARLING RIVER, in N.S.W., discovered by Sturt on 4th February 1829. It was at the point struck a fine, wide, deep river, covered with wild-fowl, but salt. It was named in honour of Governor Darling. Sturt traced it for forty miles through a level country to the S.W., when he came upon the Bogan, which he traced down to the Castlereagh, and following its course for 100 miles came again upon the Darling ninety miles nearer to its sources. On the 14th January 1830 Sturt discovered the junction of the Murray with the Darling. Mitchell reached the banks of this river in his first expedition on 4th February 1832; and his fourth expedition in 1845 was designed to explore it thoroughly. It was from the Darling, at its junction with the Menindie, that Sturt started on his third expedition into the central desert on 24th September 1844. Following the example of Cadell, who had navigated the Murrumbidgee in a steamboat for 800 miles, William Randall in 1859 under the auspices of Governor Macdonnell of S.A. achieved a remarkable success. He navigated the Darling 2400 miles by its windings from the sea, and 1800 miles reckoned from

the junction of the Darling and the Murray. The opening up of the three great rivers—the Murray, the Darling and the Murrumbidgee—to navigation has virtually created the rich and fertile province of Riverina. The approximate length of the Darling is about 850 miles, without taking account of its innumerable smaller windings; but its numerous tributaries, spreading out like a fan over the northern half of the colony, drain an area of 198,000 square miles. In the physical geography of the continent the Darling River is a very peculiar feature. From the western declivities of the almost continuous ridge that skirts the eastern coast, innumerable torrents pour down into the vast plains which gradually slope away towards the interior. The more northerly of these torrents converge into a central basin of clay on the 30th parallel of S. lat., where within a comparatively narrow space meet the Maranoa, the Condamine, the Dumaresque, the Gwydir, the Namoi, the Castlereagh, the Macquarie, and the Bogan. In this region the channels undergo many transformations, sometimes losing themselves in wide marshes, and sometimes presenting an inextricable labyrinth of bifurcations and junctions. After parting with a large proportion of their volume, under the combined influences of evaporation and absorption, the united streams, now distinguished as the Darling, pursue a journey 600 miles to the Murray, through plains which are habitable only on the immediate verge of the water-course. Through this immense reach the Darling receives not a single affluent; on the contrary, it sends out many an offset to bury itself in some stagnant lagoon.

DARVALL, SIR JOHN BAYLEY, was educated at Cambridge where he took the degree of M.A. in 1836; was called to the English Bar at the Middle Temple in 1837; came to Sydney in 1839, and practised at the Bar till 1867. He was made Queen's Counsel in 1853; and in 1844 was appointed a non-elective member of the Legislative Council. At the first general election in 1848 he was elected member of the Assembly for Bathurst, and was twice returned, at subsequent elections. In 1861 he was appointed a Life Member of the Council, but shortly afterwards resigned his seat, and subsequently represented the electoral districts of West Maitland and West Sydney respectively. In 1851 he was offered a judgeship in Victoria, which he declined; in 1856 he was made Solicitor-General in the first Ministry under responsible Government, with a seat in the Executive Council; in 1857 he became Attorney-General and Member of the Executive Council; and was member of two subsequent Governments as Attorney-General. He was appointed a member of the first Senate of the University of Sydney; in 1867 he returned to England, and in 1868 was made C.M.G., and in 1877 K.C.M.G.

DARWIN, PORT, the port of the Northern Territory, was visited by King in his survey of the

north coast in 1818-22. It is named after Charles Darwin, the celebrated naturalist, and was selected as the site of the settlement by Goyder in 1869. It is a fine deep, tranquil harbour, second only in magnitude and importance to Port Jackson. It is surrounded by high cliffs and contains many reefs, visible at low water. Its geographical situation is considered superior to that of either Singapore or Macassar for trading with the neighbouring islands, as vessels can sail to the northern groups either in the east or west monsoons, whereas in the case of Singapore or Macassar the proas can only visit them once in the course of a year. Many of the islands within a week or two's sailing distance from Port Darwin contain large and intelligent populations ready to trade with English Colonies in preference to the Dutch. Valuable products, such as tortoiseshell, pearlshell, trepang, nutmegs, palm wine &c., are obtainable from these places, as well as valuable and cheap labour of the kind so much needed in the Northern Territory. Palmerston is the township of the port, about 2000 miles N.N.W. of Adelaide, with which it is connected by electric telegraph.

DAVEY, COLONEL, second Governor of V.D.L., was a colonel of marines. He arrived at the Derwent in 1813. His arrival was unexpected, for opportunities of communicating with the mother country were few, and the manner of his entrance into his capital was exceedingly singular. The day was very hot, and Davey landed with his coat under his arm from the vessel which brought him out; stating who he was, he requested temporary accommodation at almost the first house he approached. What led to Davey's appointment has never been discovered. He was a man whose disregard of conventional forms and outward appearances amounted to eccentricity, but this did not prevent him from becoming popular. He had gained the character of a brave soldier in a battle with the enemies of his country, and was noted as a hard drinker. He was willing to join in a carouse whenever invited, and was by no means particular as to the companionship he found. Yet he did not neglect his duties, although the way in which they were performed was not perhaps quite so studied and deliberate as might have been desired. His period of rule lasted four years, and was characterised by the prevalence of crime, particularly of bushranging, to a deplorable extent. Davey was not the man to devise a suitable remedy for such a condition of things. If the desperadoes who infested the country would have met him in a body in the open field, he would probably have been able to give a good account of them, but nature and habit had alike unfitted him for coping with such men in a manner according with civilian notions. His proceedings did not lack energy, but were often in direct opposition to the law. Sometimes, if suspected persons escaped conviction, the witnesses were flogged, and many captured prisoners were hanged on the slightest evidence. Davey's

proceedings at length brought him into collision with Macquarie, the Governor-in-Chief, who did not hesitate to express his dislike and disapproval of them. Many of the inhabitants commended Davey for his promptness and eulogised his stretches of power. Finding himself hampered by his superior officer, he at length relinquished his charge in April 1817 and turned settler. His agricultural operations were not successful, and soon afterwards he returned to England. His memory was cherished as that of a plain, open, generous man, if not quite a model governor. But he had brought from many a military camp the rough and ready manners of a soldier. The difficulty of dealing with a turbulent population of 1500 souls, such as were at this time cooped up in the beautiful island, was indeed great. With huts for homes (even the Lieutenant-Governor lived in a tent) with unclosed fields, with few cattle, and the rudest attempts at agriculture, it was to be expected that excesses of all kinds should exist. Davey during his first year of office had opened the ports to merchant vessels, and the country was struggling to make progress. Commerce began to spring up; free settlers spread over the country; and cultivation was carried on with such spirit that in 1816 the colonists, besides supplying their own wants, were able to export grain to Sydney. It was during Davey's period of rule that the press became a permanent institution in V.D.L. Collins made an abortive attempt to establish a newspaper in 1810. A second attempt, also a failure, occurred in 1814. A third and more successful effort was made in 1816, when Andrew Bent commenced the publication of the *Hobart Town Gazette*, a newspaper which existed for several years and was the forerunner of many local journals. The social and moral condition of the settlements appears, for many years after their foundation, to have been inferior to that of N.S.W. from the absence of men and women of high social and moral standing. The Governor's wife was a meek retiring lady, unfitted to exercise that powerful influence to which her position entitled her.

DAVIES, JOHN (1839—) a native of Sydney. In 1874 he was elected Member of the Legislative Assembly for East Sydney, and in 1877 became Postmaster-General in the administration of Sir John Robertson. On accepting this office he was re-elected by the largest number of votes ever polled in any single city contest. After the dissolution of 1877 he was again elected for East Sydney second on the poll, and still represents the electorate in Parliament. Davies takes an active part in the promotion of charitable and philanthropic public institutions.

DAVIS, CHARLES HENRY (1815-1854) was educated at St. Gregory's College, Downside, near Bath. In 1833 he became a member of the Benedictine order; and in November 1840 was ordained priest. He became a professor in the College, and in 1848 was consecrated Bishop Coadjutor to Archbishop Polding. On his arrival in Sydney he

devoted his attention to the promotion of superior education and the cultivation of church music. During Archbishop Polding's absence he administered the diocese, and was afterwards first Roman Catholic Bishop of Maitland.

DAWES, LIEUTENANT, an officer who came out in the First Fleet, started from Sydney in 1788 with a small party with the purpose of crossing the Blue Mountains. He got as far as the Hawkesbury, but could not reach the vast range lying right before him, and accordingly returned to Sydney. Dawes had been charged with the duty of making astronomical observations, and erected a small observatory in Sydney Cove with that object. A battery was also erected under his superintendence, which still bears his name.

DAYLESFORD, a mining township in V., seventy-eight miles N.W. from Melbourne, with which it is connected by railway. It was once a flourishing place, some very rich gold leads and alluvial beds having been found in 1863. Large quantities of the precious metal were taken from the Corinella and Wombat Hill claims, and the result was a rush to Daylesford. The district which previously comprised only some small diggings became an important locality, with more than 100 well organised companies, machinery worth many thousands of pounds, and miles of shafts, tunnels and drives. The diggings, however, were speedily exhausted, and Daylesford sank into the position of a worked-out goldfield, although there is still a considerable scattered mining population and many quartz claims being worked. There is a large area of good agricultural land surrounding the township. The population is about 5000. There have been sapphires, blue and red, spiral rubies, zircon in fine crystals, topazes of various colours, and tourmaline found in this district; also tripoli, a peculiar kind of fine polishing slate, is to be obtained in great quantities.

DE CAEN, General in the French army of the first Napoleon. When Flinders was returning to England in 1804 he was compelled from the leaky state of his vessel to seek shelter in the nearest port, and relying on the French Emperor's passport for protection and assistance he put into the Mauritius. The Governor of the island at this time was De Caen, an officer of the Revolution. Like so many others of those who were raised into notice by that event, he was a man of malevolent disposition; and to the disgust of many of his countrymen and companions in arms vented his hatred against the British nation by not only detaining the voyager, but by treating him with cruelty and indignity. Pretending that the passport was valid only on board the *Investigator* he seized the *Cumberland*, took possession of the charts, journals and log-books, detained Flinders for six years, and after evading many orders for his release dismissed him as unceremoniously as he had seized him. The hospitality and sympathy

of the inhabitants of the island in some degree compensated the voyager for the barbarity of the Governor. But the perfidy, robbery, and inhumanity of De Caen in respect of Flinders remain an indelible stain on the honour of the French nation.

DEGERANDO, CAPE, the most northerly point of Schouten's Island off the east coast of T. It was named by Baudin in 1802 after the celebrated philosopher and philanthropist, Baron Degerando.

DE GONNEVILLE, PAULMIER DE, French navigator, sailed from Honfleur in 1503 on a voyage to the South Seas. He rounded the Cape of Good Hope in safety, when he was overtaken by a storm and lost all knowledge of his course. When a calm returned he steered southward and reached an unknown land, where he remained six months. He then returned to France bringing with him a native of the country. His ship was plundered by a corsair and the journals were lost, but De Gonneville and his officers made a declaration of the fact of their voyage, which was lodged with the French admiralty. Some have conjectured that the land reached by De Gonneville might have been Australia, but this assumption has no facts to sustain it. The navigator describes the inhabitants as well advanced in civilisation, and this circumstance alone would discredit the supposition of its being Australia.

DE GREY RIVER, in W.A., discovered and named by Frank Gregory in 1861, after Earl De Grey. It forms the northern boundary of John Forrest's great trigonometrical survey of W.A., and was the starting point of Alexander Forrest's exploring journey in 1879.

DE LA CLAMPE, M., a French royalist refugee who had been a colonel in the army, came to N.S.W. in 1799, and obtained a grant of land for the purpose of introducing the cultivation of cotton and cocoa. Peron's account of his visit to De la Clampe's plantation at Castle Hill, near Parramatta, is both instructive and interesting:—"Having walked through a tufted wood, the modest abode and fields of the poor French colonel opened on our view. In the three years he has resided at Castle Hill, he has only been once to Sydney. He avoids society, and excuses himself from complying with repeated invitations of his friends, in order that he may dedicate his whole time to the pursuits of agriculture. We found him at the head of his labourers—six prisoners furnished by the Government. He was himself setting an example of labour, and, like them, was nearly stripped to the skin. The unexpected arrival of so numerous a party at first disconcerted De la Clampe, and he hastily ran to the house in order to dress himself. On hearing I was a Frenchman, he embraced me with transport, exclaiming, 'How is it with our dear France?' The interior of the rural manor-house combined with the greatest simplicity a species of elegance which clearly evinced the genius and taste of the owner. But of all we saw

nothing so much excited my attention as a beautiful plantation of cotton plants, yielding cotton of various shades and especially that peculiar to the fine nankeens of China, a fast colour hitherto not obtained whether by dint of culture or by dyeing. 'In a short time,' said the Colonel, 'I shall have created two branches of commerce and exportation for this colony of the greatest value. I have but this means left of acquitting the sacred debt I owe to a nation which gave me shelter in the hour of misfortune.'" Colonel De la Clampe, however, like many other enthusiastic men formed expectations which were never realised, for he died shortly afterwards.

DELORAINE, a township situated on both sides of the Meander, in the county of Westmoreland, T., 150 miles N.W. of Hobart Town and thirty miles from Launceston S.W. The Launceston and Western Railway has its terminus here. A prettier little township than Deloraine, which is approached by a rustic bridge over the Meander, it is scarcely possible to imagine. It is situated in the midst of a fertile, well-watered district yielding abundant crops of grain, while there is also a large area of available grazing land. The population is about 800.

DEMPSTER, C. E. AND A., Explorers, with their companions, B. Clarkson, C. Harper, and a native, made an exploration from the settled districts of W.A. as far as Mount Kennedy in 1861. They discovered an extensive chain of lakes and heard from the blacks of three white men who had perished. These were surmised to be of Leichhardt's party. Another party composed of C. and W. and A. Dempster, Maxwell and Larnock, made an expedition to the S.E. in 1863, setting out from Northam, thence to Port Malcolm, and thence northward to the interior, which was found barren country.

DENIEHY, DANIEL HENRY (1828-1865) a native of Sydney, was one of the most remarkable men that Australia has ever produced. He was educated at a select school kept by M. Jonson, where he acquired a knowledge of several European languages. He afterwards went to the Sydney College, but continued his reading in French and Italian literature. In his fifteenth year his parents took him to England, with the intention of placing him at college at Oxford; but his age and diminutive appearance prevented his immediate reception, and he was left in charge of a tutor, with whom he read classics for some months. Weary of his isolation he visited his relatives in Ireland, and became acquainted with some of the leading members of the Young Ireland party, in whose enthusiasm he participated. On his return to Sydney he became articled clerk to N. D. Stenhouse, a man of great literary acquirements and generosity of disposition. During the time of his clerkship, Deniehy contributed sketches, verses, and criticisms to various newspapers, all of which were received with favour on account of their freshness and vigour of style. At this period he

was an unwearied student of the best authors in English, French, and Italian literature. In the winter of 1853 he exhibited the fruits of these studies in a series of lectures on Modern Literature delivered at the School of Arts. He also met with popular acceptance as a speaker on the great political topic of the day, the Constitution Bill. In 1856 he was returned to Parliament for Argyle, and soon gained a reputation in the Assembly for his powers as a keen debater and an eloquent speaker. He was returned by the electors of East Macquarie in 1858, and kept his seat till after the passing of the Reform Bill in the following year, when he voluntarily withdrew from public life. During his Parliamentary career he practised at Goulburn as an attorney, but the time he devoted to his Parliamentary duties seriously interfered with his business. In 1858 he returned to Sydney and devoted himself to literature, contributing essays, critical and æsthetical, to the newspapers. In 1860 he became one of the founders of the *Southern Cross*, to which he contributed brilliant papers on some of the most distinguished writers of the century—Macaulay, DeQuincey, Mrs. Browning, Leigh Hunt, Mrs. Jameson, and others. On the invitation of friends in V. he went in 1862 to Melbourne, where for nearly two years he edited *The Victorian* newspaper, a Roman Catholic organ, and one of the most vigorously written political journals ever published in Australia. It succumbed, however, to bad management, and Deniehy returned to Sydney broken in health and hopes. He contributed admirable critical essays to the *Sydney Morning Herald* at this time, 1864-65. Acting on the advice of his friends in 1865 he removed to Bathurst where he renewed the practice of his profession, but under depressing circumstances. He died in the hospital of that city 22nd October 1865, in the thirty-seventh year of his age. Deniehy possessed the literary faculty in a degree given to very few men in a generation. Had he lived and if the circumstances of his career had been of a happier kind, he would have achieved distinction as a critic and an essayist of the very highest class.

DENILQUIN, a township in N.S.W. on the Edward River, and the principal place in the Riverine district. It is distant from Sydney 488 miles S.W. but is more easily reached *via* Melbourne, 195 miles S., than overland, being only 45 miles distant from the terminus of the Victorian Railway at Echuca, with which place it is connected by a line of railway constructed by the Denilquin and Moama Railway Co., opened on 4th July 1876. A bridge carries the line over the Murray from Echuca. The public buildings, churches, banks, and chief mercantile establishments are numerous and substantially built. It possesses a public school, a grammar school, and several private ones. The Denilquin Pastoral and Agricultural Society, founded in 1876, have

very complete yards and buildings for exhibition purposes. The population of the town is about 3000. The district was till lately entirely a pastoral one, consisting of vast plains of native grass and salt bush intersected with clumps of timber, and in many parts not suitable for cultivation, but farming is now being tried with some prospect of success. In summer severe droughts are frequently experienced, though numerous and expensive efforts have been made by the formation of dams to provide against this contingency.

DENISON, SIR WILLIAM THOMAS (1810-1871) eighth Governor of Tasmania, was a member of a distinguished English family, and an officer of the Corps of Royal Engineers. He succeeded Sir J. E. E. Wilmot on 13th October 1846, and arrived in the colony on 26th January 1847. He entered on his administration under many difficulties, the bequest of his predecessor, and his reception by the colonists was not enthusiastic. The object of the Secretary of State, Mr. Gladstone, in selecting Denison was the better disposal of the labour and the more effectual control of the prisoners; and throughout his whole period of rule he held to his instructions as the sole obligation binding on him. He attempted an amicable adjustment of the claims of the councillors who mutually contested the right of each other to consider themselves duly appointed. It was left to his discretion to select six out of the whole number to complete the Council. They were summoned to Government House to hear the Minister's decision, and were requested to decide among themselves who should be honoured with a seat. This experiment failed, an altercation ensued, and some quitted the conference. The "patriotic six" adhered to each other, and Denison ultimately declared that the appointments of Governor Wilmot were disallowed, and reappointed the six. The gentlemen rejected were advised that they held their office until superseded by commands under the sign manual of the Sovereign. In this opinion the Chief Justice concurred; but pursuing the scrutiny, it was found that some of the nominations of Wilmot had been informal, the instrument not stating whom they had succeeded. Their claims being quashed by this discovery, the "patriotic six" were again appointed in succession to each other, a transposition required by the law. At this stage however Orr, who entered the Council some time after the rupture, produced his appointment, which unlike certain others was expressed in the legal form. Thus again all the previous proceedings were quashed, and the Governor, unable to unravel the difficulty, dismissed the Council to await instructions from Downing Street or a warrant for the nominees under the sign manual of the Queen July 1847. Thus during 1847 there was no Legislature sitting; but at length the *Gazette* announced that the Queen had reinstated the original six. Denison's next trouble was a quarrel with the Judges of the Supreme Court respecting the

Differential Duties, on which a revenue of £20,000 depended, and which the Judges declared to be illegal. The Governor determined to resist their judgment, and even to remove them if he could. Chief Justice Montagu he actually suspended; but the Executive Council were opposed to this step. The Governor recommended the Chief Justice to take leave of absence; but this he firmly refused to do. The next step of Denison was to carry through the Council a Doubt Bill which simply set aside all the ruling of the Judges, and bound them to accept as law any ordinance once enrolled. For his conduct in this matter Denison was censured by the Crown; but the removal of Judge Montagu from the bench was confirmed. The struggle for constitutional government was earnestly carried on for many years by the colonists, and at length the boon was gained and was cordially welcomed. It curtailed considerably the power of the Governor. The great anti-transportation struggle succeeded, and Denison took strongly the side opposed to the entire population of the Australian Colonies. This imprudent step involved him in years of trouble and angry contention, in the course of which his reputation for justice and fair dealing suffered severely. His opposition to the colonial will on the subject, says West, "his injustice to the Judges, and his sarcastic delineations of colonial character, narrowed the circle of his friends." In 1855 after the battle of the League had been fought and won, Denison was transferred to N.S.W. His rule was free from any serious political complications, and he personally promoted many public works of a useful character. The fortifications of Sydney were planned by him and bear his name. He was appointed Governor of Madras in 1861. On the death of Lord Elgin he acted as Governor-General of India pending the arrival of Sir John Lawrence. In 1866 his term of rule having expired, he retired into private life. He died in England 19th January 1871. He gave to the world his experiences as a Governor in two volumes, bearing the title of *Varieties of Vice-Regal Life*.

D'ENTRECASTEAUX, BRUNI, French navigator and Admiral in the French navy, was in 1791 despatched with an expedition in search of La Perouse. It consisted of two ships commanded by the Admiral and Captain Huon de Kermadec. The vessels arrived at V.D.L. in 1792 and on 21st April anchored off Storm Bay. A little to the east of them was a portion where the land did not close quite round the water. An attempt to reach the bottom of this showed that they were in a strait instead of a bay, and that the bay in which they had anchored ran between an island and the sea. After many explorations in boats the ships worked down the strait, which was named D'Entrecasteaux Channel. As they passed along the crew saw two islands, one of which lay at the mouth of a broad river, which they named the Huon. To the south was a deep bay, named (after one of the ships) Esperance Bay. A deep lagoon

extends beyond this island, and beside it another anchorage, which was called after the *Recherche*. Leaving V.D.L. the vessels sailed for Australia and cruised along the south part of it in December 1792. A storm drove them to anchor in Le Grand's Bay, so called after the seaman who discovered it. To the group of islands lying off Nuyt's Land, Bruni gave the name of the Recherche Archipelago. Again steering for V.D.L. he on 21st January 1793, sighted a bay which he named Rocky Bay. Further explorations along the coast discovered a river to which the name of La Riviere du Nord was given. The name of Tasman Peninsula was also given to the south-eastern promontory of the island. A small vein of coal was discovered near the south cape. On 28th February the French fleet left V.D.L. in further search for tidings of La Perouse. The channel discovered by D'Entrecasteaux and Bruni Island in V.D.L., and the point at the S.W. corner of the continent, bear the name of the French navigator.

DEPUCH ISLAND, one of the group of Dampier's Archipelago on the north-west coast of the continent. It is only eight miles in circuit, but deserves notice because on it have been found some curious specimens of native sculpture; and, rising with its greenstone rocks to a height of 514 feet above the sea, it presents a remarkable contrast to the low-lying shore of the adjacent mainland.

DERWENT RIVER, in T., on which Hobart Town is situated, rises in the central plateau and flows southward into the sea at Storm Bay. It was discovered by D'Entrecasteaux in 1793, and by him named the Rivière du Nord. In 1794 Captain John Hayes explored it and re-named it the Derwent, after the river of the same name in England. Bass and Flinders further explored it in the *Norfolk* in 1798. They describe it as a dull and lifeless stream, respectable only because the Tasmanian rivers are insignificant! A later traveller describes it in more glowing terms:—"The course of the Derwent up as far as New Norfolk will compare favourably with a corresponding portion of the Rhine, while the dismantled fortresses and ruined towers which crown the heights of that romantic river seem to be reproduced by the fantastic rocks and jutting knolls which flank the waters of the Derwent. Every curve of the broad stream begets a feeling of admiration and surprise. The accidents of light and shadow, varying with the position of the sun and the motion of the clouds, impart a character of endless variety to this picture."

D'ESTREE BAY, a bight in the S. coast of Kangaroo Island S.A. Here the *Osmanli* a fine steamer was lost on the reef which runs off about half-a-mile from Point Tinline, in 1854. By an error in his reckoning the commander mistook at night the low land at the head of the bay for the opening of Backstairs Passage, imagining that Cape Linois was Cape Willoughby, and that the Sturt

light was extinguished. He ascertained his mistake on steaming in by seeing the land a-head, and attempting to extricate his ship from that position she struck the reef off Point Tinline and became a total wreck. D'Estree Bay is a valuable harbour of refuge for vessels, and may be entered with safety by day and without undue risk by night, provided the position of the ship be ascertained before the shore is too closely approached.

DE WITT'S LAND AND ISLANDS, is the name given to that portion of the continent lying between the tropic of Capricorn and the 15° of S. latitude. It was discovered by the Dutch in 1628 and named in honour of the Commadore of the exploring squadron. The name was also given by Tasman to a group of islands lying off Cox's Bight in T., about twenty miles to the east of the S.W. head of the island.

DICKENSON, SIR JOHN NODES (1806—) a native of the West Indies, was educated at Cambridge where he took an M.A. degree, and was called to the English Bar in 1840. He came to N.S.W. in 1842 with the appointment of Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court; and presided soon afterwards in the celebrated trial, *Bank of Australia v. Bank of Australasia*, a case that created intense interest throughout the colony. His judgment on that occasion was upheld by the full Court and the Privy Council. He was made a Knight-Bachelor in 1860, and retired from the Bench in February 1861 on a pension of £1050 per annum.

DINGO, the native dog of Australia, is regarded by some naturalists as a distinct species, by others as a mere variety of the domestic dog. It exists both in a wild and in a domesticated state; but there is no good reason for thinking that the wild race has originated from dogs introduced from some other country by man. The domesticated Dingo is about the size of a shepherd's dog; the wild one is larger. The wild Dingo is found in all parts of Australia; it is of a tawny colour, has a large head, with muzzle somewhat fuller than the shepherd's dog. The ears are short and erect, the tail bushy, but not so bushy as that of a fox. In running the Dingo, unlike dogs in general, carries the head high, the ears erect and turned forward. In a wild state it does not bark. It is very destructive to the sheep of the colonists, and its delight is to kill as many as possible before proceeding to eat. It is very fierce and courageous but capable of strong attachments. Wallace however thinks that the Dingo is probably not indigenous. Although found in a semi-fossil state in some of the caves, it was he supposes almost certainly introduced by or with the earliest human inhabitants.

DIRECTION CAPE AND ISLANDS, on the N.E. coast of the continent, between Temple Bay and Princess Charlotte Bay, were sighted and named by Cook in 1770. The Direction Islands are a small group of a high conical shape, and lie five or six leagues off the land.

DIRK HATICHES (incorrectly named Dirk Hartog) Dutch navigator, sailed from Holland in 1616 for the East Indies. In lat. 25° he fell in with the western coast of the continent, which he named Eendracht's Land after his ship. A small island and adjacent roadstead lying on the western side of the bay, afterwards named Sharks' Bay by Dampier, still bears the name of Dirk Hartog's Island. In 1697 and again in 1801 there was found on this island a plate of tin with an inscription (in Dutch) to this effect:—"Anno 1616, the 25th October, arrived here the ship *Eendracht* of Amsterdam; the first merchant Gills Miebaais of Luik; Dirk Hartog, of Amsterdam, captain. They sailed from hence for Bantam the 27th of the same month." On the lower part was cut out with a knife, but hardly distinguishable:—"The under merchant, Jan Stins; chief mate, Pieter Dookus of Bill."

DISAPPOINTMENT, MOUNT, in V., is a dark rocky mountain at the head of the river Plenty about forty miles distant from Melbourne. It is covered with timber of an immense size, and in parts with a vine scrub of an impenetrable nature. It was this obstruction which caused Hovell and Hume, in their overland journey to Port Phillip in 1824, to turn back towards the Goulburn, and to leave in the name they attached to the hill a lasting memento of their undeserved failure.

DISCOVERY BAY, an indentation on the coast of V., between Capes Bridgewater and Northumberland, was first seen by Grant in 1800, and named by Mitchell in 1836. The bay affords no shelter to shipping, beyond that of an open roadstead.

DIVIDING RANGE. A chain of mountains sometimes rising into lofty peaks, and at others falling into gentle eminences, which stretch from E. to W. across V., and forming a continuation of a similar chain which runs along the coast line of N.S.W. at a general distance of from fifty to eighty miles from the sea. The Dividing Range, as its name imports, divides the colony into two parts, and the waters flowing N. into the Murray River from those flowing S. into the sea. The range is divided into several parts called by different names. The most E. portion extends from the N.S.W. border to the Jordan and Jamieson districts, and is known as the Australian Alps. It runs from N.E. to S.W. and varies in height from 1000 to 7000 feet, the principal peaks being Forest Hill, Mount Smyth, and Mount Howitt. The spurs from this portion of the range are very lofty, and are most of them covered with snow nearly the whole year round. The highest point is one of the Cobboras in the extreme E. which has an altitude of more than 7000 feet; there are peaks in the Bogong Range also attaining nearly the same altitude. The second chain extends from the Jamieson district on the E. to the Ballarat district on the W. and is known as the great Dividing Range proper. It runs from E. to W. and has also numerous spurs to the N. and

S., none of which are of great extent, although some attain a considerable height. The principal peaks in this chain are Mount Leonard 6000 feet; Mount Macedon 3400; Mount Alexander 3300; Mount Disappointment 2000; and Mount Ida 2000. The third chain is a series of ranges running generally from E. to W., but some having a N. and S. tendency, or even running due N. and S. The most E. of these ranges contain several peaks, of which Mount Buninyong 2500 feet; Mount Bullarook 2400 feet; and Mount Franklyn 1700, are the principal. The ranges forming this chain are the Amphitheatre, Pyrenees, Grampians E. and W., Black, and Victoria. Nearly the whole of the rivers of the colony rise in these ranges, or in the sub-ranges spurring from them. The slopes and in many cases the summits of the mountains are generally thickly timbered, principally with iron and stringy bark, blue and red gum, honeysuckle and box, and are mostly covered with thick scrub and heath. The whole of the ranges are more or less auriferous.

DIXON, (—) explorer, in October 1833 traced the ranges in N.S.W. between the Lachlan and the Macquarie, by crossing to the Bogan which he followed for sixty-seven miles.

DOCKER, JOSEPH, was member of the Legislative Council of N.S.W. and became Postmaster-General in the first Martin Administration in January 1866. Before the fall of that Ministry in September 1868 he was appointed Colonial Secretary. When Martin took office a second time in December 1870 Docker again accepted the office of Postmaster-General, which he held until the resignation of the Ministry in May 1872. He introduced and carried through the Upper House Parkes' Public School Bill in 1866.

DONALDSON, SIR STUART ALEXANDER (1815-1867) came to N.S.W. in 1840. He was the son of a London merchant who filled the office of agent to the colonists. He was elected Member of the Legislative Council for Durham in 1840, and from the first took an active part in politics. In 1851 he fought a duel with Sir Thomas Mitchell, who challenged Donaldson for making some disparaging reflections on the Surveyor-General's department in his place in the House. Three shots were exchanged but without any serious result. In 1856 Donaldson was elected Member for Cumberland under the new Constitution, and was called upon by Governor Denison to form the first Constitutional Ministry in June 1856, but being defeated on a vote of want of confidence he resigned in August the same year. He was quickly recalled to power by the defeat in October of the Cowper Ministry which had succeeded him. In 1857 however the new Ministry was defeated on its Electoral Bill, founded on a property qualification, and Donaldson never again entered the Government, although he continued to take a prominent part in the debates in the House. In politics Sir S. A. Donaldson opposed the policy of

Cowper. He returned to England in 1858 and twice afterwards visited the colony. He was knighted in 1858. He died at Carlton Hall, Cumberland, 11th January 1867.

DOUBLE ISLAND POINT is the southernmost point of Wide Bay in Q. This point looks like two small islands lying under the land, for which reason Cook so named it in 1770.

DOUGLAS, BENJAMIN, Collector of Customs in S.A., was appointed Government Resident of the Northern Territory in 1869, in succession to Manton, and held the office till May 1874 when he resigned.

DOUGLAS, JOHN (1828—) a native of England, was educated at the Edinburgh Academy and at Rugby, and afterwards graduated at Durham. He came to N.S.W. in 1851 and was shortly afterwards appointed Goldfields Commissioner at Braidwood. He then engaged in squatting pursuits at Darling Downs. After the separation of Q. he sat in Parliament as member for Camden. He went to Q. in 1863 and was elected member for Port Curtis. In 1866 he became Postmaster-General, and resigned his seat in the Lower House to represent the Ministry in the Council. In the second Macalister Ministry he re-entered the Assembly and took office as Treasurer. In 1868 he again resigned his seat to take the leadership in the Council. In 1869 he was made Agent-General for the colony in England, which post he held for eighteen months. In 1871 he returned to Q., and in 1875 was elected for Maryborough. In 1876 he became Minister for Lands, and in 1877 on Thorn's resignation Vice-President of the Council and Premier. His Ministry was defeated in January 1879.

DOWLING, SIR JAMES (1787-1844) Chief Justice of N.S.W., was educated at St. Paul's School, London. After leaving school he took an engagement on the London press and reported the debates in both Houses of Parliament. In 1815 he was called to the English Bar. He edited several legal text books and nine volumes of Law Reports known as Dowling and Ryland's Reports. In 1827 he was recommended by Lord Goderich to King George the Fourth, for the appointment of Puisne Judge to the Colony of N.S.W. To that position he was appointed by Commission under the Great Seal, dated 6th August 1827. He arrived in Sydney in February 1828. In April 1836 upon Chief Justice Sir Francis Forbes leaving for England, Dowling was appointed Acting Chief Justice, and was made Chief Justice (upon Forbes' retirement through ill health) and knighted. His son James Sheen Dowling adopted his father's profession, and was raised to the Judicial Bench of N.S.W. in 1858.

DRAMA IN AUSTRALIA (THE.) The first theatrical performance in Australia was Farquhar's comedy "The Recruiting Officer," performed by some prisoners to celebrate the King's birthday, at Sydney on 4th June 1789. The first theatre

erected in Sydney (at a cost of £100) was opened 16th January 1796. The performance was Young's tragedy of "The Revenge," with "The Hotel" as an afterpiece. The manager's name was Sparrow, and the actors were Green, Hawkes, Hughes, Chapman, and Mrs. Davis. George Barrington the celebrated pickpocket wrote the prologue (or was said to have written it) in which occur the two famous lines:—

True patriots all, for be it understood
We left our country for our country's good.

Sir Richard Bourke granted a license to Barnett Levy for dramatic performances, who fitted up the saloon of his hotel as a theatre. He subsequently built the Theatre Royal in 1833. His first manager was Meredith and his second Simmons. The Victoria Theatre in Sydney was opened on 17th March 1838. The Queen's Theatre in Melbourne was opened 1st May 1845; George Coppin made his first appearance there on 21st June following. He built the Olympic Theatre in 1854, and opened it with a first-class dramatic company, of whom G. V. Brooke, Fanny Cathcart, Richard Young and Robert Heir were members. Some fine Shakesperian performances were given by this company. The Theatre Royal, Melbourne, was built in 1854; burned down in 1872; and rebuilt in 1872. The Prince of Wales Theatre, Sydney, was burned down in 1860, and rebuilt in 1863. The Prince of Wales Opera House, Sydney, was burned down in 1872. The Opera House, Melbourne, was built in 1860. The Academy of Music, Melbourne, was built in 1876. Of celebrated actors, besides Brooke, Charles and Mrs. Kean were in Australia in 1863; Jefferson and Barry Sullivan came here the same year; Charles and Mrs. Matthews in 1871; Walter Montgomery in 1867, and left Australia in 1869; Adelaide Ristori and her Italian Company were here in 1875; Creswick came in 1877; and Mrs. Scott-Siddons in 1876.

DRAPER, DANIEL JAMES (1810-1866) Wesleyan minister, was one of the founders of Methodism in Australia. He came to V.D.L. in February 1836, but left the island for N.S.W. in the following month. He laboured in the three continental colonies for nearly thirty years, and was instrumental in the erection of some of the largest places of worship belonging to the denomination in Australia. He returned to England in 1860, and after nearly six years' sojourn embarked in the *London* steamship in December 1865, with 244 other passengers, including Rev. Dr. Woolley Principal of the Sydney University, G. V. Brooke, the well-known actor, and others, who were all drowned by the wreck of the vessel in the Bay of Biscay 11th January 1866. Draper's services to his denomination were of a remarkable kind, and his demeanour at the scene of the shipwreck was such as befitted a Christian minister. His life has been written by the Rev. J. C. Symons.

DRIVER, RICHARD (1829—) a native of N.S.W., and the son of parents both of whom were

Australian-born. He adopted the legal profession, and was admitted an attorney and solicitor of the Supreme Court in 1856. He was for several years Solicitor to the Corporation of Sydney. At an early period of his life he took a lively interest in politics, and became an enthusiastic admirer of Wentworth, and a firm adherent to the party of Cowper. He was returned to Parliament for West Macquarie in 1860; and afterwards represented Carcoar and Windsor. He introduced and carried the Game Act. He filled the position of Chairman of Committees in the Assembly, and was Minister for Lands in the Parkes Ministry in 1877.

DRY, SIR RICHARD (1810-1869) first speaker of the Tasmanian Legislative Assembly, was a native of the island. He succeeded at his father's death to the Quamby estate, and in 1845 was nominated member of the Legislative Council, the first native that had been so appointed. He was one of the patriotic six members who opposed in the Council the arbitrary proceedings of Governor Wilmot, and who resigned their seats by way of protest. For this act Dry gained immense popularity. In 1851 on the introduction of representative institutions he was elected member for Launceston, and was chosen Speaker. He resigned the Speakership in 1855 and went to England, where he was knighted. Before 1860 he sold a portion of the Quamby estate, and the remainder after his death was sold by Lady Dry for £50,000. In November 1866 he took office as Colonial Secretary and Premier, retiring in August 1869. He died in October of that year. The colonists founded by subscription a "Dry Scholarship" tenable on certain terms, in memory of their first Speaker.

DRYANDER, MOUNT, a conspicuous mountain on the N.E. coast of the continent, forming a small peak visible from Repulse Bay, as well as from the northern extremity of the Cumberland Isles. It is 4566 feet high and the hills around it are at least from 700 to 1000 feet above the level of the sea. It was sighted by Cook in 1770 and named by him after Dr. Jonas Dryander the celebrated Swedish naturalist, who was librarian to Sir Joseph Banks in succession to Dr. Solander.

DU CANE, CHARLES, Governor of T. from 15th January 1869 to 28th November 1874. He was an able administrator, a zealous promoter of all schemes for the advancement of the colony, and a man of high culture and scholarship. His rule was marked by no incident of special importance; but the colony progressed quietly, and the Governor won the hearty respect and esteem of all classes by his diligent attention to business and his perfect courtesy of manner.

DUFFY, SIR CHARLES GAVAN (1816—) a native of Ireland, came to V. in 1856. His fellow-countrymen gave him a hearty reception, and at a public dinner he made the announcement to them that he still continued to be "an Irish rebel to the backbone and spinal marrow." A

subscription was raised to present him with a freshhold qualification for a seat in the Legislative Assembly. He has since been, almost continuously, a member of the House; has twice been minister for Land and Works; and on the ground of having served the necessary period, claimed and received under the pension clause in the Constitution Act now repealed a pension of £1000 a year. He brought in and got passed into law in 1862 the measure historically known as the Duffy Land Act, which was intended to remain in force until 1870. It was designed, as its framer affirmed, to encourage a large agricultural immigration and to provide homes for the people. About three-and-a-half millions of acres of fertile land were thrown open to selection. "The first selectors picked the eyes out of the country," was the current popular expression. Then it was found that these selections were made chiefly in the interests of the squatters who, through their agents, the pretended selectors, contrived to gain possession of all the finest parts of the proclaimed territory at a merely nominal price. The direct loss to the State treasury thus accruing was estimated at upwards of two millions sterling. These facts becoming known, the Governor by an order in council stopped the operation of the Duffy Land Act. Subsequently it was found that the public wrong thus inflicted could not be righted, in consequence of a very significant clause of unsuspected force being discovered in the Act. No person seems to have taken any note of this clause while the bill was under consideration in the Legislature. The Attorney-General of the Ministry, Richard Davies Ireland, stated openly in the Assembly that the clause had been carefully considered in Cabinet Council and deliberately adopted without dissent. To this statement Duffy gave a point-blank denial. In 1871 Duffy was called on to form a Ministry and himself took the post of Chief Secretary. The Assembly was adverse to the new men, and Duffy declared that he disregarded the verdict of the House and "looked over the heads of the representatives to the people beyond them." He went through the country making a series of passionate speeches addressed to the people, but the Governor refused him a dissolution, and the Duffy Ministry resigned. At the General Election of 1877 he was elected member for North Gippsland, and was chosen Speaker in succession to Sir Charles Macmahon. The salary attached to the office is £1500 a year, but Duffy in consideration of his holding a pension was allowed £2000. He was knighted in 1873 at the suggestion of Mr. Gladstone, then Prime Minister, whom he had lauded in his speeches to the people in 1872 as "the leader of the Liberal party of the universe." Duffy has taken an active part in the discussion of the federation of the colonies, and in promoting the cultivation of the Fine Arts in the colony.

DUGONG, or Sea-cow (the *Halicorn Australis*) is found in the Queensland waters and is allied

to the animal found in the Indian Seas, but is believed to be a distinct species. The Dugong is a genus of mammalia of the family *Manatidae* or herbivorous *Cetacea*, distinguished by molar teeth with flat summits and composed of two cones laterally united, the incisors of the upper jaw elongated almost into tusks; the tail forked or crescent shaped, and the swimming paws destitute of any vestige of nails. One species alone has been thoroughly ascertained and accurately described. The Dugong of the Indian Archipelago is said to attain a length of twenty feet when full grown, although it is more frequently seen of only eight to ten feet long. In general form it much resembles the Manatee. The skull is remarkable for the sudden bending downwards of the upper jaw almost at a right angle. The upper lip is large, thick and fleshy, covering the prominent incisors, and forming a kind of snout something like the trunk of the elephant cut short across. The eyes are very small and are furnished with a third eyelid, or nictitating membrane. The skin is smooth and thick but yields no oil. The anatomy of the Dugong has been very carefully examined. It exhibits a remarkable peculiarity in the ventricles of the heart being completely detached from one another. Its osteology has been found to exhibit interesting points of correspondence with that of the *Pachydermata*, as in the numerous ribs &c., its dentition resembles in some particulars that of the Elephant; its digestive apparatus is adapted to vegetable food, differing very much from that of the whales, dolphins and other ordinary *Cetaceans*. It feeds on the *Algae* which grow on submarine rocks in shallow seas. Its lips are of much use in gathering together its food. It often comes to the surface to breathe and is said to utter a peculiar cry. It is gregarious. The female produces one young one at a birth and shows an affection for it which is proverbial amongst the Malays. When the young one is taken the mother is easily secured. The Dugong is generally pursued in boats and killed by spearing. The flesh is highly esteemed even by Europeans, and is described as resembling young beef. That of full-grown animals is however comparatively coarse; on which account and the greater facility of capture the younger ones are more frequently killed.

DUNEDIN, the capital of the provincial district of Otago, and the largest and most important commercial city in N.Z., is situated on a picturesque site at the south-western side of a bay running inland, about nine miles from Port Chalmers, with which it is connected by a railway. The settlement of Otago was projected in 1846; and under the auspices of an association of members of the Free Kirk of Scotland, Dunedin was founded in 1848. From the exclusive nature of its settlers, and the natural difficulties to be overcome in a new country, it made little progress till 1861, when gold-fields of extraordinary richness were

discovered at Gabriel's Gully about seventy-two miles from town. Crowds of diggers poured in from all parts of Australia, and from this date Dunedin became a scene of busy industry. Its streets are well paved and lighted with gas. It is supplied with water from a reservoir constructed at the head of the Water of Leith valley. During the last few years a large number of substantial buildings have been erected, rendering an air of permanency and wealth to the business portion of the city. A town hall and a Roman Catholic cathedral are in course of construction. An Anglican and a Roman Catholic bishop have sees here. Several manufactories are in existence, among others a woollen factory where superior cloth is made. The population is 22,525, and with the suburbs about 27,000. In 1878 the annual rateable value of property was £248,000. Dunedin has a pleasant aspect as viewed from the bay. Many of the dwelling-houses are built on the hills within the city boundary, and the fine foliage of the trees surrounding them gives the place a cheerful appearance. The longest street from east to west is High-street, about one mile. In the centre of the city is the Octagon, and around the landward sides a belt of 560 acres is set apart for the recreation of the inhabitants. The banking establishments and retail houses are mostly in Princes-street and at the south end of George-street. Some of the shops would do credit to Princes-street, Edinburgh, after which city Dunedin and its streets are named. The public buildings are handsome and numerous. The principal are the University, High School, Government offices, and Provincial Council Hall, the new Museum, each of which has an imposing appearance, while the first Presbyterian Church with its white and solid masonry is claimed to be the finest ecclesiastical edifice south of the equator. Dunedin is held by its citizens to be the "Modern Athens" of the south. The name given by the immigrants of 1861 to the first residents—the "old identities"—still adheres to them. The characteristic difference between the two classes was very distinctly marked and is not yet wholly effaced. The Princess theatre was burnt down in 1875 but has been rebuilt. In September 1879 a very disastrous fire occurred, when many lives were lost.

DUNGOG, a township in N.S.W., picturesquely situated on the west bank of the River Williams, thirty-one miles from Maitland and 131 miles N. of Sydney. The surrounding district is chiefly agricultural, and the population is about 400. Wells, in his *Geographical Dictionary* (1848) writes enthusiastically of this little place:—"This is one of the most noted villages of N.S.W. Its position was happily chosen on the banks of the River Williams in the county of Durham, a considerable way below the Chichester river, which with the Williams flows from the Mount Royal Hills. Both rivers are famous for the clearness and purity of their streams. The village covers a succession of ridges which fall into one another like the fingers

of clasped hands. The ridges are thinly wooded, and ample ground has been preserved by her Majesty's Government for promenade and circular pleasure grounds near the beautiful reaches and bends of the river. Mechanics of every trade swell the population, and from one end of the village to the other the voices of children and the hum of industry fall upon the ear. There are two schools and two large excellent inns. Many excellent dwelling houses, a court house and look-up, and a handsome horse barracks. The village can also boast of a peal of bells and a band of music. There is a magnificent steam flour mill now completing, and a church in perspective. Public feeling and opinion are as freely diffused as the metallic stars from the hand of that universal hero of all villages, the Knight of the Anvil. The vicinity of Dungog has long been justly celebrated for its agricultural produce. There are likewise some magnificent estates in the immediate neighbourhood; especially those of the late Chief Justice, and 'Thalaba' which belonged to the late Mr. Matcham, who was a nephew of the immortal Lord Nelson. Thalaba is a most valuable property, and was originally given to Major Sullivan as a grant. There are also several other places worthy of remark for the gigantic exertions of the occupiers. Hatfield Park is by far the greatest grain growing farm, but Blairbeth may be pointed to as a specimen of what Highland blood and bone can accomplish; and a little way beyond the above farm is one equally wonderful which is also in the hands of a native of the Highlands of Scotland, the great Lord Ray's piper. Near this there are also many portions of land in the possession of natives of the Emerald Isle, who also display great perseverance and labour in cutting down the impenetrable forest, and clothing the earth with waving grain."

DUNOLLY, a mining township in V. 107 miles N.W. from Melbourne, with which it is connected by railway. Gold is found both in quartz reefs and alluvial deposits. It is stated there are 185 distinct reefs, all more or less auriferous, in the mining division. These reefs are found to contain iron, manganese, and copper, the latter only in small quantities. A lode of antimony has also been discovered. Dunolly is famous for deposits of kaolin, which is said to be of pure quality. Slate has been discovered a short distance from the town. One of the largest nuggets in the world was found here in 1869; it weighed 2280 ounces, its value being £9534. A number of Chinamen employ themselves in the surface diggings. Dunolly is the centre of a large agricultural district. The total population of the township is about 1500.

D'URBAN'S GROUP, the highest elevated group of hills in the district of Wellington N.S.W., being nearly 600 feet above the level of the plain in which it rises. It lies to the S.S.W. of Oxley's table land, from which it is distant forty miles, and is situated to the eastward of Darling River.

The group was named by Mitchell after General Sir Benjamin D'Urban, an old Peninsular officer and Governor of the Cape of Good Hope.

DU SEJOUR CAPE is the westernmost point of Cambridge Gulf, N.W. Australia, sighted by D'Entrecasteaux in 1791, and named by him after a celebrated French astronomer.

DUTCH NAVIGATORS (EARLY.) The Dutch were undeniably the first practical discoverers of Australia. Repeated and most persevering attempts to discover the Great South Land were made by them at the end of the sixteenth and commencement of the seventeenth centuries. These efforts were so successful that they are able to produce unimpeachable testimony of having landed on the shores of Australia in March 1606. The Dutch government at Bantam in Java had in the latter part of 1605 despatched a small vessel named the *Duyfhen* to explore the coasts of New Guinea. Not knowing of the existence of the Straits shortly afterwards discovered by Torres, this vessel continued her course to the south, along as her crew considered the western shores of that country, but in reality along the eastern shore of the Gulf of Carpentaria. She proceeded as far as Cape Turnagain, here having landed some of her men were killed by the aborigines. The *Duyfhen's* crew were therefore the first Europeans to touch Australian ground. From want of provisions the vessel was obliged to return to Bantam, which it reached in June 1606. In the instructions given to Tasman for his subsequent voyage in 1644 it is stated that "in 1616, 1618, 1619, and 1622, the west coast of this Great Unknown South Land, from 35° to 22° south latitude, was discovered by outward-bound ships and among them by the ship *Eendracht*." The recital gives no further particulars, but from thence and from a manuscript chart by Essel Gerrits dated 1627 there seems to be sufficient authority for attributing the first authenticated discovery of any part of the western coasts to Dirk Hartichs (commonly but incorrectly named Hartog) who commanded the *Eendracht*. He sailed from Holland for the East Indies early in 1616. In latitude 25° S. he fell in with the western coast of the continent, which he named Eendracht's Land. A small island and adjacent roadstead lying on the western side of the bay, afterwards named Sharks Bay by Dampier, still bears the name of Dirk Hartog's Island. In 1697 and again in 1801 there was found on this island a plate of tin with an inscription of which the following is a translation:—"Anno 1616, the 25th of October, arrived here the ship *Eendracht* of Amsterdam; the first merchant, Gillis Miebaïs of Luik; Dirk Hartog of Amsterdam, captain. They sailed from hence to Bantam the 27th of the same month." On the lower part was cut, but hardly distinguishable, "The under-merchant, Jan Stins; chief mate, Pieter Dookus of Bill." Two years after the land extending from the North-West Cape to the 15th parallel of

south latitude was discovered by another Dutch captain named Zeachen, who also appears to have discovered and surveyed a considerable portion of the northern coast, which he named the Land of Arnheim. In 1619 Captain John Van Edels visited the western coast to the southward of Eendracht's Land, and gave his name to part of it. In 1622 the South-West Cape was discovered, with the land extending to the northward as far as Van Edel's Land, and was named, probably from the vessel in which the discovery was effected, Landt Van De Leeuwin, or the Land of the Lions. Five years afterwards a considerable part of the southern coast was discovered by Captain Peter Van Nuyts, who gave it his name; and in 1628 the line of coast between Eendracht's Land and the discoveries of Zeachen was discovered by a vessel belonging to the Dutch East India Company, and named De Witts Land in honour of the commodore who then commanded the Dutch East Indian Squadron. During the same year Captain Peter Carpenter, a naval commander in the service of the same company, entered and explored the Gulf of Carpentaria on the northern coast of the continent. In January 1623 the yachts *Pera* and *Arnheim*, under the command of Jan Carstens, were despatched from Amboyna. The commander with eight of his crew was treacherously murdered by the natives of New Guinea, but the vessels prosecuted the voyage and discovered "the great island Arnheim and the Spent." They were then untimely separated and the *Arnheim* returned to Amboyna. But the *Pera* persisted and sailed along the south coast of New Guinea to a flat cove situate in 10° south latitude, and ran along the west coast of this land to Cape Keer-Weer (Turnagain) and from thence discovered the coast farther southward as far as 170° to the Staten River. The *Pera* then returned to Amboyna. "In this discovery," says the navigator, "we found everywhere shallow water and barren coasts, islands altogether thinly populated by divers cruel, poor and brutal nations, and of very little use to the Company"—that is, the Dutch East India Company. In 1636 Gerrit Tomaz Pool was sent from Bantam on a fresh expedition to the south. He unhappily met the same fate as Carstens at New Guinea. But the expedition was continued by Pieter Pietersen the supercargo, and sailed along "the coast of Arnheim or Van Diemen's Land," by which names the northern part of the continent was then called by the Dutch, for a distance of 120 miles, "without seeing any people but many signs of smoke." This appears to have been the last attempt of the Dutch to explore the coasts of the continent.

DUTTON, FRANCIS S. (1816-1877) came to Sydney in 1839 and joined his elder brothers William and Frederic in Sydney. He then went overland to Melbourne and remained there about eighteen months. In 1841 he joined his brother Frederic in S.A. and from that time his career was identified with that colony. In 1844 he

discovered the Kapunda copper mine, which he sold in 1845. He was a member of the Legislative Council from 1851 to 1857 and of the Legislative Assembly from 1857 to 1865. He was Minister for Crown Lands from 1857 to 1859, and again for a short time in 1863, after his return from England, where he had been Commissioner for the colony in the Exhibition of 1862. In 1865 he returned to power as Minister for Public Works. In the course of the year he resigned, and received the appointment of Agent-General for the colony in England, for which his energy and business talents peculiarly qualified him.

E.

EAGAR, GEOFFREY (1818—) a native of Sydney, entered public life in 1859 on his appointment to a seat in the Legislative Council; in the same year he accepted office as Secretary for Public Works in the Forster Administration, and during its continuance acted as its representative in the Upper House. He subsequently resigned his seat in the Council, and in July 1863 was elected one of the representatives for West Sydney. He accepted office in the following October as Treasurer in the first Martin Administration; was elected a second time for West Sydney in 1865; in January 1866 again became Treasurer in the second Martin Administration; sat in Parliament in 1868 and subsequently held the office of Under Secretary for Finance and Trade. Eagar served altogether as a Minister of the Crown for four years and five months, and by the Queen's authority retains the title of Honourable. He was distinguished in his ministerial capacity for his clear and comprehensive Financial Statements, and was acknowledged to stand in the foremost rank of Parliamentary speakers.

EBDEN, CHARLES HOTSON, came to Port Phillip about 1840, and engaged in pastoral pursuits. In 1843 he was elected at the head of the poll as representative of the district in the Legislative Council of N.S.W., and served the full term of five years. At the second election in 1848 he refused to be nominated, declaring that the representation was merely a farce. On the establishment of self-government he was appointed Auditor-General by Mr. Latrobe, and under the new constitution was Treasurer of the Haines administration.

ECHUCA, a township in V., formerly Hopwood's Ferry, so called after Mr. Hopwood who made it a principal crossing-place for stock, is a border and borough town of V. and is situated on a peninsula formed by the Murray and Campaspe rivers, 156 miles N. of Melbourne. It is the terminus of the Murray River Railway and the entrepot of the overland intercolonial trade. Besides railway communication steamers ply during the winter months to Albury and the intermediate ports on the one

hand, and to S.A. and the N.S.W. ports on the Murrumbidgee and Darling rivers on the other. The port of Echuca is only second to Melbourne in the amount of tonnage inwards and outwards. There are upwards of thirty-five river steamers and about seventy barges employed. By arrangement with and at the part cost of the N.S.W. Government a bridge costing £100,000 now connects Echuca with Moama, on the N.S.W. side of the Murray, and a railway constructed principally by Victorian capitalists extends from Moama to Deniliquin. The district until lately was a pastoral one, very flat and liable to inundation in the rainy season. It is now extensively settled upon and much farming is carried on. A large trade is carried on in native red-gum timber. The Echuca vineyard is one of the sights of the place and is a thriving local industry. The inhabitants number 2900.

ECLIPSE ISLES, a group of small islands lying off the south-west coast of the continent a little to the south-west of King George's Sound, were discovered and named by Vancouver in 1791.

EDWARDS, CAPTAIN. In 1791 the frigate *Pandora*, Captain Edwards, was wrecked on a reef in Torres Straits, when thirty-nine lives were lost. Not being able to save anything from the wreck he, almost destitute of provisions and water, set sail with the remainder of the crew in four open boats to the north coast of Australia. From one part of the coast two canoes, with three natives in each, paddled after the boat and waved signs, but it was not thought prudent to wait for them. At one of the York Isles the natives for some trifling presents filled a keg of water for them. Soon after they let fly a shower of arrows amongst the unfortunate sufferers, but happily no person was wounded, and the natives were put to flight by a volley of musketry. At the Prince of Wales Islands good water was found and the sufferings of the party were much alleviated. To a large sound there Edwards gave the name of Sandwich Sound; and to a bay in it the name of Wolfe's Bay. On 2nd September with his little squadron he passed out to the northward and reached Timor in a few days.

EEENDRACHT'S LAND, the name given by Dutch geographers to that part of the continent lying between 35° and 22° south latitude, from the name of the vessel commanded by Dirk Hartog.

ELDER, SIR THOMAS, a native of Scotland, came to S.A. in 1854 and engaged with his brother in extensive mercantile transactions. To him the colonists are indebted for some of their most profitable enterprises. He commenced the operations at the Moonta Copper Mines. He introduced camels into the colony, and fitted out three exploring expeditions at his own expense. He gave a donation of £20,000 towards the endowment of the University of Adelaide. In 1869 he was elected a member of the Legislative Council, but resigned his seat in 1878 and went to Paris as Honorary

Commissioner for South Australia at the Paris International Exhibition. He was knighted for his public services in May 1878.

ELKINGTON, JOHN SIMEON, M.A., Professor of History and Political Economy in the Melbourne University, was educated in the University, where he graduated in 1866. In the same year he was appointed by the Board of Education one of the inspectors of schools for the colony. He was chosen in 1875 lecturer and examiner in history and political economy in the University, and in April 1879 was promoted by the Council of the University to the professorship of those branches.

ELLENBOROUGH RIVER, in N.S.W., a branch of the Hastings, was discovered and named by Oxley in honour of the Lord Chief Justice of England.

ELLERY, ROBERT L. J. (1827—) Government Astronomer of V., came to Melbourne in 1851, and shortly after his arrival was requested by Governor Latrobe to establish and take charge of an observatory at Williamstown, for the purpose of providing increased security against maritime disasters. He accepted the invitation, commenced work in 1853, and continued his labours until 1858 when he was requested to arrange and direct the geodetic survey of V., which was begun about the end of the same year. In 1863 the observatory at Williamstown was transferred to Melbourne and amalgamated with the Physical Observatory previously conducted by Professor Neumayer. Aided by the great Melbourne telescope (one of the best that has yet been constructed) Ellery has done a large amount of useful work in the southern heavens, and made many most valuable additions to sidereal astronomy.

ENCOUNTER BAY, a deep bight on the south coast of the continent, a little to the eastward of St. Vincent Gulf. It was discovered by Flinders in 1802 and was so called by him from his here falling in with Baudin's fleet. It comprises Victor Harbour, Port Elliott, and the mouth of the Murray.

ENDEAVOUR RIVER, in Q., on the north-east coast of the continent, a little to the south of Cape Bedford. At this river Cook repaired his ship after having been for many hours on a coral reef. It is a good port for small vessels, but the entrance is defended by a bar, on which at high water there is about fourteen feet of depth, and not more than ten at low water. Cooktown is the township. The river bears the name of Cook's ship.

ENDEAVOUR STRAIT, at the north-east corner of the continent between the Prince of Wales Islands and Cape York, was discovered and named by Cook after his ship.

ESCAPE RIVER, on the north-east corner of the continent, a little to the south of Cape York, received its name in record of one of the narrow

escapes King met with; he having been nearly wrecked there in attempting to enter the river. It is not navigable; a reef extending across its mouth.

ESPERANCE BAY, a beautiful harbour in D'Entrecasteaux Channel on the south coast of T., was so called from the ship of the French navigator.

ESSINGTON, PORT, on the northern coast of the continent, was discovered and named by King in 1818. A settlement was formed here by the Imperial Government in 1831, under the superintendence of Sir Gordon Bremer R.N. It was intended as a military post and harbour of refuge for distressed vessels. It received no support from private settlers; consequently it secured very little public attention. No attempt appears to have been made on any extensive scale to test the producing capabilities of the country. This establishment existed for nineteen years, being finally abandoned in 1850. It was during this period that Leichhardt made his memorable journey from Sydney to Port Essington. Previously settlements had been formed by Sir Gordon Bremer both on Melville Island in 1824, and also at Raffles Bay near Port Essington. At each of these places a number of buffalos were turned out, and these have increased to such an extent that at the present day large herds may be met with for more than 100 miles along the coast in the neighbourhood of Port Essington, where there are also a few English cattle and Timor ponies. Another attempt at settlement was made in 1837. On 27th October a military post, with H.M.S. *Britomart* as tender, was established here for the double purpose of affording shelter to the crews of vessels wrecked in Torres Straits, and of endeavouring to throw open to British enterprise the neighbouring islands of the Indian Archipelago. After having struggled unsuccessfully for twelve years to rear sufficient food for themselves, and having lost a number of their men through privations and hardships and the unhealthiness of the climate, the sappers and miners finally abandoned the settlement named Victoria on 30th November 1849.

EVANS, GEORGE W., explorer, was Deputy Surveyor General of N.S.W. in 1813, and in that year was despatched from Sydney with an exploring party to follow up the discoveries previously made by Lawson, Blaxland, and Wentworth in the Blue Mountains. On the fifth day after crossing the Nepean the party, having effected their passage over the mountains, arrived at a valley on the western side which they described as fertile and beautiful with a rapid stream running through it. Continuing in a westerly direction for twenty-one days from this station, they at length found it necessary to return; and on 8th January 1814 arrived at Emu Island after an absence of seven weeks. One of the extensive tracts which Evans discovered was named Bathurst Plains, in honour of Lord

Bathurst, and the streams he traced for some distance were called the Macquarie and Lachlan rivers, in honour of the Governor. Evans subsequently accompanied Oxley in his explorations along the course of these two rivers in 1817 and 1818.

EVANS'S CROWN, a mountain of N.S.W. situated between Antonio's Creek and the Fish River, from whence Evans discovered the plains of Bathurst. It lies at a short distance from the Fish River and is a singular and beautiful granite peak; its summit is crowned with a large and extraordinary looking rock nearly circular in form, which gives it the appearance of a hill fort such as are frequent in India. It was named Mount Evans by the discoverer and has since acquired the more popular name.

EYRE, EDWARD JOHN (1815—) Australian explorer and afterwards Governor of St. Vincent, was a settler in S. A. when he started in June 1840 with an expedition into the interior. He was to ascertain the extent and nature of Lake Torrens; and if possible he was to penetrate to the centre of the continent. He found the southern shores of Lake Torrens desolate and dreary. Leaving Lake Torrens Eyre threw himself entirely upon Flinders Range, hoping that the slopes of its hills would furnish sufficient water to his party in their progress northward. But the country settled down into a desolate level. One peak still rose from the plain which he named Mount Hopeless, and from this he decided to take his last observation. Without food for the horses or water the party ascended to the summit of this mountain. Supposing that his only means of escape was by descending to either of its southern extremities he returned to the head of Spencer's Gulf, where an isthmus separates the gulf from Lake Torrens, and crossed into the Port Lincoln district, intending to resume his northern course when sufficiently clear of the lake. Repeated attempts proved the impracticability of forcing a passage northward from this portion of the coast; the country after advancing a few miles inland was an impenetrable scrub; and a total absence of food and water for the cattle drove the expedition back. Leaving the main portion of his men at Fowler's Bay Eyre made three several attempts to reach the Great Bight, and after encountering great hardships he rounded it. Eyre on his return to Fowler's Bay sent the men composing it back to Adelaide. The south coast from Fowler's Bay was an unbroken sheet of limestone. He set out from Fowler's Bay to reach King George's Sound. In undertaking this most forbidding task Eyre had determined to risk the life of no European save himself. The men composing his first expedition had therefore been sent back to Adelaide. But the overseer of the party, a man of great energy and courage, refused to leave his leader. In addition he retained three aboriginal young men, one of them named Wylie, a native of King George's Sound. "We were now alone," he writes, "myself, my

overseer and the three native boys, with a fearful task before us. The bridge was broken down behind us and we must succeed in reaching King George's Sound or perish." Having made bags to hold water and having given the cattle sufficient rest, Eyre commenced his journey. His stock of provisions then consisted of some sheep and a few bags of flour. The head of the Great Bight was again rounded and the same forbidding nature of the country was found to extend along its western arm, the only water being procured from beneath the sand hills occurring at intervals of one and two hundred miles. Eyre's progress during one of these intervals may be sketched thus:—After a halt of three or four days at one of these groups of sand hills to recruit, the horses were again loaded for a fresh start; the bags were filled with water and other necessary baggage. On the fourth day the horses' strength would begin to fail and it became necessary to lighten their load, the rejected articles being left on the roadside. On the fifth and sixth days the horses became totally exhausted, and no exertions could force them to proceed farther. Leaving them also stretched on the wayside, Eyre and his men with the empty water-bags hurried forward until the next group of sand hills appeared above the horizon. Arriving at these they immediately proceeded to scoop out a well. Reaching the surface of the limestone they quenched their thirst and took a few hours rest while the water-bags were filling. The whole party then shouldered their bags and proceeded back to their horses, and these they succeeded in bringing by easy stages to the sand hills. Having brought every thing living to the water, the most laborious task yet remained. The provisions still lay strewn along the track and it was necessary to go back and collect them. In addition to these immense labours Eyre and the overseer had more. The horses notwithstanding their fatigue from want of water were restless at night, and when not closely watched they seized every opportunity to return to the last watering place—the scattered position of the few tufts of herbage rendering it impossible to tether them, nor could so important a task be left to the aborigines. Eyre and the overseer agreed to divide each night between them so as by strict watch to ensure the possession of the horses in the morning. In this manner Eyre and his small party had toiled on for a couple of months. In the midst of one of these long stages between water and water they had encamped for the night, and Eyre had taken first watch over the horses. While he was musing on his gloomy prospect he was startled by a flash and a report; hastening to the camp he was met by Wylie who was speechless with terror, and could only wring his hands and cry "Oh Massa!" When he entered he saw Baxter lying on the ground, whilst the baggage was broken open and scattered in all directions. He raised the wounded man in his

arms, but only in time to support him as his head fell back in death. Then placing the body on the ground and looking around him he perceived that two of his natives had plundered the provisions, shot Baxter as he rose to remonstrate with them, and had then escaped. The moon became obscured, and in the deep gloom beside the dead body of his friend Eyre passed a fearful night, peering into the darkness lest the miscreants might be lurking to shoot him also. He says in his diary:—"Ages can never efface the horrors of that single night; nor would the wealth of the world ever tempt me to go through a similar one." The slow-spreading dawn revealed the bleeding corpse, the plundered bags, and the crouching form of Wylie who was still faithful. The ground at this place consisted of a great hard sheet of rock, and there was no chance of digging a grave; so Eyre could only wrap the body in a blanket, leave it lying on the surface, and thus take farewell of his friend's remains. Then he and Wylie set out on their mournful journey. They had very little water and seven days elapsed before they reached a place where more was to be obtained. They could see at intervals the murderers stealthily following their footsteps. The two travellers were now obliged to live chiefly on their horses, curing the flesh in the sun and carrying on a sufficient quantity for some days' consumption. At length a whaling barque was sighted off the coast, and on perceiving their signals the commander, Captain Rossiter of the French whaling ship *Mississippi* sent a boat for them, and they were received on board with much hospitality. After recruiting themselves here for some weeks they were again landed within easy reach of the settlement at King George's Sound, where they arrived in July 1841 after an absence of over twelve months from Adelaide. In 1845 Eyre returned to England, and in 1846 was appointed by Earl Grey Lieutenant-Governor of N.Z., as second to Sir George Grey. He remained in this office six years, residing generally at Wellington, but administering the Government of the Middle Island. He returned to England in 1853, and a year afterwards was appointed Lieutenant-Governor of St. Vincent in the West Indies; in 1859 he was Acting-Governor of Antigua and the Leeward Islands; in 1860 he returned to England; and in 1862 he was appointed Acting-Governor of Jamaica. An insurrection broke out in this island in 1865 which Eyre vigorously repressed, but his conduct on this occasion involved him in very serious disputes, ending in legal proceedings both civil and criminal, extending over four years, and entailing an expenditure for his defence of £10,000. In every instance however the proceedings failed to substantiate any case against Eyre. The report of a select committee of the House of Commons also exonerated him from blame. But he was recalled in 1866, and subsequently obtained an appointment from the Imperial Government.

EYRE'S CREEK, in central N.S.W., was discovered by Sturt in 1845 and named by him after Eyre the explorer.

EYRE'S PENINSULA, a vast tract of country in S.A. lying between Spencer's Gulf on the W. and Anxious Bay on the E. and being the country traversed by Eyre in his exploration journeys of 1839 and 1840. It consists chiefly of rugged, densely scrubbed plains, almost destitute of water, although some country available for pastoral purposes has been found along the border of the coast. The middle of this tract is a table land lying about 1300 feet above the level of the sea, with several peaks and flat-topped hills. There are low ranges of hills, as the Baxter, Middleback and Olinthus ranges to the E., the Liverpool to the S.E., and a lofty granite range, the Gawler to the W. Near the S. point of the peninsula which is a nearly equilateral triangle of 200 miles each side, the apex being to the S., is the township of Port Lincoln. The entire country consists of sandy and limestone plains with a few granite ridges and numerous salt lagoons. There are a few freshwater springs on the W. side.

F.

FAIRFAX, JOHN (1804-1877) journalist, was a native of Warwick in England. Having served an apprenticeship to the printing trade and gained some experience in journalism, he came to N.S.W. in 1838. His first employment was that of librarian to the Australian Library. He was next engaged by the proprietor of the *Sydney Morning Herald*. Charles Kemp was then reporter on the *Herald* and became associated with Fairfax. These two had between them the qualifications necessary for successfully carrying on such a paper, and the proprietor wishing to retire he offered to sell it to them. Though their own financial resources at that time were not sufficient to carry on the paper they agreed to the purchase, obtaining such pecuniary help as enabled them to tide over the first difficulties; and by prudent management and untiring energy they soon made themselves independent. In 1851 Fairfax returned to Leamington after thirteen years absence, for the honourable purpose of paying off debts he had left due in 1838—the costs in an action for libel brought against him in consequence of some strictures on a public officer, and which was given in his favour. He returned to Sydney in 1853. Shortly after his return the partnership was dissolved, Fairfax purchasing the share of his former partner and thus becoming sole proprietor of the *Herald*. He afterwards took his sons into partnership with him. One use which Fairfax made of the opportunities afforded by his visit to England was to observe the latest improvements in printing and journalism produced by the devotion of intellect and manual skill to this kind of enterprise. After

his return to Sydney he sought to turn his observations to account by a judicious and spirited expenditure on his establishment. Whilst vigilant in the exercise of economy he was generous to the persons in his employment, and thus enlisted skill, industry and zeal in his service. He again visited England about 1863, and continued his well-directed efforts for the improvement of the paper in all respects. He was a liberal supporter of various public charities, a generous friend to many who needed help, and a leading member of the Congregational Church. In 1874 he was appointed member of the Legislative Council. For twenty years he took an active part in the management of the Australian Mutual Provident Society. He died at his residence at Port Jackson, 16th June 1877. He left two sons, James Reading and Edward Fairfax, who are now proprietors of the *Sydney Morning Herald*, one of the leading journals of the British empire.

FALLON, JAMES THOMAS (1823—) wine-grower, is a native of Ireland. He came to N.S.W. in 1842, and in 1854 settled in Albury. In 1858 a company was formed there for the growth and manufacture of wine. It did not prove commercially successful, and the property was sold to Fallon. In 1872 he visited the wine-producing countries of France, Germany and Italy. In 1873 his wines took the first prize at the Vienna Exhibition, and in 1875 at an Exhibition in London. Fallon has the largest vineyards and cellars in Australia, and is one of the most enterprising and successful wine-growers. In 1876 he manufactured champagne from Australian grapes.

FALMOUTH, a town on the E. coast of T., at the head of St. George's Bay. It is a safe and convenient harbour for vessels of fifteen feet draught of water.

FARNELL, JAMES SQUIRE (1827—) a native of N.S.W., was educated at Parramatta his native town, and subsequently travelled over a great part of the colony, and visited California, the South Sea Islands and N.Z. In 1859 he was elected member of the Assembly for St. Leonards, and in 1860 sat for Parramatta. He subsequently became Chairman of Committees, in which capacity he obtained the goodwill of the House. In 1872 he took office in the Parkes Administration as Minister for Lands, which position he held until 1875. In December 1877 he became Premier and Minister for Lands, but failing to pass his Land Bill he resigned in December 1878. He represents St. Leonards in the Assembly and is Grand Master of the newly-formed N.S.W. Constitution of Freemasons.

FARQUHAR INLET, the southern entrance of the Manning River in N.S.W. was named by Oxley after Sir Walter Farquhar.

FAUCETT, PETER, Judge of the Supreme Court in N.S.W., a native of Ireland, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He graduated B.A. in 1842, was called to the Bar in 1845,

arrived in Sydney in 1852, and having been admitted to the colonial Bar entered on the practice of his profession. In 1856 he was returned to the first Parliament under the new Constitution Act for King and Georgiana, and in 1860 for East Sydney. In 1863 he was made Solicitor-General, and in October 1865 was appointed a Judge of the Supreme Court.

FAUNA OF AUSTRALIA.—The animal kingdom as developed in Australia presents us with anomalies and peculiarities perhaps even more remarkable than are exhibited by the plants; but owing to the great difference in the powers of dispersal of the various animal groups, there is less uniformity in the phenomena they present. Judged by its highest group—the mammalia—Australia is by far the poorest and the most extremely isolated of all the continents, and this class affords us the most certain proofs that no part of the country has been united to the Asiatic continent since the latter part of the Mesozoic period of geology. Every one of the most characteristic and wide-spread groups of the entire Northern Hemisphere are here wanting. There are no apes or monkeys; no oxen, antelopes, or deer; no elephants, rhinoceroses, or pigs; no cats, wolves, or bears; none even of the smaller civets or weasels; no hedgehogs or shrews; no hares, squirrels, porcupines, or dormice. The only representatives of all these familiar groups, or of the orders to which they belong, are a number of peculiar species of rats and mice—all small; and the “dingo,” a half-wild dog, which although found in a semi-fossil state in some of the caves, was almost certainly introduced by or with the earliest human inhabitants. Yet there are a considerable variety of mammals indigenous to the country, but they are all so peculiarly Australian as to belong to distinct sub-classes—the marsupials and the monotremes, of which the only representatives in any other parts of the world are the opossums of America. These marsupials, or pouched animals, offer many peculiarities of organisation and habits; and the strange forms and motions of the kangaroos and wallabies, their erect attitudes, short fore-legs, and enormous powers of leaping, give perhaps its most special character to the animal life of this continent. None of the other classes of animals afford such a peculiar and isolated set of types. The majority of the birds, which are abundant and varied, do not materially differ from those of the other continents, though there are a number of interesting and some exceptional forms; such as the mound-builders, which do not incubate their eggs, and are perhaps as low a type as the marsupials. Reptiles, fishes and insects offer a still smaller number of peculiarities, though each afford some isolated and remarkable forms which will be noticed under their several classes.

MAMMALIA.—Australia, with Tasmania, possesses about 160 species of mammalia. This is very much less than the numbers inhabiting either Europe or North America; yet, considering the

much smaller area, the less diversity of surface and of climate, the isolation from all adjacent lands, and the limited amount of structural variation in the animals themselves, it must be considered as exhibiting an extraordinarily rich development. Of the above number twenty-three are bats, a group which, having the power of flight, agree with birds rather than with mammals in their relations with the species of surrounding countries. The bats belong in fact to groups either of world-wide distribution, or which at all events extend to India or Africa. The large fruit-eating bat, or flying-fox, is the most remarkable. It is found in N.S.W. and Q. There are no less than thirty-one species belonging to the mouse family. Some of these are true mice, closely allied to such as are found with us; others belong to distinct genera confined to Australia. Some live in trees, others are aquatic; but they are all rather small, and to an ordinary observer do not differ from such types of rats and mice as are found in Europe and Asia. In connection with the theory that Australia has never been joined to the Asiatic continent or any of its larger islands during the whole Tertiary epoch, it is a most suggestive fact that the only indigenous terrestrial mammalia allied to Old World forms should consist of these very small creatures, which are most likely to have been conveyed to its shores by accidental causes. When floods devastate the banks of tropical rivers, and carry out to sea uprooted trees and islands of floating vegetation, some of these very small mammals might find protection in holes and crevices which would not suffice to shelter larger animals, and might thus be sometimes floated to distant lands. Those which established themselves at a remote epoch have become modified in their new abode, and now form distinct groups; while the more recent arrivals are closely allied to the species of other lands. The “dingo” has already been referred to as probably not truly indigenous. It differs very little from the wild or half-wild dogs of India and other countries, and this is an indication that it is, geologically speaking, a recent immigrant; and there is no improbability in the supposition that the entrance of man into the country dates as far back as the cave-deposits in which its bones have been found. The shores of A. are inhabited by several species of seals and sea-lions allied to those of the other Antarctic lands, while on the warmer coasts of Queensland is found the sea-cow or dugong, allied to the animal found in the Indian seas, but believed to be a distinct species. We now come to the Marsupials, which are so especially characteristic of Australia. These are distinguished from all other mammals by the young being born in an excessively imperfect state, and then transferred to a pouch, or bag of loose skin, with which the mother is provided. Here it attaches its mouth to the nipple, and completes its development. As the young creature grows the pouch

is extended, and even when it can run about and feed itself, it still returns to the pouch for concealment or protection. This pouch is supported internally by bony processes termed the marsupial bones, and there are several other anatomical peculiarities by which the remains of marsupials of either sex can usually be distinguished. The largest and most remarkable marsupials now living are the kangaroos, of which about nine large and more than forty smaller species inhabit Australia. The great red kangaroo is five feet high, and sometimes weighs two hundred pounds. The smaller species are called wallabies, hare-kangaroos, and rat-kangaroos; and some of these abound in every part of the country. The larger kangaroos are hunted with dogs bred for the purpose. They are very swift, and when at bay dangerous: sitting upright against the trunk of a tree, and ripping open the dogs as they spring at its throat with the nail of the large and powerful middle toe. The bandicoots and rabbit-rats are small animals with sharp nose and long claws, allied to the kangaroos, but running on all fours like most quadrupeds. One genus is called the rabbit-rat because it forms burrows underground. Another peculiar form, the pig-footed bandicoot, is entirely tailless. In this family the marsupial pouch opens downward, instead of upwards as in the kangaroos. They all feed upon bulbs and roots. The phalangers are arboreal and nocturnal animals, feeding on leaves. They are commonly called opossums, but are quite distinct from the true opossums of America. They live in hollow trees and are very active on moonlight nights. They constitute a favourite food of the natives, and their skins form the opossum rugs now an article of commerce. Some of the species are as large as a hare while others are not larger than a dormouse, one indeed being even smaller. Allied to these are the beautiful flying-opossums, which have a lateral membrane between the fore and hind limbs and a flat tail with diverging hairs, exactly as in the flying squirrels of Asia which they greatly resemble. The largest species which is nearly black measures almost three feet in length to the tip of the tail, and presents a startling appearance to the stranger who sees it for the first time, by moonlight, pass silently through the air in the stillness of the forest. Other species are smaller, the flying-mouse of the colonists being one of the smallest of Australian quadrupeds, and able to sleep comfortably in a good-sized pill-box. It frequents the blossoms of the Eucalyptus, feeding on the honey. Allied to the other phalangers, but very distinct in form and habits, are the Tarsipes of W.A. and the Koalo of the eastern districts. The former is a true honeysucker with an extensile tongue and is no longer than a mouse; while the latter is a comparatively large and thick-limbed animal, entirely tailless and about two feet long. It is called "native bear" or "native monkey." The wombat is another large and thick-limbed animal, about three feet long

and next to the kangaroos the largest of marsupials. It is terrestrial and nocturnal, feeding upon roots and grass and forming deep burrows. It is slow in its movements, and its flesh is said to resemble pork. It has powerful gnawing and grinding teeth, and it possesses two more pairs of ribs than any other marsupial. It therefore constitutes a distinct family of the order. We now come to "native cats," which are carnivorous marsupials preying upon the other groups. These are elegant creatures, variously marked and spotted, but fierce and intractable. They dwell among rocks and in holes, and feed chiefly on small mammals and birds. Somewhat allied to these is the rare and curious banded ant-eater of W.A. It is the size of a squirrel, beautifully banded with white stripes, and with a long and somewhat bushy tail. It has fifty-two teeth, a greater number than any known quadruped, and is believed to feed chiefly on the ants which abound where it lives. It is probably a representative of one of the most ancient types of mammal, since more nearly than any other living animal it resembles some of the marsupials of the Secondary period. Two much larger and more destructive *Dasyuridæ* inhabit T.—the "tiger-wolf," and the "native devil." The former is the size of a wolf, the latter somewhat smaller. Both are ferocious and untameable, and very destructive to sheep. Though now confined to T. their remains are found fossil in the caves of N.S.W., showing that they inhabited the mainland at a not very distant epoch. We now come to the lowest group of mammals, consisting of two of the most remarkable animals on the globe, the duck-billed *Platypus* and the spiny ant-eater. These differ from all other groups of mammalia anatomically, and are the lowest in organisation. They have no teeth, nor a marsupial pouch, but they have the peculiar bones characteristic of marsupials. They were long believed not to be true mammals, but to be more allied to birds; but this is now known to be incorrect as they really suckle their young. The *Platypus* is about twenty inches long, has very short legs with broad webbed feet and a flat head, from which project two flat horny jaws almost exactly resembling the bill of a duck but not laminated, and the upper jaw has a broad membranous border. It is covered with thick brown fur, and inhabits the rivers and lagoons of the south and east of A. as well as T. It makes burrows in the river banks, sometimes forty or fifty feet long, in the extremity of which it forms a nest. The porcupine ant-eater somewhat resembles a hedgehog in size and appearance, but it has a long snout and a long cylindrical and flexible tongue like that of the true ant-eaters, covered also with a viscous secretion, and used in the same way for capturing the ants on which it feeds. It rolls itself into a ball like the hedgehog. It is found in sandy and sterile districts. Two closely-allied species are known; the one inhabiting S. and E. A., the other T.

REPTILES, FISHES AND INSECTS.—Reptiles are very abundant, there being no less than 140 different kinds of lizards and between 60 and 70 snakes. The largest lizard is one of the monitors, which reaches a length of from four to six feet. Most of them belong to the Old World families of the skinks and geckoes, but there are three small families which are peculiar. The lizards of W.A. are very peculiar, no less than twelve genera being restricted to this colony with S.A., while V. and the eastern colonies have a much less number of special types. In this respect lizards agree with plants. Snakes are very abundant in individuals, and there are a large number of venomous species. The two chief poisonous families of the rest of the globe, the vipers and the pit-vipers, are entirely absent, their place being supplied by the family which includes the Indian cobras, but which have not the broad venomous-looking head of the vipers. Two-thirds of the snakes belong to this family, and all are poisonous though only about five are believed to be fatal to man. The number of species of snakes increases regularly from the temperate to the tropical districts. In T. there are only three species all of which are poisonous; in V. there are twelve; in S.A. fifteen; the same number in W.A.; thirty-one in N.S.W.; and forty-two in sub-tropical Q. The diamond snake reaches twelve feet long, but is quite harmless. The black snake, one of the commonest and most venomous species, is from five to eight feet long. There are many species of small sea-snakes on the warmer coasts, which have flattened tails and are all very venomous. A. possesses a large number of frogs and toads, belonging to nine distinct families; but there are no tailed Amphibia corresponding to the newts and salamanders of northern countries. The freshwater fish are tolerably plentiful, considering the paucity of large and permanent streams. The extensive carp and salmon tribes are absent, but ten families found in other warm and temperate countries are represented. The most remarkable of the fishes is the *Ceratodus* recently discovered in the rivers of Q. It is allied to the *Lepidosiren* of tropical America and the *Protopterus* of tropical Africa, the three constituting a distinct sub-class, an exceedingly ancient type, as shown by fossil remains. Insects as a whole are abundant, and are both handsome and remarkable; yet the most conspicuous group, the butterflies, are very scarce in the temperate parts, and only become tolerably abundant as we approach the tropics. T. and the southern colonies are in fact not so rich in butterflies as Great Britain. Beetles, on the other hand, are very abundant and varied and many of them are exceedingly brilliant. Those belonging to the family *Buprestidæ* are not surpassed in any other temperate country for numbers and beauty. The praying-insects and the walking-stick insects are also very abundant; and some of the latter are of enormous size, being over a foot long and curiously knobbed or spined so as to

resemble dead sticks. About 300 distinct kinds of land shells inhabit A., and many of them are curiously shaped or elegantly coloured.—(*Condensed from Wallace.*)

FAVENC, ERNEST, explorer, is a native of London, educated in Berlin, arrived in N.S.W. in 1863, resided in Sydney until the following year when he relinquished his commercial for a pastoral occupation. He commenced to gain the experience necessary to fit him for an explorer in the frontier squatting districts of Northern Q., where he was actively engaged during the early pioneering times. Subsequently he gave his attention to overlanding and indulged in writing for the Press under the *nom de plume* of "Dramingo." Not only is he expert and successful with the pen but he can use the pencil with artistic effect. These qualifications combined with his acknowledged skill and capacity as a bushman caused the proprietor of the *Queenslander* in 1879 to select him to explore the line of country extending from a point on the west boundary line of Q. to Port Darwin, with the view of solving the question as to whether a railway could be constructed across the continent along that route. The successful completion of the task without mishap proved that the choice was a right one, and that small smart and highly equipped exploring parties headed by the right man can do what larger and heavily-laden ones with the wrong man leading cannot effect.

FAWKNER, JOHN PASCOE (1792-1869) the "Father of Victoria," was a native of London. When ten years of age he with his mother and sister accompanied his father in the expedition sent out under the command of Collins to form a penal settlement in Australia in 1803. Removed afterwards to V.D.L. the Fawknor family lost no time in building a hut for themselves. His mother returned to Europe in two years, and the son and father lived for some years about eight miles from Hobart Town. The old man was well known for certain harmless peculiarities, not forsaking the ancient fashions of dress and preserving that rugged independence of manner which he communicated to his son. The little farm, a grant to the family, was no great success, and when eighteen years old Fawknor became a sawyer. In 1814 he was induced, in the enthusiasm of youth, indiscreetly to furnish funds and assist a party of seven persons to build and provide a cutter, lugger-rigged, in which they were to escape from their bondage in the island. The vessel was built, provisioned, and ready for sea when two of the number discovered the plot to the authorities. These two persons slipped the cable from the bay in which it had been built and ran the cutter up to Hobart Town, betraying all concerned; and Fawknor was included among the persons arrested by the Crown. The result of this act of indiscretion was that he left for Sydney, and did not return till March 1817. In 1826 he opened the Cornwall Hotel in Launceston, and conducted it with ability and success till 1836. In 1829 he

originated the *Launceston Advertiser*, and although he had an editor Fawcner himself wrote often in its pages. He disposed of this journal after carrying it on two years. To aid the ends of justice, that is, to afford some chance for the ignorant accused, certain parties were allowed to plead in the Police Court and received the honourable appellation of Agents. Fawcner was long an Agent in the ancient court of Launceston. In the primitive times of Port Phillip he performed the same duty in the rude police office of Melbourne. Such persons were commonly known as bush lawyers. His desire to expose abuses in government and point out improvements in legislation led him to become the father of the press in Launceston. He bitterly derided the efforts to capture the blacks in 1830, and predicted their certain failure. He espoused the cause of the oppressed, and it must be said to his honour that in a period of abundant secret service funds Fawcner was never known to betray the interests of the people. The narrative of his expedition to found a city and make a settlement in V. must be given in his own words slightly condensed:—"Early in the year 1835 the writer had arranged in his own mind a plan of colonisation for Port Phillip, and to enable him to make good his scheme five residents of Launceston were taken into his confidence. The colonisers were six in number; one ex-editor of the *Launceston Advertiser*, one architect and builder, two cabinetmakers and builders, one plasterer, and one captain in the merchant service. The most of them possessing at least a fair average share of common sense and no little activity. Each of them brought with him some capital in cash or stock, and a vast amount of the very best of capital, that without which no new colony can get on well, viz. hands used to work and minds resolved to labour. Fawcner, in order to insure the necessary means of transit to and from Port Phillip and Launceston, bought of John Anderson Brown the schooner *Enterprise*, of about fifty-five tons burthen. But Mr. B.'s agent had employed that vessel which had been sent to fetch coals from Newcastle, in the regular coal trade between Sydney and the coal mines of Newcastle, and thus the settlement of Port Phillip was retarded some weeks. On the 13th July 1835 the schooner *Enterprise* returned from Sydney, and on the 18th was duly delivered to Fawcner. On the 21st she was despatched from Launceston with the pioneers to form a new colony in N.S.W. No time had been lost in procuring provisions, a good whale boat and its fittings, and all such things as Fawcner thought might be useful or required in a place which few vessels visited. He particularly furnished common coarse food and clothing, together with blankets and tomahawks, knives and handkerchiefs suitable for the aborigines which were afterwards found very useful. Horses and ploughs, grain to sow, garden seeds and plants, and a very large and varied assortment of fruit trees, 2500 in number, were shipped on board, and

a stock of provisions to last some months, part of the materials for a house, and most of the comforts required in civilised life. On the 27th the *Enterprise* put to sea from George Town, the port of clearance, having on board Wm. Jackson, Geo. Evans, Robert Hay Moor, Captain John Lancey, and John Pascoe Fawcner. Evans took over one servant, and Fawcner put on board James Gilbert, blacksmith, and his wife Mary, Charles Wise, ploughman, and Thomas Morgan, general servant. The voyagers passed out with a fair wind, but a foul one soon set in, and for three nights and two days contrary weather kept the vessel almost within sight of George Town Heads. Fawcner became very ill from sea-sickness and other causes, and ordered the captain to return to George Town. He then resolved to let the expedition go on, giving them full written instructions to guide and direct their plan of operations. And landing one of his horses at George Town Fawcner proceeded overland to Launceston, and the *Enterprise* passed over to Western Port followed by a sloop, in which John Aitken embarked without a navigator, merely keeping up with the *Enterprise*, which from her slowness was no great difficulty. Aitken had been lying perdu in order to slip over with our party without our knowledge. This Western Port was to be carefully examined by a series of triangular marches each day, the bay forming the base, and ten miles or more was the distance they were to march inland, returning from four to five miles further west, or nearer the West Head, until the whole Bay was examined. They entered Western Port on Saturday the 8th August, and left it and passed into Port Phillip on Saturday the 15th August. One out of many bits of fun was often talked over in the Western Port exploration. The weather was very cold, and much rain had fallen, many swamps had to be crossed, and on one occasion the party had got very wet ashore, and when they pushed off the boat so thick a fog came on that the sailors missed their true course, and got on a sand flat. Imagine six men, no food, no bedding, hungry from a hard day's travel, and obliged to sit all night in a cold fog and wet clothes! One of the party, a cockney, bitterly lamented in a most droll manner the sorrow he felt for having suffered his brother to drag him from London; and putting up his hands in an imploring manner, earnestly prayed that he might once more reach Whitechapel, and nothing on earth should ever tempt him to leave that glorious spot again. Yet this man has, in defiance of bad management, made a fortune—and that a large one—by squatting pursuits. After carefully examining the lands around Western Port and giving them up as not likely to form a good site for any very dense population, the *Enterprise* pushed out of Western Port on Saturday the 15th August, about eight o'clock a.m. On passing the duck ponds near Shortland Bluff, a whale-boat manned with some Sydney aborigines and one white man came off and asked 'the news—where

from—and whereto,' and told our people that John Batman, KING of Port Phillip, had bought all the lands and desired ALL TRESPASSERS TO KEEP ALOOF! The blacks were civil enough and supplied our people with plenty of good choice fish. The *Enterprise* was conducted by Captain Hunter as Master of the vessel along the southern channel, and the men landed each day to examine the country from five to ten miles inland, the vessel only moving a short distance until they returned on board, and pushing a few miles further by night in order to examine new lands the next day. No eligible spot was found on the east side of Port Phillip Bay. The directions were not to finally settle down, except upon a river or copious supply of fresh water. On Thursday the 20th the *Enterprise* came to anchor in Hobson's Bay, just clear of the bar upon the channel to the Yarra Yarra; and the new colonists, R. H. Moor, George Evans, W. Jackson and Capt. Lancey, putting some provender into the five-oared whaleboat brought for the occasion, on Friday 21st August pushed off with two of the workmen to explore the inlet. In fact they all, except Capt. Hunter, Master of the *Enterprise*, doubted as to that being the debouchment of any stream. But he found it on his chart, and advised their trying to find what he was sure they would—a fresh water river. With three cheers from the crew for success to the adventurers they pushed off, and after once or twice touching on the mud flats they found plenty of deep water, and pushed on joyfully and thoughtlessly, passed the junction of the Yarra Yarra without much notice, and went up the direct course, named by them the Salt Water River because they could not get up it far enough to find the stream fresh owing to the vast number of fallen trees lying in the water, which so obstructed the navigation that after much labour they landed, and could not then discover the fresh water, the place that they landed at not allowing them to see the course of the stream. They returned to the vessel exhausted and fretful, having been most of the day without water to drink, they having on all former occasions found plenty of that element on shore. This was in August, the wet season. The next day they took water as well as food, and pushed up the Yarra Yarra, having noticed the opening thereto on their return from the Salt Water Stream; and after about an hour and quarter's pull they reached with great joy the basin at Melbourne, and were delighted, in fact half wild with exultation at the beauty of the country. The velvet-like grass carpet decked with flowers of most lively hues most liberally spread over the land, the fresh water, the fine lowlands and lovely knolls around the lagoons on the flat or swamps, the flocks almost innumerable of teal, ducks, geese and swans and minor fowls filled them with joy. They all with one voice agreed that they had arrived at the site of the new settlement, and resolved to have the vessel brought up if possible, the goods, stores, &c. landed and the commencement of a town forthwith

made. They took a stand upon what was subsequently called Batman's Hill, and passed some hours there and thereabout enjoying the novel and extraordinary view before them. They were so pleased with the country that they made it night before they returned to the vessel, which was lying opposite to Williams Town (that now is) near the bar entrance to the Yarra Yarra River. Capt. Hunter having been diligently employed these two days with his crew sounding the way up it took some time to provide poles and fix them on the various shoals in the stream, now marked by large buoys and strong beacons (but then markless;) and all this accomplished the vessel was with much trouble got up to the so-called junction, and the next day a fair wind drove the lucky *Enterprise* up into the basin at Melbourne; the Captain reporting three fathoms all the way up and in one part of the basin seven and a half fathoms of water, viz. from the junction up and into the basin. No time was lost although it was Sunday in getting the vessel close to the bank at the very spot now occupied by the old shed of the Customs Department, and some timber had to be cut from the overhanging trees to allow the vessel to lie alongside the bank; from a plank the people landed, and the horses having been nearly six weeks aboard were hoisted out and landed very much to their satisfaction, the fine young green grass and flowering herbage appearing to gratify their palates, and their gambols evincing their delight at being released from ship board with its unsteady evils and close confinement. There the Master and crew of the *Enterprise* joined the adventurers in their undisguised joy at the success that after several weeks arduous exertion seemed likely to reward, ay, well reward their joint labours. It may not be out of place here to remark that Capt. Hunter all through looked upon the attempt to form a new settlement as a wild goose chase. The fine fertile fields, the open flowery and grassy knolls and downs, and the indescribable charms which the country, at first sight, around Melbourne displayed, riveted almost every visitor's attention until man's hand had despoiled nature of her pristine features. The poet has said, 'Beauty unadorned is loveliest.' And this then could truly be said of the country around (what is now called) Melbourne. Kangaroo dogs had been provided by Fawkner, and the first day of landing a fine boomer was started not many yards from the vessel, driven into the river just above the site of Princes Bridge, killed and taken to the vessel. The river above the Falls was most odoriferous with the scent of the wattle blossom, which added also to the beauty of the scenery. Monday the 31st August—nothing done. The next day the goods were put ashore and a hut soon made to cover them, and a sleeping hut for the adventurers that were to remain. On Wednesday, late in the evening, John Hilder Wedge, a V.D.L. surveyor came to Melbourne, brought by the blacks in a whale-boat Batman had left at Indented Head,

Strange to say although he had only come thirty miles and must have known that he would have to return, he trusted to our people's hospitality to feed him there and find him food for his return voyage, although he made the trip in order to warn off our party. He was also guilty of something very like double dealing, he got into conversation with Capt. Lancey who had charge from Fawkner of the direction of all matters on land concerning the adventure. Pumping (as it is called) him of all the occurrences of the trip, and stating that he was only out overlooking the country, that he was not interested, &c. &c. Although he was one of the seventeen he kept up this tone all the afternoon and the next day, until he had got a supply of food wherewith to return to the Indented Head, and then he changed his tone, told Capt. Lancey and the other colonists that he had come expressly to warn them off, as the whole of the lands of Port Phillip had been bought and paid for by him and his co-associates, and finished by handing over to Capt. Lancey a written order for him and all his party to leave the company's landed estate. Capt. Lancey handed the paper back to Wedge telling him that he might want such a piece for some necessary occasion, which would be the full worth of such a notice, not forgetting to tell him of the change in his story of the morning from the one at night. The land having been selected for the garden, and also to put in a few acres of wheat; on Tuesday the first plough was put into the earth, and on the 8th September five acres of wheat were sown, and a garden commenced between that and the hill known as Batman's Hill, upon which hill our people first pitched their tent on the 30th August 1835, and which was not removed until Fawkner came over in October 1835, when he fixed to dwell nearer the fall, and put up his house exactly at the rear of the present Custom House. The ploughing was performed by horse labour, and the ploughman was George Wise, son of Richard Wise of Norfolk plains, who was engaged to Fawkner for one year's service as general farm servant at £25 a year. It had been agreed that each person of the six associates should have a plot of land on which to build and make a garden, and grow corn on, and that if it was found that the Government would not allow the whites to buy and hold the land under title obtained from the aborigines, it was thought no reasonable British Government would refuse to the first *bona fide* settlers a plot of land on which they might grow food for themselves and dependents. This expectation was one very wide of the mark when Sir Richard Bourke took possession of our discovery, made at the risk of life, and at a cost of money few people are aware of. The small lots agreed upon were measured off simply ten acres for each of the six. The lands having been roughly measured off, lots were drawn, and on the lands which fell to Fawkner's share the ground was ploughed and sown with wheat and a garden dug,

plants put in, seeds sown and the fruit trees planted in the soil. Tuesday the first of September the loading of the vessel was safely placed on shore, and whilst some were labouring on this work others were preparing a hut, and on Wednesday the 2nd September all hands were employed getting and carrying grass and storing a store hut. 3rd September the *Enterprise* in passing out of the basin got too close to the south bank and took the ground, but soon got clear. Next day 4th dropped down to a point below the junction and took in ballast. Friday the 5th September at two a.m. the *Enterprise* left the Yarra Yarra, and Fawkner's servants and also Mr. George Evans and his man Evan Evans remained there. Messrs. W. Jackson and Robert Henry Moor returned to Launceston per the *Enterprise*, and on Sunday the 7th September at four p.m. the pilot came on board and safely conducted the vessel to anchorage at George Town, River Tamar."

The superiority of the Yarra site was so manifest, having an abundant supply of fresh water, that population gathered round and the town of Melbourne arose. Thus was the first visit of the *Enterprise* made the occasion of the settlement of the metropolis of Port Phillip. Although Fawkner could not reach the new place until some six weeks after his five partners, yet as he was the prime mover of the undertaking, and according to his own showing the planner of the expedition and the selector of the Yarra locality for settlement, he is justly entitled to the honour of being the **FOUNDER OF MELBOURNE**. Batman was undeniably the Founder of the Colony of Port Phillip; but when a settler he never interfered with public affairs. His rival in fame on the contrary had a name associated with colonial politics for thirty years. He not only laid the foundation of Melbourne, but was identified with the progress of the work at each successive stage. With some waywardness and eccentricity he proved himself a useful and faithful public servant. A local journal was wanted and Fawkner undertook to supply the desideratum, and started the *Melbourne Advertiser*. The first paper was a manuscript one. It appeared on 1st January 1838; "to which," as Westgarth tells us, "the people had free access for the perusal of commercial advertisements, interlarded with paragraphs of local gossip or contentions." It consisted of four pages of foolscap. The first contained the leader; the second, third and fourth pages gave advertisements of goods for sale, ships arriving and departing. Only one copy of the first number is known to be in existence, and is now in the Melbourne Public Library. After nine numbers had been issued, a small parcel of type arrived from Launceston, and amidst many impediments the paper appeared in print. Fawkner's little paper was suspended because of its illegality. By receiving money for advertisements it had become a newspaper. In those days the law respecting those messengers of news was a very strict one. Two sureties had to be found

for respectability and propriety, each in the sum of £300. The printer, editor and publisher each had to give security for good behaviour to a large amount. Fawkner for various reasons did not comply with these conditions. In fact no money could be tendered to Government in Melbourne till after this. When arrangements were perfected, which was not until the beginning of 1839, Fawkner came legally into the field, though his *Advertiser* was merged in the title of the *Port Phillip Patriot*. The first number appeared on Wednesday 16th February 1839, and twelve months after it passed out of Fawkner's hands. The rest of Fawkner's life is bound up with that of the political history of the colony. In 1842 he was elected one of the Melbourne Market Commissioners, and in 1843 one of the Town Council, an office which he held for many years. He was elected a member of the first Legislative Council for Dalhousie, and on the introduction of free Parliaments was returned to the Legislative Council for the central province. He died 4th September 1869. Fawkner was a man of singular energy of character, shrewd intelligence and patriotic aims. But he lacked many of the elements that go to make a great popular leader; and his manners, like his antecedents, were of a primitive cast. His memory will always be held in respect by the colonists of V. as one of their founders and public benefactors.

FEATHERSTONE, DR. ISAAC EARL (1813-1875) a native of Durham, England, came to N.Z. in 1839. He was amongst the first to advocate representative government. On the inauguration of the N.Z. Constitution in 1852 he was elected Superintendent of Wellington, which office he held for eighteen years. His courage and influence with the Maoris was of signal benefit in the war in 1866. He was in 1853 returned for Wanganui, and continued to represent it until 1871. During that time he was a member of two Ministries, being Premier and Colonial Secretary of one. In 1871 he was appointed Agent-General in England for N.Z., which post he held until his death in 1875.

FELLOWS, THOMAS HOWARD (1826-1878) was called to the English bar in 1852 and shortly afterwards emigrated to V. He first entered Parliament in 1855 and became Solicitor-General in the Haines Ministry; and in 1857 Attorney-General. In 1858 he resigned his seat in the Assembly and was elected to the Council. In 1859 on the defeat of the second O'Shanassy Ministry he joined the Nicholson Administration, representing that Government in the Upper House without office. The Ministry were defeated in 1860 and he remained out of office till 1863 when McCulloch formed his first Ministry, in which Fellows accepted the office of Postmaster-General without salary, representing the Government in the Upper House. In 1865 he resigned this position and the Ministry soon afterwards commenced the struggle with the Council on the "tacking" of the Tariff to the Appropriation Bill.

Fellows was leader of the party that opposed the measure, and he induced the Council to pass the resolution laying the Bill aside on the ground of its being an infringement of the Council's rights. The Tariff was subsequently separated from the Appropriation Bill and agreed to by the Council. In 1867 another struggle began between the McCulloch Ministry and the Council over the grant of £20,000 to Sir Charles Darling. Fellows resigned his seat in the Council with the intention of leading the Opposition party in the Assembly, and was elected for St. Kilda. After the Assembly had been re-elected in 1868 the McCulloch Ministry resigned owing to a difference with the Governor (Lord Canterbury) who in consequence of despatches from the Colonial Office declined to give a pledge that he would again recommend the grant of £20,000 to be placed in the Appropriation Bill. The Governor was for two months endeavouring to form another Ministry, and at last Sir Charles Sladen consented to take office. He formed an Administration which included Fellows as Minister of Justice and leader of the Assembly. The difficulty in connection with Sir Charles Darling was solved by the Home Government placing him on the pension list. Immediately afterwards the Sladen Ministry was defeated on a vote of want of confidence, resigned, and was succeeded by another McCulloch Ministry. Fellows continued a member of the Assembly till 1872 when he was appointed fifth Judge of the Supreme Court, which office he held till his death.

FERGUSON, SIR JAMES, son of Sir Charles Dalrymple Fergusson, was born at Edinburgh in 1832, and educated at Rugby. In 1850 he entered the Grenadier Guards. In 1849 he succeeded to the baronetcy. In 1854 he went to the Crimea with his regiment and was wounded at Inkermann. Having retired from the army he was elected to the House of Commons for Ayrshire, and sat for that county until 1857, and again from 1859 to 1868, when he was appointed Governor of S.A. He was free and open-handed in his expenditure, and very liberal in all his personal dealings with the colony. He was a man of very considerable ability, a clear thinker and an effective speaker. Though perhaps his higher qualities were not recognised as they ought to have been, he was regarded as an intelligent and a high-minded gentleman, who maintained the dignity of his responsible position and creditably represented Her Majesty by his liberal administration. The establishment of telegraphic communication between Australia and Europe was carried out during his term of office; his efforts to aid in the accomplishment of this great work were fully recognised, and shortly after its completion he was promoted by Gladstone to the governorship of N.Z., but resigned the following year. Sir James suffered while in Adelaide a serious domestic affliction in the death of his wife, Lady Edith Ramsay, daughter of the Marquess Dalhousie.

FERNSHAWE, a township in V. in the district of Evelyn, forty-three miles E. of Melbourne. The surrounding country is famed for the beauty of its scenery, there being numerous fern-tree gullies, lofty waterfalls, and extensive mountain views, and the timber is reported to be among the largest in the world, the mountain ash attaining the height of 420 feet. There is also much valuable wood, such as the myrtle, sassafras, &c.

FERN-TREE GULLY, a picturesque spot in V. in the district of Mornington, twenty-one miles S.E. of Melbourne. Fern-Tree Gully abounds in ferns and mosses, and is a well-known resort for excursionists and lovers of picturesque scenery. The surrounding country is of a pastoral and agricultural character.

FIELD, BARRON, Jurist, was sent out by the Imperial Government in 1817 to supersede Judge Bent, who was first Judge of the Supreme Court of N.S.W. Field was an English barrister, a man of literary ability, and the friend of Charles Lamb, Hazlitt, Coleridge, and their circle, and one of Lamb's most charming letters was addressed to his friend Barron Field in N.S.W. A journal of his outward voyage, written by Field, was published in the old *London Magazine* for 1818. He was sent to heal the wounds in the body politic, but got himself into disputes with the emancipists almost as quickly as Judge Bent himself. One of his first acts after entering upon his duties was the giving of a decision which allowed a defendant to plead a plaintiff's conviction for felony many years previously in England as a bar to civil action. The emancipists at this time formed a large majority of the trading and mechanical as well as the agricultural and grazing sections of the community; and it is not surprising that they showed a well-grounded alarm at the helpless position in which Judge Field's decision placed them. They at length initiated a movement for redress by signing a requisition to the provost marshal asking him to call a public meeting in order to decide on what steps should be taken to enable them to obtain relief from their legal disabilities. The meeting, which was numerous attended, was conducted in a very loyal and orderly manner. The result of the movement was a resolution affirming the civil equality of the emancipist class, and praying for redress from the throne. By the influence of the Governor the prayer was granted. Field returned to England in 1825, and subsequently published a book on the State of Society in N.S.W.

FIELD PLAINS, in the district of Liverpool Plains N.S.W., were named by Oxley after Judge Field.

FIELDING, COLONEL. In December 1871 Colonel Fielding, as representative of an English company presided over by the Duke of Manchester, and called "The Emigrant and Colonists Aid Corporation," visited N.Z. after going through the Australian colonies, his object being to find a field

for the commencement of colonising operations. Finding in N.Z. a climate eminently suited to the English constitution, a soil abundantly fertile, internal communications fairly developed already and rapidly progressive, and above all a Government anxious to foster any reasonable scheme for the settlement of people on its unoccupied territory, Fielding had little difficulty in selecting a favourable site in Wellington and making terms with the Colonial and Provincial Governments. Negotiations resulted in the purchase of this block at fifteen shillings per acre. The corporation undertook to introduce to the colony and to settle on the land 2000 people within six years. The Government on the other hand was to provide free passages for these people from England, and to find work, in the formation of the railway line through the property or in other public works in the neighbourhood, for a current number of 200 labourers. The Provincial Government made a conditional agreement to expend a sum not exceeding £2000 per annum for five years to assist in forming by-roads. The scheme hung fire awhile on Fielding's return to England, but the work of colonisation has commenced in earnest, and the result is anxiously watched, for if successful private capital and enterprise will be directed to the formation of similar settlements in some of the large tracts of country from time to time falling into the hands of the Government by purchase from the natives.

FIJI ISLANDS.—The Fiji, or more properly Viti, Archipelago lies E. of the New Hebrides between the 16° and 20° S. latitude and the 177° and 182° longitude. It is beset with coral reefs, and embraces altogether 254 islands and islets including two of considerable size, Viti Levu being about ninety miles long by sixty wide and of an oval shape, while Vanua Levu is rather longer but much narrower and more irregular. Both are very mountainous, the latter having peaks which rise to about 5000 feet above the sea-level. They are of volcanic origin, well wooded, and extremely fertile. The east or weather side is the most luxuriant and teems with a dense mass of vegetation, huge trees, innumerable creepers, and epiphytal plants. Here no break occurs in the green mantle spread over hill and dale except where effected by man. On the lee side the aspect is very different—a fine grassy country here and there dotted with screw pines. The dense vegetation is thoroughly tropical in aspect; but some of the more open parts have quite a South Australian character owing to the presence of acacias, casuarinas, and metrosideros. On the mountains above 2000 feet elevation we find hollies, laurineous trees, with bright-coloured orchids, and delicate ferns and mosses; but no true alpine vegetation has yet been discovered. There are many perfumed barks and woods, but sandal-wood is confined to the south-western parts of Vanua Viti where it is now very scarce. The only terrestrial mammal is a rat probably introduced by Europeans, and the

dog, pig, and fowl were domesticated when the islands were first visited. The birds are tolerably numerous and resemble those of the Tonga and Samoa groups further east. They are allied to Australian and especially Polynesian forms. Lizards are comparatively abundant and varied, but there are only two snakes, while there are several kinds of tree-frogs.

PEOPLE.—The Fijians are a dark-coloured frizzly-haired bearded race reproducing in the east the tall and muscular bodies of the finest of the western Papuans, but much superior to them both in regularity of feature and in degree of civilisation. They exhibit however a considerable amount of intermixture with the brown Polynesians of Tonga and Samoa who have long ago established colonies in the Fiji Islands, and have to some extent modified both the customs and the language of the natives. Yet they remain undoubted Melanesians and differ from their Maori neighbours not only in their scanty dress which hardly differs from that of the savage New Hebrideans, but in using the bow and arrow and in making pottery, both arts being foreign to the true Polynesians. The people have a regular system of Government under chiefs of tribes of whom there are twelve or thirteen. They have priests and temples, a complex mythology, and a firm belief in a future state. Their manners and morals are in many respects those of a civilised people, yet perhaps nowhere in the world has human life been so recklessly destroyed, or cannibalism been reduced to such a system as here. Human flesh was, and is still in many parts, the Fijian's greatest luxury, and not only enemies or slaves, but sometimes even wives, children, and friends, were sacrificed to gratify it. At great feasts it was not uncommon to see twenty human bodies cooked at a time, and on the demand of a chief for "long pig," which is their euphuism for a human body, his attendants would rush out and kill the first person they met, rather than fail to gratify him. No less horrible were the human sacrifices which attended most of their ceremonies. When a chief died a whole hecatomb of wives and slaves had to be buried alive with him. When a chief's house was built, the hole for each post must have a slave to hold it up and be buried with it. When a great war-canoe was to be launched, or to be brought home, it must be dragged to or from the water over living human beings tied between two plantain stems to serve as rollers. Stranger still and altogether incredible were it not vouched for by independent testimony of the most satisfactory character, these people scrupled not to offer themselves to a horrible death to satisfy the demands of custom, or to avoid the finger of scorn. So firm was their belief in a future state in which the actual condition of the dying person was perpetuated, that on the first symptoms of old age and weakness, parents with their own free consent were buried by their children. A

missionary was actually invited by a young man to attend the funeral of his mother, who herself walked cheerfully to the grave and was there buried; while a young man who was unwell and not able to eat was voluntarily buried alive because, as he himself said, if he could not eat he should get thin and weak and the girls would call him a skeleton and laugh at him. He was buried by his own father; and when he asked to be strangled first he was scolded and told to be quiet and be buried like other people, and give them no more trouble; and he was buried accordingly. The weapons of the Fijians consist of spears, slings, clubs, short throwing-clubs, and bows and arrows. Most of these are larger and heavier than those of other Pacific islanders, corresponding to the more warlike character and greater strength of the people. Their towns are often fortified with an earthen rampart faced with stones and surmounted by a fence of reed or cocoa-nut trunks. Their houses are oblong, twenty to thirty feet long, well built, and with doorways on the two sides four feet wide and only about the same height. The doors are of mats, and the floor at the ends is raised a little and covered with mats for sleeping on. They have pyramidal temples often erected on terraced mounds, but many of these have now been destroyed. Their canoes are well-built and sometimes more than 100 feet long, usually double, of unequal size, the smaller serving as a powerful outrigger. Their agricultural implements are digging sticks and hoes made of turtle-bone or flat oyster-shells, now replaced by iron. They are skilful in basket and net making. The Fijians are cleanly in their habits, and very particular about their personal appearance. They do not load themselves with ornaments like the more savage Melanesian tribes, and the women only are tattooed. Although so scantily dressed, they are essentially as modest as the most civilised nations, and any public indecency would be severely punished. Though they have learnt many arts from their intercourse with the Samoans and Tongans, it is the general opinion that they are superior to the Polynesians in intelligence. In no place has missionary effort been more successful, or its fruits more apparent, than in Fiji. It is only forty years since the first missionaries landed at Lakemba, one of the small eastern islands of the group, at a time when all the horrors of cannibalism and massacre were at their height. Now there are no less than 30,000 converts, while 50,000 children attend the mission schools. The king, Thakombau, who long opposed them, has been converted, and cannibalism and human sacrifices have been abolished in all the coast districts and the smaller islands, even if they still linger in the interior of Viti Levu. This great change has been wholly effected by the Wesleyan missions, assisted latterly by the Roman Catholics, and still more recently by the Church of England. Besides the two large islands already described we

have Taviuni, a fine island about thirty miles long, situated near Vanua Levu. It is exceedingly beautiful and luxuriant, with a mountain 2500 feet high, having a lake on its summit, probably the crater of an extinct volcano. Kandavu, to the south of Viti Levu, and nearly as large as Taviuni, is mountainous and thickly populated, and is the island at which the mail steamers call. Ovalou, on the east side of Viti Levu, has a fine harbour at Levuka, the principal European settlement, and hitherto considered the capital of the group. It is now decided however that the capital shall be changed to Suva, a harbour on the south of Viti Levu. Lakemba is the largest of the eastern islands, and is the head-quarters of the Wesleyan Mission. It is nearly round, and about six miles in diameter.—(*Abridged from Wallace.*)

HISTORY.—The first European who made the existence of the Fijian group of islands known to the civilised world was the Dutch navigator Tasman in 1643, after whose voyage they remained unvisited until Cook touched at one of the Windward (eastward) islands, now called Vatoa, which he named Turtle Island. In 1789 they were passed by Bligh in his tedious and dangerous voyage in the *Bounty's* launch. Seven years later Captain Wilson commanding the missionary ship *Duff*, while following almost the same course as Tasman nearly lost his vessel by touching the reef off Taviuni, having previously tried to land missionaries, from which he was deterred by the hostile attitude of the natives. About 1804 twenty-seven convicts succeeding in their attempt to escape from N.S.W. settled throughout the islands, mostly at Rewa or Bau, giving their assistance to the native chiefs to carry on their fightings, receiving in return almost whatever they demanded. The hostile chiefs seeing their followers drop without any apparent cause, from the effect of firearms skilfully used by the white desperadoes, ceased hostilities. At this time the absolute government of the group was within the reach of the few whites then resident therein, but instead of consolidating and improving the power thus obtained, they lived a life of ease, indolence and wickedness so excessive that even their cannibal associates looked upon them as monsters in human form. After the lapse of little more than thirty years the only survivor of the twenty-seven was one Connor, an Irishman, his companions either having been killed in internal quarrels or destroyed and eaten by the natives. In 1859 the native King Thakombau offered the sovereignty under certain conditions of the islands to Great Britain; this offer was declined. A further offer was made on 21st March 1874, which was also declined, but in October by a deed of cession dated the 10th the sovereignty of the islands was ceded to the British Crown, and a charter was soon after issued erecting them into a separate colony, Sir A. H. Gordon C.B. assuming the governorship on 19th August 1875. Unlike most acquired lands Fiji seems to have no traditions, and we seek in vain for a shadow of historical

record as to the origin of the inhabitants of the country. By them can no ballad be sung, neither can any history be gleaned showing that in former ages any immigration took place, nor that the aborigines ever had any intercourse with other people excepting those few which chance threw in their way by shipwreck or other casualty. The inference therefore may be justly formed that the occupation of these islands by the Fijians must have taken place at a very remote date, and a confirmation of such inference is to be found in the fact that the still popular belief of the natives is that their forefathers were born, that they lived and that they died upon the land on which their descendants now dwell. The statistics show convincing proofs that the colony of Fiji has during the first three years of its existence made real progress. That it experienced "hard times" since the establishment of British rule is undeniable; in fact such a result was for some time inevitable on account of the reverses the country suffered, from the cultivation of cotton and on account of the prohibition to deal in lands. These are causes that now exist but in a diminished form, so its productions are more varied, and principally consist of articles the demand for which is steady and likely to remain greater than the supply. Crown grants have been issued for large and valuable tracts of land, so that every day adds to its prosperity, as the planters gather greater experience and extend their operations in a country unsurpassed in the richness of its soil, and blessed with a climate healthy and agreeable beyond comparison with any other tropical country. The climate is, for nine months of the year, most delightful and free from disease, but during the hot season persons, unless careful in their mode of living, may be seized with dysentery. Fiji possesses every description of soil. Rice may be cultivated in its swamps; its rich virgin land is peculiarly adapted to the growth of the sugar cane, coffee, cotton, sweet potatoes, yams and all other tropical productions; while in suitable soil, peas, beans, cabbages, lettuces, and most other semi-tropical edibles will thrive. The cocoa-nut tree is indigenous, thousands of acres have been and still are being planted, requiring only time to yield an enormous quantity of copra, and consequent profit to the planters with an increased value to the lands, and the yield of melons, pine-apples, oranges, lemons, limes, tomatoes, cucumbers, &c., is unsurpassed in quantity and quality in any other portion of the globe. Fiji needs but an adequate supply of experienced labourers and manufacturers to enable it to develop its resources and make available its now hidden stores of wealth. There are six or seven sugar mills in a satisfactory state of operation; turning out sugar equal to any produced in the Mauritius or the West Indies. The native population is estimated at about 15,000, the European about 1600. Two newspapers are published at Fiji, besides a native paper at irregular intervals. The Government is absolute, consisting

of a Governor, assisted by an Executive Council and Legislative Assembly, both nominated by the Governor. The total value of exports from Fiji for 1875 was £94,266 5s. 6d., of which amount £77,806 5s. 6d. was produced in the colony, and the remainder, £16,460, represented the value of what was imported to be reshipped. In 1876 the produce of the colony exported amounted in value to £80,270 0s. 3d.; produce imported to be reshipped to £23,189; making the total value of exports for the year £103,459 0s. 3d. These figures are again considerably exceeded in 1877, produce raised in the colony and exported attaining for that year the value of £112,389 1s., and produce imported for reshipment being valued at £28,504 10s., giving a total of £140,893 11s., as the value of all articles exported from the colony last year. The value of copra made in the colony and exported in 1875 was, £28,108; in 1876, £25,306 10s.; and in 1877, £34,641 12s. Along with copra fibre may be classed, the exportation of which however does not increase in ratio with the production of copra, as it amounted in 1875 only to £1796 10s.; in 1876 to £2953; and in 1877 to £2660. Sir Arthur Gordon was transferred to the Government of N.Z. in September 1880. During his five years rule the progress of Fiji was remarkable considering the circumstances. The colony which in 1875 was practically insolvent is now self-supporting. The steady increase of the revenue is a conclusive proof of the progress achieved. In 1876 it had increased from £15,000 to £38,000; in 1877 to £47,000; in 1878 to over £60,000. One of the great problems to be solved was the best means of making the native population contribute a fair proportion of the expenses of government. A return to the uniform poll tax imposed by Thakombau's Government was both impolitic and objectionable; the labour tax which was temporarily substituted on the annexation of the islands was ineffective, and as it was manifestly absurd to impose pecuniary taxation on a people nine-tenths of whom possessed no money, it was ultimately resolved to institute a system of payment of taxation in kind. The result has been advantageous to the treasury. The receipts from native taxes, which in 1875 under the old method of collection only amounted to £3499, have now increased to over £20,000 a year. The originator of the system contends that not only has this plan secured an ample revenue but has stimulated the industry of the natives and doubled the produce of the colony, while the aborigines are more prosperous and contented than they ever were before. The commercial results which have followed the establishment of settled government have been considerable, while the prospects of the future are still more encouraging. In 1876 the exports amounted to £103,459; for 1880 they will probably exceed £200,000. The sugar and cotton plantations are as yet in their infancy, but only require capital to make immense strides. The difficulty of procuring a cheap and regular supply of labour has

for years been a great drawback to the development of these lucrative industries; but fewer complaints are now heard on this score. The best account of Fiji and its population is given in the work of the Rev. Thomas Williams of V., long a Wesleyan Methodist missionary in the islands.

FINNISS, BOYLE TRAVERS (1807—) a native of England, was educated at the Royal Military College, Sandhurst, where he was selected as one of six cadets distinguished for good conduct and diligence in study, to be appointed to commissions in the army in May 1825. Finnis was accordingly gazetted to the 88th Regiment, but on the same date obtained a commission in the 56th, the Horse Guards being unaware that they had appointed the same person to the two commissions. He elected to remain in the 56th; was promoted to a lieutenancy in March 1827, and transferred to the 82nd Regiment in June. In 1835 he sold his commission for the purpose of settling in N.S.W. under the Emigration Order of 25th August 1834, and obtained the usual certificate entitling him to a grant of land as a military settler in that colony. He abandoned his intention on being appointed Assistant-Surveyor under Colonel Light, and proceeded to S.A., where he arrived in September 1836. He was appointed Deputy Surveyor-General in 1840; but on the reductions made in the Civil Service by Governor Grey, Finnis left the service for a time. In 1843 he was appointed Commissioner of Police and Police Magistrate. In 1846 he received the joint appointments of Colonial Treasurer and Registrar-General, and was consequently member of the Executive and Legislative Councils. In 1848 he was promoted by Governor Young to the Colonial Secretaryship, which appointment was confirmed by the Imperial Government. As leader of the Legislative Council he carried the new Parliament Bill in 1853. But it was disallowed in consequence of a numerously signed petition to the Queen objecting to the construction of the Upper House, the members of which were to be nominated by the Queen for life, with reservation to the Governor to add to their numbers in case of political necessity arising. As Colonial Secretary Finnis carried through the Legislative Council the present Constitution Act. In December 1854 Governor Young being recalled, and leaving the province before the arrival of his successor, Finnis became Acting Governor which position he held until June 1855, when Sir R. G. MacDonnell arrived and assumed the Government. On the election of the first S.A. Parliament under the new Constitution Act Finnis, who had been appointed Chief Secretary and head of the first Ministry, took his seat as one of the Members for Adelaide. The following measures were introduced by him and carried:—The Waterworks Act for supplying the city, the Municipal Corporation Act, the Gawler Railway Act &c. He raised a company of Volunteers called the Adelaide Marksmen, and organised a Volunteer Force of 2000 men

of which he was appointed Lieutenant-Colonel. In 1864 Finnis was appointed Government Resident of the Northern Territory. He proceeded to Adam Bay with a party of forty-one and selected a site for the capital at the mouth of the Adelaide River; but much opposition being raised to this selection Finnis was recalled in November 1865 and an official inquiry into the selection of the site and his management of the Settlement generally took place. On the report of the Commission being sent in to the Government he was compelled to tender his resignation. In the year 1866 Finnis received from the Queen the personal title of Honorable in recognition of his services in the Executive Council and the Ministry. In 1875 he was appointed a Member of the Forest Board, and in 1876 Acting Auditor-General for twelve months during the absence of the Auditor-General (Hitchin) on leave.

FINKE RIVER, in Central Australia, discovered and named by Macdonall Stuart in 1860 in honour of his liberal patron Finke of Adelaide. He also gave the name of Chambers Pillar to a remarkable sandstone pillar, 105 feet high, near the Finke, in honour of Chambers, partner with Finke.

FIRST FLEET. The first fleet of ships despatched from England to form a settlement on the coast of New Holland assembled at the Isle of Wight in March 1787. There were eleven ships, named as follows: the *Sirius*, frigate; the *Supply*, armed tender; the *Golden Grove*, *Fishburn*, and *Barrowdale*, storeships; and the *Scarborough*, *Lady Penrhyn*, *Friendship*, *Charlotte*, *Prince of Wales* and *Alexander*, transports. The officers of the new colony were Captain Arthur Phillip, who was styled Governor and Commander-in-Chief of N.S.W.; Major Robert Ross, Lieutenant-Governor; Richard Johnson, chaplain; Andrew Miller, commissary; David Collins, Judge-Advocate; John Long, adjutant; James Furzer, quarter-master; John White, surgeon; Thomas Arndell and William Balmain, assistant-surgeons; John Hunter, Captain of the *Sirius*; Lieutenant H. L. Ball, in command of the *Supply*; Lieutenant John Shortland, agent for transports. The garrison consisted of two hundred marines, with the following officers: Captains Campbell, Shea, Meredith and Tench; Lieutenants Johnston, Collins, Kellow, Morrison, Clarke, Faddy, Cresswell, Poulten, Sharp, Davey and Timmins. The persons under their charge, who were to remain in the settlement, were, besides the two hundred soldiers, forty of whom were allowed to take their wives and families, eighty-one free persons and 696 prisoners. The founders of the colony therefore consisted of one free person to every two prisoners. The precise number of people embarked was 1044, viz.: Civil officers, 10; military, including officers, 212; wives and families of military (28 women and 17 children,) 45; other free persons, 81; total free persons, 348; prisoners, 696. Of this number 1030 were safely landed in the colony. What

proportion of the whole were women has not been ascertained. The fleet sailed on 13th May 1787, and having touched at Teneriffe, Rio Janeiro and the Cape of Good Hope for water and provisions the first ship, the *Supply*, with Governor Phillip on board, sighted the coast of N.S.W. on 3rd January 1788. She anchored in Botany Bay on the 18th, and was followed on the 19th and 20th by the other ships.

FISHER, SIR JAMES HURTLE (1790-1875) was a native of England, and a lawyer by profession. When the Colony of S.A. was founded in 1836 he received from the Crown the appointment of Resident Commissioner for Crown Lands, and arrived in the colony with Governor Hindmarsh in December. A quarrel arose between the Governor and the Commissioner as to the site of the settlement, and as the latter had powers equal to those of the Governor he was enabled to prolong the contest. Of the settlers some sided with the Governor; others gave their support to the Commissioner, and the colony was divided into two factions. After fourteen months of wrangling, the Imperial Government interfered. Fisher was dismissed, and Governor Hindmarsh recalled; while the offices of both were conferred on Colonel Gawler, who arrived in the colony in 1838. Fisher in that year became President of the School Society, and for many years took a lively interest in the cause of education. In 1840 he was elected first Mayor of Adelaide, and gave such satisfaction in that capacity that he was five times re-elected to the civic chair, the last occasion being in 1853. From an early period he was a patron and ardent promoter of field sports, especially of racing, and was for a number of years President of the Jockey Club. He held for many years the position of Chairman to the Bench of Magistrates, and commanded universal respect by his urbanity and impartiality. In 1851 he was presented with a service of plate in recognition of his public services to the colony. In 1853 Fisher was elected Member of the Assembly for West Adelaide. In 1855 he entered the Council as nominee of the Government, and was unanimously chosen Speaker. On the first election for the Upper House under the New Constitution, he was elected to that branch of the Legislature, and chosen its first President, a position he held until advancing age compelled him to retire. In 1860 he received the honour of knighthood from Her Majesty. He died in January 1875 at the age of eighty-five, universally beloved and respected.

FITZGERALD, CAPTAIN CHARLES, R.N., Governor of W.A. from July 1848 to 1855. In December 1848 he started with a party to examine the lead mine reported by A. C. Gregory as existing on the Murchison. The examination verified the discovery. During this expedition the Governor was speared by the blacks and narrowly escaped with his life. Roe in his explorations in the same year gave the name of the Fitzgerald Peaks to a high elevation in the Bremer Range, 1000 feet

above the level of the plains, and from which he saw spread out beneath him in every direction "one vast sea of dark scrub and thicket, intersected by broad belts of salt lake and samphire marshes."

FITZGERALD, NICHOLAS (1829—) a native of Galway in Ireland, came to V. in 1859 and established an extensive brewery at Castlemaine, and subsequently similar establishments in N.S.W. and Q. He was elected Member of the Legislative Council in 1863 and re-elected in 1874 for the North-western Province, and has won celebrity as an able speaker and debater.

FITZGERALD, JAMES EDWARD, was the first Superintendent of Canterbury under the new Act. He was an original member of the Canterbury Association and held office till 1857.

FITZHERBERT, SIR WILLIAM, K.C.M.G., Speaker of the N.Z. House of Representatives, was educated at Cambridge, and is a Fellow of Queen's College, and also holds the diplomas of the Royal College of Physicians London. In 1842 he emigrated to N.Z. In 1864 he was appointed Treasurer but resigned in the following year; was reappointed in 1866 and in 1867 went to England as special Agent for the colony. He held this office for four years returning to N.Z. in 1871; was elected Superintendent of Wellington in succession to Dr. Featherston, and re-elected in 1873. He was knighted in 1871.

FITZPATRICK, MICHAEL (1816—) a native of N.S.W., born at Parramatta, and educated at the Australian College. In 1837 he was appointed to the Civil Service as Clerk in the Lands Department, and was promoted to the office of Clerk of the Executive Council in 1851. In this position he rendered valuable service to the Government, and on the introduction of Responsible Government in 1856 was chosen first Under Secretary for Lands and Works, these two departments being at that time associated under one Minister. On the severance of these departments he continued to hold the office of Under Secretary for Lands until he finally quitted the service in 1869, retiring on a pension to which he was entitled by upwards of thirty years service. He offered himself as a candidate at the general election in December of that year and was returned for the district of Yass Plains. He has been four times returned for the same district. On his entry into Parliament Fitzpatrick was a firm supporter of the Cowper-Robertson party with whom he acted and voted until Robertson joined Martin. Thereafter he voted with the party of which Parkes became the head. Fitzpatrick was two or three times offered a portfolio but always declined office until the formation of the Farnell Ministry in December 1877, in which he held the office of Colonial Secretary until its resignation twelve months afterwards.

FITZROY, CAPTAIN, Governor of N.Z. from 26th December 1843 to 17th November 1845.

FITZROY, SIR CHARLES AUGUSTUS, Governor of N.S.W., was a member of the ducal house of Grafton. Previous to his appointment he had been Governor of Prince Edward's Island and Commander-in-Chief of Antigua and the adjacent islands of the West Indies. He arrived in Sydney on 2nd August 1846, and was sworn in as Governor-General on the following day. He was received with good auguries, the general opinion pronouncing him to be one whose affability and courtesy bespoke the English gentlemen. But these impressions were by no means confirmed in the sequel. The talents of Fitzroy were not above mediocrity, but his manners were conciliatory. On colonial politics he had no opinions and no prejudices; apparently his chief object was to lead an easy life. It is said that on landing he exclaimed, "I cannot conceive how Sir George Gipps could permit himself to be bored by anything in this delicious climate." Sir Charles was in fact an eminent example of how far good temper and the impartiality of indifference in the absence of higher qualities may make a very respectable colonial governor. By placing himself unreservedly in the hands of men of colonial experience; by yielding every point left to his own discretion by the Home Government to the wishes of the majority of the Legislative Council; and in fact by never taking the trouble to have any opinion on any colonial subject, he glided over difficulties on which men of more intellect and obstinacy would have made shipwreck. Fitzroy, warned by the error of Governor Gipps, in his first address to the Legislative Council assured them that he should defer any legislative action on his own part until he made such a stay and such investigations as were "necessary to acquire personal experience upon several momentous questions, on which it would be presumptuous to offer any opinion at so early a period of our intercourse," and he added "I take this opportunity of publicly declaring in perfect sincerity that I have assumed the responsible trust with which our Sovereign has honoured me unfettered by any preconceived opinions on every subject affecting the interests of any class of Her Majesty's subjects in this territory." Among the important subjects affected by this timely and sagacious declaration stood foremost the renewal of transportation, the upset price of Crown lands, the terms on which those lands were to be temporarily occupied by pastoral proprietors, the control and appropriation of the colonial revenues, and the establishment of steam communication. In 1848 the Council passed a resolution of Wentworth's in favour of the renewal of transportation, and the Governor sent it home in a despatch favourable to the request. Earl Grey, in defiance of the repeatedly-expressed will of the colonists, revoked the order in Council of 1840 by which N.S.W. had ceased to be a place for the reception of prisoners. The publication of the Earl's despatch in the colony was received with one universal outburst of indignation. From that time compromise was

impossible; the breach of faith became a potent rhetorical weapon in the hands of political agitators. The excitement and fury of all parties was such, that it only needed the presence of an obstinate and haughty governor to provoke a rebellious outburst. Fortunately Fitzroy preferred a pleasant day on the racecourse to any assertion of viceregal attributes. Throughout the struggle to get rid of transportation he steadily supported the infamous impolicy of the Secretary of State, and thus gained for himself unbounded unpopularity, and a character for mingled levity and treachery which he never subsequently lost. In 1851 the gold discoveries occurred, and taxed all the resources of Fitzroy's government; but he showed himself equal to the occasion, and did not fall into those errors which caused such disastrous consequences in Victoria. After an existence of eight years the Sydney Legislative Council terminated on the 2nd May 1851 and a new Constitution Act came into force. The new House of Assembly met on the 16th October, with Nicholson for the third time as the Speaker. Fitzroy was appointed Governor-in-Chief of the Colonies. His term of office expired on 17th January 1855. The present Constitution Act, giving Responsible Government to New South Wales, was passed during his administration, and the equally important event, the separation of Port Phillip district from New South Wales occurred. Previous to his departure Fitzroy received a present of 2000 guineas from his friends and admirers. He died in London in 1858. His character has been very variously depicted by writers of both parties; according to one party he was a man with neither head nor heart, whose influence on the community, whether for good or evil, was "unspeakably evil," while to heighten the colour of the portrait, the savage bitterness of the attacks of "Junius" upon the ducal house of Grafton, from which he sprang, was quoted with grim satisfaction as the consistent and hereditary traditions of the family. In contrast with these bitter things it has been said that he was far from being that indolent pleasure-seeking man whom his enemies depicted, and it should be remembered that he acted with great tact at the time of the goldfields discovery, and that during his administration the twopenny postage rate was introduced for the first time in an Australian colony, which conferred great benefits on the public. He married in 1820 a daughter of the fourth Duke of Richmond, a lady of very amiable manners. Her death, through a fatal accident at Parramatta in December 1847, occasioned very general grief in the colony. It must be added that the name of the male members of the Fitzroy family stands associated in the recollection of the colonists with an extremely low standard of personal morals.

FITZROY DOWNS, in the S. of Q., were discovered by Mitchell in 1846. The summit of this isolated range in the centre of a splendid region lies in long. 149° 2' E., lat. 26° 23' 32" S. It was

so named by him to mark the epoch of his discovery during the rule of Governor Fitzroy, and the range in the midst of it he distinguished as the Grafton Range, in honour of the Duke of Grafton whose family name was Fitzroy.

FITZROY ISLAND, a very remarkable island off the N.E. coast of Q., having a singular peaked summit 550 feet high near the N.E. end. On the western side is a snug little cove. It lies within the Great Barrier Reef, a little to the S. of Cape Grafton.

FITZROY RIVER, in the N.W. corner of the continent, falls into King Sound. It was discovered and explored by Stokes in 1842, and named after Governor Fitzroy. It was further explored from inland for 150 miles along its course by Alexander Forrest in 1879. He describes it as a noble stream teeming with fish, navigable by small steamers for a distance of 100 miles inland, and running through rich country ranged over by thousands of emus and kangaroos. As far as could be estimated the river basin contains 5,000,000 acres of land suitable for pastoral purposes, and though the alluvial flats are subject to severe floods, stock could easily with a little care be taken to the high land, which is only a few miles from the river.

FIVE ISLANDS, off the coast of Illawarra in N.S.W. are situated about seven miles to the southward of the port of Wollongong, at Red Point, sixty-five miles from Sydney.

FLANAGAN, RODERICK (1828-1861) journalist and historian, was a native of Ireland, and came to N.S.W. in 1840. From an early age he devoted himself to journalism, and in 1854 he commenced the composition of a *History of N.S.W.* He worked laboriously at this task for nearly four years, and had at length brought the undertaking to such a shape as to justify him in proceeding with his MSS. to London. He left Sydney in November 1860, and arrived at his destination the following February, where he made arrangements with the publishing house of Sampson Lowe, Son and Co. to issue the History. Whilst engaged revising the early sheets of the first volume he was seized with an illness, probably the result of over-exertion, that proved fatal. He died suddenly towards the close of 1861 and was interred at a cemetery near London, where a suitable monument has since been erected to his memory.

FLATTERY, CAPE, on the N.E. coast of Q., eighteen miles N. of Cape Bedford. Its extremity is high and rocky, and forms two distinct hills. The headland was so named by Cook who sighted it on the 10th August 1770, and thought he had discovered a clear opening through the Barrier Reef, but found that he was mistaken.

FLINDERS, MATTHEW (1774-1814) navigator and explorer, was born at Donington in Lincolnshire, England. He was a descendant of the Flemish colonists introduced by Henry VII.,

who first taught the English how to turn desolate heron-haunted swamps into rich pastures. From his earliest years he displayed an adventurous and investigating spirit. It is among the traditions of his family that on the day he was promoted from petticoats to buttoned clothes, "after being lost for hours he was found in the middle of one of the sea-marshes, his pockets being stuffed with pebbles, tracing the runlets of water, wanting to know where they came from." Being desirous of entering the navy he taught himself navigation without the aid of a master. In 1793 at the age of sixteen he presented himself as a volunteer on board the *Scipio*, Captain (afterwards Admiral) Pasley, by whom he was placed on the quarter-deck; and at the instance of that commander he joined the *Providence*, Captain Bligh, engaged to carry bread-fruit trees to the West Indies. In this voyage he was entrusted with the charge of the chronometer and took his first lesson in the construction of charts. On his return in the latter part of 1793 he joined the *Bellerophon* seventy-four gun ship bearing the broad pennant of Sir Thomas Pasley to whom he acted as aide-de-camp in Lord Howe's memorable victory on 1st June 1794. An account of this action with diagrams of the position of the two fleets at three several periods of the day, drawn up by Flinders with the neatness, clearness and minuteness for which all his MSS. are remarkable, is still in the possession of his family. From the *Bellerophon* he followed one of his officers who took the command of the *Reliance*, ordered to convey Governor Hunter to New South Wales, and here met with George Bass the surgeon, a kindred spirit. When they arrived in the colony, seven years after the axes of the first fleet rang in the forests of Sydney Cove, little had been done to work out in detail the investigations made previous to the landing in Botany Bay. Jervis Bay indicated but not named by him had been entered by Lieutenant Bowen, and Port Stephen had been examined; but the intermediate portions of the coast both north and south were little further known than from Captain Cook's general chart, and none of the more distant openings marked but not explored by that celebrated navigator had been seen. The navigation was dangerous; for as Collins says in his *History of New South Wales* the "bare idea of being lost in one of the arms of Port Jackson struck him with horror, as from the great similarity of one cove to another the recollection would be bewildered in attempting to determine any relative situation. Insanity (he adds) would accelerate the miserable end that must ensue." Whilst on the voyage Flinders and Bass planned an expedition, and a month after the arrival of the *Reliance* in Sydney Harbour, preparations were made for carrying it out. They bought a small boat eight feet long, named it the *Tom Thumb*, and embarked in it with a crew consisting of one small boy to make marine discoveries on the Australian coast. A

small sail was hoisted, which Flinders managed while Bass steered, and the boy was kept to bale. They tacked to and fro about the harbour to test their sailing capabilities, and then stood boldly out of the heads into the huge rolling swell of the ocean. The little *Tom Thumb* danced about like a feather on the ripple, and seemed no more than a mere bit of seaweed upon the loud rollers. Her sails hung idly flapping in the valleys between the swell, and when descending the crest of the wave the wind was strong enough to take her mast out; but she kept her way boldly and in due course reached Botany Bay. Their first exploration was in ascending the George River which falls into that bay. They went up this about twenty miles beyond a point which Hunter had named in his survey. They explored its windings and found several patches of really good land amongst them; and having ascertained many particulars about the country around, they returned again to the sea and got back safe to Sydney. In the meantime the little vessel was laid up in ordinary for a short period. The *Reliance* was ordered on a voyage to Norfolk Island, and as the surgeon and midshipman could not be spared from the ship, exploring had to be given over, but not for long. In March 1796 the *Reliance* returned, and the *Tom Thumb* was again launched. The rumour about the large river to the south of the bay was still in their minds, and they thought it might yet be found to be true. Early in the morning of 25th March they sailed from Port Jackson, standing out to sea to wait for the sea-breeze. This took them far out, and when they tacked towards shore in the evening, instead of being off Cape Solander as they expected, they found that a southerly current had drifted them further down to a place where it was impossible for them to land, so they had to remain all night at sea. There were some islands below them which they tried to reach, but in doing so they saw a place where they could obtain water by swimming ashore with the cask. This was not a good place to land upon, so they preferred swimming in and out of their boat. Bass went on shore and filled the cask. While getting it off a surf arose farther out than usual. This carried the boat before it on the beach, so that they were left high, but not dry, for their arms, ammunition and clothes were thoroughly drenched and partly spoiled. It would not do to stay to dry them, because the natives might come and they would be defenceless, so they emptied and launched the boat as quickly as possible and slowly rafted the things on board. It was late in the afternoon before everything was got off and they then tried to reach the islands. It was not possible to land on either of them; but there were two larger ones lying near and they went on toward them; these were also inaccessible and being now dark the wet and hungry crew had to pass another cold night in the boat with their stone and anchor dropped under the lee of Red Point. They would have returned on the

27th but the sea breeze was too strong for them to beat against. Two natives were seen on shore who were hailed and to the gratification of the explorers they replied in English. They told them that there was no water on Red Point, but that there was a river a few miles farther south where not only fresh water was abundant but there were plenty of fish and wild ducks. They were natives of Botany Bay, and consequently had been long in contact with the whites and could be trusted with safety. The river turned out to be nothing more than a small stream which descended from a lagoon under Hat Hill. It was so narrow and tortuous that even the *Tom Thumb* had very great difficulty in getting any distance up it. Their native guides who had free passages given them in the boat now left them and walked alongside, in company with eight or ten strangers who had joined them. After rowing up the stream for about a mile the adventurers began to be uneasy about the narrowness of the stream. The natives here had the reputation of being ferocious and cruel, and if they chose to be hostile now, it was quite evident that they could easily destroy the boat's crew with their spears. But fresh water was wanted badly before they could think of returning. Besides this their muskets and powder were wet, and it was better to make both serviceable before they provoked any hostility by trying to go back. After consulting together they, with very great presence of mind, agreed not to show the slightest fear, but land amongst the savages, and whilst one engaged their attention the other should dry the powder and clean the muskets. Bass accordingly landed, and went among the savages and endeavoured to occupy them by getting their assistance in mending a broken bar, while Flinders spread out the wet powder in the sun. This met with no opposition, for the natives scarcely knew what powder was; but when they proceeded to clean the muskets, they became so alarmed that the explorers were compelled to desist. On inquiring for water, they were told that there was none nearer than the lagoon; but as this was too far to go, after many evasions they were shown a native well not very far from where they stood. Here the cask was filled, and the *Tom Thumb* turned again towards the sea without any opposition from its savage friends. By rowing hard they got a good many miles nearer home that night, and they dropped their stone kedge under a range of cliffs more regular but less high than those near Hat hill. At ten o'clock the wind which had been unsettled and driving electric clouds in all directions, burst out in a gale from the south. The intrepid navigators got up their anchor and ran before it. In a very short time the waves began to break. The little bark was now in extreme danger, the night was dark and the shade was increased by the cliffs which overhung their boat. Their course was taking them perhaps to new dangers, and the heavy roaring surf which beat against the cliffs

told them of their terrible fate if they attempted to look for shelter on shore. Bass kept the sheet of the sail in his hand, drawing in a few inches occasionally when he saw a particularly heavy sea following. Flinders was steering with an oar; and we can well believe what he tells us that it required the utmost exertion and care to prevent the boat broaching to. This he adds would have sent them to the bottom in an instant. The task of the boy in baling was no easy one now, for every wave sent a fine portion of its foam over their gunwale. It was in the midst of such dangers as these that the *Tom Thumb* reached Sydney. It had not done much on this expedition, except to teach the colonists what a treasure they possessed in the indefatigable courage and zeal for exploration of George Bass and Matthew Flinders. After the return of the voyagers in the *Tom Thumb* Flinders was much engaged in his official duties, and had to go on a surveying voyage to Furneaux Islands. Bass in the meantime made his great discovery of the Strait. When Bass brought back to Sydney his report of a strait between the continent and V.D.L., now called T., a small decked vessel of twenty-five tons named the *Norfolk* was put under the command of Flinders and himself, and they were instructed to complete the exploration of the south coast. The *Norfolk* sailed on 7th October 1798, and on the 11th anchored in Twofold Bay, where they made a survey of the shores. On the 17th they reached the group of islands now known as Kent's Islands. From this point the circumnavigation of the island was made without any casualty occurring. In the course of the expedition the entrance to the River Tamar, named by Hunter on their return Port Dalrymple, was discovered, and the River Derwent explored so far as Sullivan's Cove, the present site of Hobart Town. Four years before, Captain Hayes had examined D'Entrecasteaux Channel and the Derwent, and Flinders sailed by Hayes' charts, which however were found often incorrect. The *Norfolk* sailed round the island safely, and Port Jackson was reached on 12th January 1799, the discoveries reported, and the sea between T. and the continent justly named after its discoverer, Bass Strait. Nor was it in discovery alone that they were successful. Flinders made beautiful and exact charts of all the coasts; he sometimes spent whole days in careful and laborious observations and measurements, in order to have the latitude and longitude of a single place correctly marked. When Bass and Flinders returned from T. they appear to have parted company. Still eager for adventure Flinders memorialised the Governor for permission to go exploring northwards. The request was complied with; for there was no man in the settlement save George Bass who had proved himself better fitted for the labours of a discoverer, or in whom the Governor had more confidence. The sloop *Norfolk* was again put into requisition with the same crew. He started from Sydney on 8th July 1799, and sailed northward,

On the morning of the 10th the vessel sprung a leak, and it was necessary to keep one pump continually at work. But Flinders refused to turn back. He was too hardy a seaman not to risk a little danger in any enterprise on which he was bent. By the 15th the explorers were off Cape Byron, with Mount Warning just appearing over it. When they had cleared the reef at Point Danger, they steered west for a large open space where no land was visible. This was Moreton Bay. Passing between these breakers and Point Lookout they got ground in twenty fathoms water. As they drew nearer there seemed to be a very large extent of water within the opening, but the country towards the sea was as sterile, wretched and sandy as well could be imagined. At dusk Cape Moreton was rounded; and they got into Glasshouse Bay. There they anchored intending if possible to repair the leak. Next morning they landed. They had brought with them a native from Sydney who commenced at once to parley with some savages who were fishing on the beach. At first they seemed peaceable and accepted some presents, but soon became troublesome. The party to avoid a conflict shoved off in their boat from shore. A savage then ran after them into the sea and flung a spear which happily missed the boat. Flinders and one of the seamen discharged their muskets, and wounded two of the savages. The plea on which the great explorer defends this act is, that as he wanted to repair his ship there, he could not afford to leave his crew at the mercy of the savages, and he felt therefore bound to strike a wholesome terror into them. The point where this incident occurred was named Point Skirmish. The explorers then proceeded up the river, which ran up to Glasshouse Peaks. Nothing of importance was seen beyond five or six native huts. Advancing still further Flinders named the river Prince Stone River, and cast anchor. Landing at a particular spot he walked towards a round mound which he ascended, and from which he gained a fine view of the bay and the surrounding country. After a stay of fifteen days in Glasshouse Bay he went on to Hervey Bay; but finding no practicable river after sailing all round it, and noting that the coast was low and shallow and the country unpromising he returned to Sydney. Flinders went back to his duty as midshipman on board the *Reliance*, which returned to England at the latter end of 1800. He lost no time in publishing his accounts of his explorations and his charts; and Sir Joseph Banks who took a great interest in the achievements of the young explorer introduced him to the notice of Earl Spencer, then first Lord of the Admiralty. Flinders was raised to the rank of lieutenant, and the Imperial Government recognising his talents and services, in 1801 refitted the sloop *Nenophon* for further Australian discoveries, altering her name to the *Investigator* and placing him in command. Robert Brown, the father of English botanists, went with him as naturalist; Bauer

was the natural history painter; Westall was the landscape painter; and Franklin was one of his midshipmen. A passport was obtained for Flinders from the French Government, so that although England and France were then at war he might not be obstructed by French war-ships. The *Investigator* sailed from England on 18th July, made Cape Leeuwin in December, and after exploring the Recherche Archipelago and the head of the Great Australian Bight ranged along the unexplored southern coast and discovered Port Lincoln, Spencer's Gulf, Encounter Bay and St. Vincent's Gulf. At Encounter Bay Flinders fell in with two French ships sent by Napoleon I. on a like errand to his own. The commander of the expedition (Baudin) met Flinders with expressions of friendship, but nevertheless he took to himself the credit of Flinders' discoveries and gave French names to the several geographical points on the charts given him by the English navigator. Some months later the two expeditions met again in Port Jackson. Flinders showed his charts and the French officers allowed that he had carried off the honour of nearly all the discoveries on the south coast, but in spite of that Baudin sent home to France a report in which Flinders' claims were quite ignored and he himself represented as the hero of Australian discovery. The colonists at Port Jackson however treated the French sailors with much kindness. Many of them were suffering from scurvy, and these were carried to the Sydney hospital, where they were most carefully attended and the only fresh meat the colonists had was given to them. Flinders used all his good offices with the Governor to ensure hospitable treatment for Baudin and his officers. Continuing his voyage on the 26th April 1802 he unexpectedly entered the "vast piece of water" now called Port Phillip, and congratulated himself on an important discovery. From the top of Arthur's Seat he viewed Western Port, and from the summit of the You Yangs (Station Peak) on the opposite shore saw the fine plains of the interior, wondering all the time that so large a sheet of water should have so small an outlet and speculating on the future settlement "which doubtless will be founded hereafter." He was in error however as to his priority of discovery; Grant had been there before him in the *Lady Nelson*. Having refitted his vessel in Sydney, Flinders sailed again on his northward voyage on 22nd July 1802. He discovered Port Curtis and Port Bowen; spent 105 days in exploring the Gulf of Carpentaria and Arnheim Bay, and proceeding thence to Timor circumnavigated Australia for the first time and returned to Sydney. Here the *Investigator* was condemned as quite unseaworthy. Ardently desiring to return to England to procure another ship in which to continue his labours (especially the survey of Torres Strait, the future importance of which he already saw) he and his shipmates took passage in the *Porpoise* which was homeward bound. They sailed on 10th August 1803, and seven days afterwards were cast away on

the Barrier Reef with the *Cato* which sailed in company. The crew with difficulty reached a small sandbank, from which they were not released until two months afterwards. Flinders made his way back to Sydney, 700 miles in a six-eared cutter, and subsequently rescued his eighty companions from their perilous position on the reef. Unwilling to waste time he sought and obtained from Governor King the loan of the *Cumberland*, a crazy schooner of twenty-nine tons burthen. In this little vessel he proposed to make the voyage to England. He departed from Sydney and all went well until the *Cumberland* to avoid foundering was compelled to touch at the Mauritius, at that time in the possession of France. The war between France and England was raging, and the Governor of the island General de Caën, notwithstanding the French Government passport given for the commander of the *Investigator*, chose to consider Flinders a spy, and made him and his ship's company prisoners, seizing the books and charts of his Australian explorations. Some time afterwards Baudin called at the Mauritius; but instead of procuring the release of Flinders he persuaded the governor to confine him more rigorously. Then having taken copies of Flinders' charts he sailed for France, where he published a book and received great applause from the French nation who called him the greatest discoverer of the present century; while Flinders the real discoverer was spending the weary hours of imprisonment on a small island in the Mauritius. For six long years the great Australian navigator and explorer was kept in captivity by the infamous and treacherous De Caën. The French Government equally inhuman steadily refused to order his release. At length the tidings of his liberation reached the island. The inhabitants who despite the inhuman Governor had always deeply sympathised with and felt for the noble English seamen, overwhelmed him with congratulations. He returned to England in 1810, and on his arrival he found that people knew all about those very places of which he thought he was bringing the first tidings. He commenced however to write his great book, and worked with the utmost pains to make all his maps scrupulously accurate. After four years of incessant labour the three volumes were ready for the press; but he was doomed never to see them. So many years of toil, so many nights passed in open boats or on the wet sands, so many shipwrecks and weeks of semi-starvation, together with his long and unjust imprisonment, had utterly destroyed his constitution; and on the very day when his book was published, the wife and daughter of Flinders were tending his last painful hours. Thus perished the greatest Australian maritime discoverer next to Cook: a man who worked because his heart was in his work; who sought no reward and obtained none; who lived laboriously and did honourable service to mankind; yet died like his friend Bass, almost unknown to those of his own day, but leaving a name which the world is every year more

and more disposed to honour. No man that ever lived, not even excepting Cook, more deserves to be held in everlasting remembrance by Australians than does Matthew Flinders. He was a true hero, as genuine a philanthropist and as high-spirited a patriot as ever bore the English name. His great work, *An Account of a Voyage to Terra Australis* (in 2 vols. 4to, London, 1814,) forms an imperishable contribution to the history of Navigation and Discovery. It was published on the very day of his death 14th July 1814. He married in April 1801, Ann, daughter of Captain Chappell, and had one daughter on whom a pension of £200 a year was bestowed in 1852—a graceful though somewhat tardy recognition of his services—by the two Colonies of Victoria and New South Wales. The principal street of every city in the Australian Colonies ought to be adorned with a marble statue of this illustrious man. A fitting *Life* of Flinders is in course of preparation by Mr. J. J. Shillinglaw of Melbourne, who has devoted many years to the task of collecting all the facts relating to the great navigator's career.

FLINDERS BAY, at the S.W. corner of the continent, between Capes Leeuwin and Beaufort, was discovered and named by Flinders in 1801.

FLINDERS GROUP, a group of islands off the N.E. coast of the continent, forming the W. head of Bathurst Bay. They are high and rocky, and consist of four islands two of which are three miles long. They are visible from a distance of twelve or thirteen leagues.

FLINDERS POINT is situated in the harbour of Port Phillip, V., between Points Lonsdale and Nepean.

FLINDERS ISLAND, is the largest and most central of the Investigator group of islands in the Great Australian Bight, which lie to the S. of Anxious Bay. In shape it is nearly square, each side from three to five miles in length, with rocks projecting from the intermediate points. Bights are formed on the four sides, but that on the E. alone offers good anchorage, although Flinders anchored in the *Investigator* in 1802 on the N. side of the island. The anchorage on the E. side is safe although there is a reef of rocks lying two cables length from the beach at the S. end. The landing place lies on the beach under the reef and is frequently rendered difficult from the heavy surf which rolls in. There is excellent pasturage on the island, and a sheep station has been established for some years. There are several good wells near the anchorage.

FLINDERS RIVER, to the S. of the Gulf of Carpentaria and flowing into it, was discovered by Stokes in 1843, and explored for some distance from its mouth. It was reached from inland by Burke and Wills on 4th February 1861. It was subsequently reached by Landsborough in his search expedition the following year, and by 1864 it was occupied throughout its whole length by pastoral settlers.

FLORA OF AUSTRALIA.—In A. the vegetable no less than the animal kingdom, presents features altogether different from those of other continents; and the naturalist finds himself in a strange and isolated world, having comparatively little in common with other divisions of the earth. In order to exhibit clearly the main peculiarities which distinguish the vegetable world we shall first describe the general aspects and prominent features of the vegetation, and then discuss some of the botanical characteristics which throw light upon its early history and relations with other parts of the globe. The extensive seaboard is everywhere characterised by a vegetation of a remarkably sombre and uniform colour, occasioned mainly by the peculiar foliage of the *Eucalyptus* and scrub, the leaves of which lack that striking contrast of shade on their outer and under surfaces which contributes so largely to the shifting tints of the European woodlands. Instead of spreading out horizontally, the foliage mostly hangs vertically from the branches, hence producing little shade in the forests; travelling through which is thereby rendered all the more fatiguing in the hot midday sun. The uniformity of this vegetation is intensified by the great area over which the same forms extend. The change of the seasons also, elsewhere causing the fresh and vivid green of the early spring to be succeeded by the softer summer hues and glorious golden tints of autumn, is marked by no such striking contrasts in the unvarying mantle of dull olive green clothing the woodlands. Yet in the midst of this apparent monotony we light occasionally on spots covered by a gigantic and exuberant growth here and there disposed in stately avenues free of scrub or underwood, elsewhere opening on sunny glades and sloping valleys watered by purling streams and clothed with the softest verdure. In other places the woodlands form a fringe round an open country varied with hill and dale, and pleasantly relieved with isolated clusters of forest trees covered with the richest herbage and decked with flowers of the most varied hues and forms. Or else the woodlands change to an interminable thicket where countless flowering shrubs and lovely twining plants form an impenetrable mass of tangled foliage, such as can be matched by the virgin forests of Brazil alone. A striking contrast to this luxuriant vegetation of the woodlands is presented by that of the various kinds of "scrub" and heath which cover so large a portion of the surface. An excellent observer, the Rev. J. T. Woods, remarks on the incorrectness of statements as to the general fertility of a country so largely covered by what are practically deserts. Just as Tartary is characterised by its steppes, America by its prairies and Africa by its deserts, so A. has one feature peculiar to itself and that is its "scrubs." Not only do they recur constantly with the same soil and the same peculiarities, but even in widely distant districts their flora is very similar. One of the most common terms is "Mallee"

scrub, so called from its being composed of dwarf species of *Eucalyptus* called "Mallee" by the natives. The appearance of the Mallee is something like a bushy willow or osier, the stems growing close together like reeds, so close that there are often ten or twelve in a square foot of ground. They grow fourteen feet high without a branch, and when a road is cut through a scrub of this kind it appears like a deep trench, or as if enclosed by high walls. The aspect of such a country is very gloomy. From any eminence you see nothing but a dark brown mass of bushes as far as the eye can reach. The soil is generally a yellow sand, and when a patch of it is visible it gives an air of sterility in exchange for the monotony of the scrub. But the surface is generally unbroken, seeming like a heaving ocean of dark waves, out of which here and there a tree starts up above the brushwood, making a mournful and lonely landmark. On a dull day the view is most sad, and even sunlight makes it but little more cheerful, for seldom bird or living thing gives variety to the scene, while light only extends the prospect and makes it more hopeless. In the south-eastern parts of S.A. there is a tract about 9000 square miles in extent covered with an unbroken expanse of this scrub, and similar tracts of it occur over every part of the southern half of the continent. Still more dreaded by the explorer is the Mulga scrub, consisting chiefly of bushy acacias. These grow in spreading irregular bushes armed with strong spines, and where matted with other shrubs form a mass of vegetation through which it is impossible to penetrate. Fortunately this is far less common than the Mallee, or the labour of the explorer would be still more distressing than it is. Other scrubs are formed chiefly by the "ti-tree" of the colonists. This is a species of beautiful flowering shrub allied to the myrtle, and very abundant in all parts of A. These do not grow in such dense masses; and mingled with a variety of other shrubs form one of the ordinary and least disagreeable of the scrubs which occupy so much of the interior. Next in extent to the Mallee scrub is the country occupied by dwarf shrubs, and generally known as "heath." This usually consists of vast level sandy tracts, dusty in summer and boggy in winter, supporting no grass, and but a few stunted trees, and everywhere covered with a tangled mass of woody vegetation about two feet high. In spring this country is excessively beautiful from its varied and bright-coloured flowers. The *Banksia* is sometimes abundant, and is called the "native honeysuckle" or "bottle-brush tree." It is an irregularly-branched bushy tree, with wedge-shaped leaves, and studded all over with yellow flowers shaped like a bottle-brush, but as the old decaying flowers and seed vessels remain for years on the tree it always looks more or less unsightly. The most terrible production of the interior is however the "spinifex" or "porcupine grass," which extends for hundreds of miles over sandy plains, and probably covers a greater amount of surface than any other plant.

It does not however appear to extend south of about 28° south latitude, so that the settled districts are wholly free from it. Many remarkable types of vegetation give a special character to the scenery. Foremost among these are the noble gum-trees. These often attain a height of more than 250 feet, and a girth of from twelve to twenty feet. The banks of the rivers and watercourses are generally bordered with these gigantic trees, which mark the course of the stream from a long distance as it wanders through the open plains of low desert scrub. Other species form dense forests on the mountain slopes, and among these have been discovered the true giants of the vegetable kingdom, surpassing even the far-famed Wellingtonias of California. In the Dandenong Range, about forty miles east of Melbourne, the ravines contain numerous trees over 420 feet high, and one fallen tree was discovered of the enormous length of 480 feet—undoubtedly the grandest tree in the world. The numerous species of red gum, blue gum, stringy-bark, iron-bark, box, peppermint and many others, produce valuable timber, each having special qualities adapting it for certain uses. The Casuarina, Beefwood, or Shea-oak are names applied to a remarkable group of leafless trees, whose long drooping rigid branchlets, resembling those of English "horsetails," render them the most singular and picturesque objects of the flora. The wood is as good as English oak, and the colour of raw beef. These trees are most abundant in the south and west, and are often found in the barren wastes of the interior. The grass-trees are a peculiar feature in the landscape. From a rugged stem, varying from two to ten or twelve feet in height, springs a tuft of drooping wiry foliage, from the centre of which rises a spike not unlike a huge bulrush. When it flowers in winter this spike becomes covered with white stars, and a heath covered with grass-trees then has an appearance at once singular and beautiful. Nowhere in the world are Acacias so abundant; there are nearly 300 species of the genus. They abound in all parts and are called "wattles," their elegant yellow blossoms, usually fragrant, adding greatly to the beauty of the country in early spring. Aromatic foliage and odoriferous flowers are especially abundant, so that the "bush" is more or less fragrant throughout the year. In contrast to the usually arid and somewhat monotonous aspect of the vegetation, many of the deep ravines and sheltered valleys of the eastern slope of the mountains of N.S.W. are clothed with forests of wild luxuriance. One of these districts is Illawarra, about fifty miles south of Sydney, between the coast range and the ocean. On descending into these valleys we leave a dry and arid country with a stunted vegetation and find ourselves in a damp and humid atmosphere, sheltered by rocky barriers and presenting on every side a luxuriant wealth of foliage. Here are graceful palms rising to seventy or even 100 feet; the Indian fig with its tortuous branches, clothed with a drapery of curious

parasites; while graceful tree-ferns thirty feet high flourish in the damp atmosphere of the sheltered dells. The forest is often so rank with creepers, ferns, and vines as to be quite impassable, and the gigantic stag-horn fern grows from the topmost limbs of the loftiest trees. One of the most striking plants, the "flame-tree," when covered with its large racemes of red flowers renders the Illawarra mountains conspicuous for miles out at sea. Among the more remarkable individual plants of the Australian flora we may mention the fire-tree of W.A. When in flower it is so covered with its orange-coloured blossoms that it is compared to a tree on fire. The fir-tree of Q. grows fifty feet high, and when in bloom displays one gorgeous mass of orange-tipped crimson stamens. The Warratah of N.S.W. grows with a single stem about six feet high, bearing at its extremity a crimson blossom resembling a full-blown peony. Still more remarkable is the rock-lily, a giant among its allies; for it sends up a flower-stalk thirty feet high bearing at its summit a crown of lily-like flowers several feet in circumference. Lovely bulbous plants and strange-flowered terrestrial orchids also abound; so that although much of the landscape is barren-looking, and for many months in the year the grass and herbage is almost completely parched up, yet no country in the world affords a greater variety of lovely flowers or more strange and interesting forms of vegetable life. Besides the vegetation of the plains and lower hills, the loftier mountains possess a singular and beautiful alpine vegetation, in which the productions of the two hemispheres are strangely intermingled. These distinct types occur on all the mountains of V. and N.S.W., which reach an altitude of 5000 feet; and strange to say not only are many of the genera peculiarly northern, but a considerable number of species are absolutely identical with those of Europe. Sir Joseph Hooker has given a list of thirty-eight species of plants which are almost entirely restricted to the colder parts of the northern hemisphere, but which yet reappear on the mountains of A., a few of them also extending to N.Z. and temperate South America. The flora of A. taken as a whole is distinguished by several peculiarities. Thus it contains more genera and species peculiar to itself and fewer plants belonging to other parts of the world than any other country of equal extent. Many Australian plants have a peculiar habit or physiognomy giving in some cases a peculiar character to its forest scenery. a great many species possess anomalous organs. Yet notwithstanding these marks of specialty the proportions of the great botanical subdivisions to each other is the same as in other parts of the world; there are no widely distributed orders absent, and there is no Australian order (with two small exceptions) that is not found also in other parts of the world. It is also to be noted that even the most characteristic types of vegetation are closely allied to other groups which are widely

spread over the globe. It follows that although the flora is highly peculiar it is not a peculiarity which implies a distinct origin, but merely a great isolation from the rest of the world. About 8000 species of flowering plants have been discovered, and it is now so well known that probably not more than 2000 remain to be discovered, making a total of 10,000 species. This is a greater number than are contained in all Europe, which is so much more varied in climate and aspect, while the surface of fertile ground clothed with a varied vegetation in Australia is hardly more than a fifth of the similarly clothed surface of Europe. Contrary to what we might expect to be the case, this enormous variety of plants is due to the richness of the temperate rather than the tropical parts of the country. The temperate flora is estimated by Dr. Hooker at 5800 species; the tropical at only 2200; and the results of recent explorations seem to show that there is a much greater probability of making additions to the former than to the latter. The tropical flora too is far less peculiar, being characterised by the addition of certain Indian, Malayan and Polynesian groups to a portion of the temperate flora. The peculiar vegetation is thus wholly extra-tropical, and is confined to the belt of fertile and mountainous land surrounding the desert interior on the south, east and west. Two-fifths of its genera and seven-eighths of its species are altogether confined to it, yet no less than 200 of the genera are found also in Europe. The most remarkable feature of the temperate flora is the great difference between its eastern and western portions; and what is more remarkable still, W.A. which is much poorer in soil, has less extensive and less lofty mountains, and a much smaller area of fertile land, yet actually possesses a richer flora than E.A. The south-western flora consists of 3600 species; the south-eastern flora (including that of Tasmania) of only 3000 species; and of these numbers only about 300 are common to both. It is to be observed that it is in the number of *species* that the south-western flora is so much superior; in the number of distinct genera and natural orders represented the south-eastern has the advantage. The large genera common to both sides of the continent are remarkably distinct. The difference between these two floras is also very remarkable if we consider genera instead of species. There are about 180 genera in the west which are either absent or represented by very few species in the east; yet these 180 genera include nearly 1100 species. No less than 17 large genera are entirely peculiar to the west, while such a characteristic genus as *Epacris* is altogether absent. In order to make up the greater number of species with a smaller number of genera, we find that the W.A. genera have on the average more species than those of the east; the former having 17 genera with 30 species and upwards in each; the latter only 11. Many of the species of W.A. have a wonderfully restricted range so that Swan River and King

George's Sound, only 200 miles apart and with continuous land between, are much more distinct in their plants than T. and V. separated by a wide arm of the sea. It is to be noted too that this W.A. flora is purely Australian, having no intermixture of those European, Antarctic or Malayan types which abound in the flora of East Australia. S.A. occupies an intermediate zone, and appears to have received its rather poor flora by migration from both the east and west. It possesses hardly any special features, and is therefore of little importance. The wonderful assemblage of plants so peculiarly Australian in character, and so abundant in genera and species, crowded together in the south-western extremity of the continent, on a comparatively narrow tract of land between the interior deserts and the sea offers a difficult problem to the naturalist. It is evidently not derived from any other existing country, and it is equally clear that it must have been developed in some wider and more varied area than that in which it now exists; where, indeed, it has all the appearance of the remnant of an even richer flora compressed within narrow limits, since the rarity and limited range of many of its component species are usually held to be the precursors of extinction. Dr. Hooker suggests that the antecedents of the peculiar flora may have inhabited an area to the westward of the present continent, and that the curious analogies which the later presents with the South African flora may be connected with such a prior state of things. The most interesting external relations of the temperate flora are with the Antarctic islands, with South Africa, and with Europe. There are about a dozen genera of plants especially characteristic of Antarctic lands (including in that term all the islands south of N.Z., and America south of Chili) which are also found in the mountains of south-eastern A.; while there are more than twenty species common to these two districts. There is, however, nothing to show whether these were originally Australian or Antarctic plants, or in what direction the migration has taken place. The South African flora is as distinct from that of tropical Africa as the temperate Australian is from that of Malaya and India; any resemblance between these two widely-separated south-temperate floras is therefore of great interest. The European element in the flora is far more prominent than either of the preceding, and is perhaps more difficult to account for. Dr. Hooker gives a list of thirty-seven species of British plants all especially characteristic of Northern Europe and Asia and quite unknown in the tropics, yet inhabiting A., mostly on the mountains at considerable elevations, and therefore not at all likely to have been introduced. Besides these more than fifty European genera are represented by allied species. On the other hand the existing European flora does not contain one Australian species or representative, or betray the most remote direct botanical affinity with the Australian. There

are however a few Australian forms in China, the Philippines and Java, and a remarkable small group of Australian types on the summit of Kinibalon, the highest mountain in Borneo. These may perhaps be the remnants of a once wide-spread type of vegetation, for we have good evidence that groups of plants now peculiar to A. formerly inhabited Europe. In the Miocene deposits of Switzerland Heer has discovered a number of Australian genera. Fossil wood belonging to a *Banksia* has also been found in the Eocene deposits near Windsor, and as in several cases the fruits have been found and the foliage has the same microscopical structure as that of living Australian species, there seems no reason to doubt that some of the most characteristic groups of plants were then found also in Europe and probably in the intervening regions. The high antiquity of the flora is proved by its great amount of generic and ordinal peculiarity. A genus is rendered peculiar by the extinction of the intermediate species connecting it with other genera, and when many genera are very peculiar the extinction must have been proportionally great. There must thus have been an extraordinary destruction of the species which once linked the flora with that of the rest of the globe; and as such extinction is mainly due to geological and geographical changes, which are slow in operation, it follows that the isolated flora must be a very ancient one. But the flora is not only very isolated but also very rich, and as highly organised as any on the globe. Dr. Hooker concludes from his study of the whole subject that the European and Australian floras are essentially distinct and not united by those of intervening countries, though fragments of the former are associated with the latter in the Southern Hemisphere. There are many bonds of affinity between the three southern floras (the Antarctic, Australian and South African,) and these may all have been members of one great vegetation which may once have covered as large a southern area as the European now does a northern. When this great southern flora originated or where it acquired its maximum development it is vain to speculate, but the geographical changes that have resulted in its dismemberment into isolated groups scattered over the Southern Ocean must have been great indeed. —(*Condensed from Wallace.*)

FORBES, SIR FRANCIS (1784-1841) first Chief Justice of N.S.W., was a native of Bermuda in the West Indies. He was called to the English Bar in 1812, appointed Advocate-General at Bermuda in 1813, Chief Justice of Newfoundland in 1816, and first Chief Justice of N.S.W. in June 1823. He promulgated the new charter of Justice at Government House, the Court-house, and the Market Place on 17th May 1824, and took his seat on the bench the same day. The new Supreme Court of Criminal Jurisdiction was opened under this charter on 10th June 1824. He was appointed to the Legislative and Executive Councils by sign-manual in August 1825. He had the entire organisation of

the Courts of Justice in the colony, and through his exertions trial by Jury was obtained in Quarter Sessions in October 1824. The first Court of Quarter Sessions was held in November 1824 and the first Legislative Council in August 1824. In 1826 through the strong remonstrances of Forbes, liberty of the press was preserved. His health having given way under his arduous duties in April 1836 he left the colony for England. He was knighted in 1837, resigned his appointment from ill health and returned to the colony the same year, and died in the colony in November 1841.

FORBES, FREDERICK AUGUSTUS (1818-1877) a native of Sydney, N.S.W. went to the Moreton Bay District in 1848 and took up his residence at Ipswich. He was a member of the Queensland Legislature from its first institution; was chosen Chairman of Committees in 1870, and in 1872 Speaker of the Assembly. He retired from public life in 1875.

FORBES RIVER, in N.S.W., is a branch of the Hastings, and was discovered and named by Oxley in honour of Mr. Forbes the Marquis of Hastings' nephew.

FORESTIER'S PENINSULA, at the S.E. corner of T. lies to the northward of Tasman's Peninsula. Its principal capes are Cape Paul Lamanon, Cape Frederick Henry and Cape Surville. It was named by Marion in 1772.

FORREST, ALEXANDER, explorer, a younger brother of John Forrest, accompanied his brother in his expeditions in 1870 and 1874 and subsequently made expeditions of his own in W.A. The most notable of these latter was the expedition of 1879 from the De Grey River to the source of the Fitzroy River and thence to Port Darwin. Forrest's narrative of this journey is given in the report to the Governor of W.A.:—"We left Beagle Bay on the 20th April, travelling east to King's Sound near Disaster Bay, thence keeping a short distance inland to the Fitzroy River twenty miles. From S. lat. 17° 41' long. 123° 36' we crossed a large river running into King's Sound, which we followed to its head besides numerous other streams. The country was all well grassed and watered. Thence we followed the Fitzroy upwards to lat. 18° 30' long. 125° 20'. The river then ran generally about N.E. to lat. 17° 41' long. 126° 10' where it entered a high table range two thousand feet high and we were unable to follow it any further. There were splendid alluvial flats well grassed on each bank of the river for at least twenty miles. From the Fitzroy under the foot of the high table range to Secure Bay in lat. 16° 24' long. 124° 28' the country was well grassed and watered but very rough. Here our first difficulties commenced, the high range falling abruptly into an arm of the sea. After some trouble we succeeded in getting over the high range, but all attempts to get away further towards the Glenelg were without success, although the Stephen Range was visible in the distance. After spending a fortnight in making roads and

losing ten horses owing to the rough nature of the country, we then walked ten miles and found that it was utterly impracticable to get through these ranges to the Glenelg, and as we had followed the high range all the way from the Fitzroy it was useless to return by our outward tracks to see if it were possible yet to find a pass. After some trouble we got out of them, and keeping about twenty miles south of our outward tracks we passed through a fine grass country well watered, reaching the Fitzroy on 8th July. The question now became, should I return to Beagle bay or explore eastward to the boundary of the colony? The latter course was decided upon and with thirteen horses, all that was left, and provisions for fifty days, we started following up the eastern branch of the Fitzroy, which left the main river in latitude $18^{\circ} 4'$ to latitude 18° , longitude $127^{\circ} 40'$, where we crossed the dividing range. There was splendid grass country well watered all the way. Thence we proceeded to the boundary of the colony which was crossed in $16^{\circ} 50'$, the country between being some of the best in Australia, clear grassy plains and running springs at every mile. We also followed a large river coming from the westward in longitude $128^{\circ} 10'$ for twenty miles northwards. It then ran N.W., but being short of provisions and having a sick party, I regret to say I was unable to follow it any further. There was good grassy country as far as the eye could reach on each side of the river. From the boundary of the colony we bore N.E., crossing Sturt's Creek in latitude $16^{\circ} 30'$, and the Victoria at its junction with the Wickham. The country was all well grassed and watered. From the Victoria we bore E.N.E. through a splendid country to latitude $15^{\circ} 50'$, longitude $130^{\circ} 30'$, and here for the first time we were unable to find water ahead. After hunting for some days and losing time, our horses by this being reduced to eight owing to our having to live on them, and my party being far from well, I decided on risking it and making a push for the telegraph line, and on the 29th left with Hicks on the two best horses, reaching the line on the 1st September, having only found one small water for 100 miles. After going up the line some distance I met a Government party repairing the line, who kindly lent me horses and rations. I returned to my camp on the 11th and found all well, and we reached here in safety to-day, receiving every kindness from Mr. and Mrs. Murray of the Katherine station. In conclusion, this expedition has been the means of discovering the watershed of the Fitzroy and other large streams, also an extent of good country well watered, equal to 20,000,000 of acres suitable for pastoral purposes, besides a large area for the growth of sugar, coffee and rice. Besides, no time or trouble has been spared by myself in getting a correct map of the country, and although no one regrets more than I do myself that I have not been able to accomplish the far north exploration, still I trust the large extent of

good country opened up will compensate the colony for the cost of the undertaking. The health of my party has been bad, Carey suffering for nearly three months. My brother had a severe attack of sunstroke, and the two natives are still much reduced. The rest of us are in good health. My party, one and all, have done their best to further the success of the expedition. Large numbers of natives were seen, but in no single case had we any trouble with them. From the Fitzroy to here we have had to walk nearly the whole way, and the scale of rations was very poor. I have worked hard—more so than I have ever done in my life—to bring this expedition to a success, but owing to the rough hills over which I could possibly have no control, as my horses would not at last face them, and, as will be seen, ten of them were lost, we tried hard to get north without success."

FORREST, JOHN, Explorer and Deputy Surveyor-General of W.A., accepted the leadership of an expedition sent out by the Government in 1869 to search for Leichhardt. A report had reached Perth that some of the natives in the eastern district had stated that about twenty years before a party of white men had been murdered by the blacks at a place they could point out. Forrest started from Perth 16th April 1869, and travelled in a north-easterly direction through about seven degrees of E. longitude. No traces of Leichhardt's party were found, nor did the country traversed appear to possess any value for pastoral purposes. Retracing their steps, the party reached Perth on the 4th August. In 1870 Forrest set forth again, with his brother Alexander as second in command and four men, two of whom were natives. They started on 30th March and reached Esperance Bay on 29th April, where a small vessel with provisions and stores was awaiting them. Continuing their route along the coast, nearly in the tracks of Eyre, the party found some tracks of his encampments, and reached Port Eucla on 2nd July, where they again found the vessel waiting for them. They embarked and reached Adelaide on 27th August. In March 1874 Forrest started a third time to explore the country lying between the western coast and settled districts of S.A. They travelled easterly, had an encounter with the natives, and found an oasis in the desert, with a spring of pure water fertilising a grassy tract in which kangaroos, emus, and birds of various species were found to be numerous. On 27th September the party came in sight of the electric telegraph line from Adelaide to Port Darwin and camped. Long and continued cheers were given by the little band as they beheld the last goal to which they had been travelling for so many weary months. All their provisions excepting flour had been exhausted some weeks before, so that they had to live on damper and water. Three days later they reached one of the outlying stations in the settled districts of S.A., where they were hospitably entertained. Forrest's name stands high on the roll of Australian

explorers. He received for these services the thanks of the Governor-in-Council and a grant of 5000 acres of land. In his capacity of Deputy Surveyor-General of the colony he has executed a trigonometrical survey of the territory as far northward as the DeGrey River. He holds the gold medal of the Royal Geographical Society.

FORSTER MOUNTAIN, in N.S.W., in the district of Wellington, is more than 200 feet in height and lies about five miles N.N.W. of Mount Harris. It was named by Oxley after Lieutenant Forster R.N.

FORSTER, WILLIAM (1818—) was born at Madras and came to N.S.W. when eleven years of age. From an early age he exhibited considerable ability as a political journalist and as a contributor to miscellaneous literature. He entered political life soon after the introduction of responsible government and became noted as a keen and powerful debater. He represented various constituencies in succession, and when in October 1859 the Cowper Ministry was defeated, Forster was called on to form a new Administration. He continued in office till the following March; and was subsequently Colonial Secretary in the first Martin Ministry in 1863; Secretary for Lands in the second Robertson Ministry in 1868; and Treasurer in the third Robertson Ministry in 1875. In February 1876 he was appointed Agent-General for the colony and held the office for three years, a disagreement with the Parkes Ministry being the cause of his recall. Forster has published several works in prose and poetry, and notably a volume embodying his experiences in public life, entitled "Political Presentments" (1879.)

FORT BOURKE, on the western bank of the Darling in N.S.W., is that part of the river fixed on by Mitchell as a depôt, and is situated about twelve miles below the junction of New Year's Creek. It was strengthened by Mitchell as a place of defence against the natives; he having cut down the few trees on it and erected a block house large enough to contain all his stores and equipment. He named it Fort Bourke in honour of Governor Sir Richard Bourke.

FORTESCUE BAY, a beautiful bay of T., situated on the E. coast in Tasman's Peninsula about five miles to the northward of Cape Pillar. This headland shows first to a voyager from the north the pillars of that extensive basaltic formation which renders the S.E. coast of T. so remarkable. Here the columns are lofty isolated obelisks, but the pillar-character of the rock becomes more continuous until it assumes its loftiest proportions in the grandeur of Cape Pillar and Tasman's Island.

FORTESCUE RIVER, in W.A., was discovered and named by Frank Gregory in 1861. It lies to the south of Nichol Bay.

FORT O'HARE, a mountain in V., near the river Glenelg, was discovered and named by Mitchell in memory of his commanding officer, who

fell at Badajoz in leading the forlorn hope of the light division to the storm.

FOSTER, JOHN FITZGERALD LESLIE (1818—) a native of Dublin and a member of a distinguished Irish family, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and came to Port Phillip in 1840. In 1848 he came forward as candidate for the representation of the district in the N.S.W. Legislature; but the colonists were determined on attracting the attention of the Imperial Government to their grievances, and they therefore elected Earl Grey as their representative by an overwhelming majority. The adherents of the local administration were very anxious to carry Foster's election; but every effort they made was fruitless. Subsequently at a second election Foster refused to allow himself to be nominated, and joined the ranks of the advocates of separation. He was appointed Colonial Secretary by the Imperial Government on the retirement of Captain Lonsdale in 1852; and administered the Government in the interval between Governor Latrobe's departure in May and the arrival of Sir Charles Hotham in June 1854. When the discontents broke out on the goldfields in 1853 the following public notice was issued by the Government:—

"Colonial Secretary's Office, Melbourne,

"September 1st, 1853.

"His Excellency the Lieutenant-Governor directs it to be notified that the proposed abolition of the license fee to gold-diggers in no way affects the obligation of any one to pay the current license fee until a new act may be passed by the Legislature. In the meantime the law must be observed. His Excellency relies on the good sense and loyalty of the community, and the influence of their example, in supporting order and maintaining the law.

"By his Excellency's command,

"(Signed) JOHN FOSTER."

This notice was at once deemed a revival of the contest, and all classes beheld it with alarm and consternation. The agitation was renewed with greater violence than ever. A bill to alter the gold license had to be hurried through the House, and was at once assented to by his Excellency, before the troubled political waters once more subsided. McCombie gives the following account of Foster's administration:—"Under 5 and 6 Victoria, chapter 36, one half of the territorial revenue previous to the introduction of responsible government was directed to be applied exclusively to the introduction of population; but the Executive Council had seized on the whole fund, amounting to £865,829 18s. 5d., and in direct contravention of the law had expended it; and this had been done on their own responsibility without consulting even the Legislature. The utmost dissatisfaction existed with Foster and the other members of the Executive Council. They had abused the patronage of the Government;

they had multiplied public offices and filled them with incompetent men. It was openly asserted that the officers of the government jobbed in land, merchandise and public houses; that the fountain of justice was impure; that collusive contracts were common. A deputation waited on Foster when administering the government to remonstrate with him for the non-expenditure of £80,000 voted for the wharves of Melbourne; in accordance with this vote a government officer had bought £100,000 worth of timber, and the Government had no money to lay out on wharves. The deputation suggested that the error might be at least partially remedied and the timber re-sold; this was not however in accordance with the red-tape notions of the Acting-Governor, and the result was that the wharves continued sometime longer a disgrace to the city, and the timber lay rotting on the ground until it should be required. In several of the departments there was downright dishonesty, and in all of them there was the utmost inefficiency. Such was the legacy Latrobe left Victoria. Those in office at this period were his friends and supporters, with the exception perhaps of Secretary Foster who probably obtained his office by personal solicitation." When Sir Charles Hotham arrived the fact soon became notorious that there was no mutual confidence between the Governor and his principal adviser. Their differences culminated when on the breaking out of the Ballarat riots the people demanded the dismissal of the Colonial Secretary. Foster was at length driven to offer to resign and the offer was eagerly accepted. "The people" says McCombie "knew him only as the organ of the government; they also regarded him as the worst of ministers and clamoured for his disgrace." Sir Charles Hotham no doubt saw that the multitude must have a victim, and to fortify his secretary in his laudable purpose he held out hope of ample compensation. His Excellency placed in his hands a document dated 11th December 1854, which was relied on by that gentleman in the various efforts he made to obtain compensation for loss of office. His Excellency in this curious state paper acknowledges a letter from Mr. Foster offering to resign his office if he thought his remaining in power was any impediment to the Government, and in answer says "he would not under ordinary circumstances have allowed the prejudices of the people to influence his decision; but the circumstances of this colony are peculiar—masses of men are herded together, easily excited, easily influenced by designing leaders and suffering at the same time from diminished facility in acquiring gold." His Excellency says farther, "the hostility against the Government is very general and I could not disguise from myself that were I to decline accepting the resignation the Queen's colony would be placed in jeopardy." Sir Charles Hotham concluded by hoping that the Legislature on his recommendation would see fit to award him compensation for the pecuniary sacrifice he was making

in the cause of the colony. But no compensation was ever awarded. In 1855 Foster was elected to the first Legislative Assembly under the new Constitution, and held office as Treasurer in the first O'Shanassy Ministry in March 1857. At the close of that Parliament Foster returned to Europe.

FOSTER, WILLIAM JOHN, a native of Ireland, educated at Trinity College, Dublin, came to N.S.W. in 1854. He was called to the bar in 1858, and the following year published a work on the District Courts Act, which continues to be the standard book on the subject. In 1859 he was appointed Crown Prosecutor, and again, after an interval of resignation, in 1870. He resigned this office in 1877 and joined the Farnell administration as Attorney-General with a seat in the Legislative Council. He has been a representative member of the Church of England Diocesan Synod of Sydney, also of the Provincial Synod of N.S.W., and of the General Synod of Australia, since these Synods were instituted.

FOVEAUX, JOSEPH, Lieutenant-Colonel commanding the N.S.W. Corps. In July 1808 Foveaux who had been absent on leave returned from England and superseded Major Johnston. Upon being informed of the rebellion he determined to take no steps until he should hear from the British Government to whom he transmitted full accounts of the proceedings of all concerned. He administered the Government for about five months until at the commencement of 1809 Colonel Paterson arrived from V.D.L. and superseded him. When Macquarie came out to encourage the emancipist class to persevere in good conduct, he raised one of them named Thompson to the magisterial bench. It was said that the influence and advice of Foveaux caused Macquarie to select Thompson for this special mark of favour and distinction. The story is that Foveaux, disgusted with Macquarie's strong leaning towards that class to which Thompson belonged, thought to make Macquarie suffer for his error by recommending the man most likely to get himself and his patron into a scrape, and that upon learning that Thompson had actually been gazetted as a justice of the peace he exclaimed "I have placed a blister upon Governor Macquarie which he will never be able to remove." Macquarie who was by no means deficient in cutting sarcasm said in reference to the opposition raised in consequence of this appointment that "he had but two classes to choose from—those who had been transported and those who ought to have been."

FOVEAUX STRAIT, the strait separating the Middle and South Island of N.Z. was so called from Lieutenant-Colonel Foveaux, acting-Governor of N.S.W. in 1808.

FOWLER'S BAY, in S.A., in the Great Australian Bight, is formed by a projecting point called Point Fowler, which lies on its S. side. The country inland consists of sandy and scrubby ridges, with salt swamps and brackish water. This bay was called after Fowler, first lieutenant of the

Investigator, the ship in which Flinders made his explorations on the S. coast. The cliffs and rocks are calcareous. There is no timber in the neighbourhood, and but very little fresh water. Near the bay are numerous islands, the bases of which are composed of granite, and upon which curious animals and plants have been found. At the head of this bay Eyre made his depôt or *cache* for stores whilst on his journey over the desert from Port Lincoln to W.A. in 1840. The surrounding country is a pastoral district. It is 200 miles W. by N. of Streaky Bay. The country is undulating, consisting of lightly-grassed plains and scrub. The population of the district is very limited.

FRANCIS, JAMES GOODALL (1819—) a native of England, came to V.D.L. in 1834 and engaged in mercantile pursuits. In 1853 he went to V. where he at once took a leading part in commerce and entered largely into the culture of the vine. In October 1859 he was returned to the Legislative Assembly for Richmond, and shortly afterwards accepted office as Commissioner for Public Works in the Nicholson Ministry. On the resignation of J. C. King he became Commissioner of Trade and Customs in the first M'Culloch Administration, a position which he exchanged for that of Treasurer in the same government. He voted for the revision of the tariff 1865-6 in the direction of Protection, and supported its being tacked to the Appropriation Bill. He also voted in favour of the proposed grant to Lady Darling. He led the Opposition during the latter part of the Duffy Administration, and when it was defeated in June 1872 Francis was sent for by the Governor. He formed a Government and on 19th July met Parliament with a strong party. During his Administration several useful measures were added to the Statute Book, amongst the most important of them were those authorising the construction of railways estimated to cost about £2,250,000. He also passed through the Assembly an Electoral Bill and a Bill to legalise mining on private property, but both were thrown out by the Council. He introduced to the Assembly what was known as the Norwegian scheme for the settlement of differences between the Upper and Lower Chambers; but as it did not meet with the amount of support which he had anticipated, he resigned in July 1874, having held office for two years and two months. After a visit to Europe he was again elected to the Assembly for Warrnambool and held the seat till the dissolution in 1880, and was elected once more. On three several occasions Francis refused the honour of knighthood, preferring the republican simplicity of an untitled name.

FRANKLIN, SIR JOHN (1786—1847) navigator and explorer, was born at Spilsby in Lincolnshire, England, in 1786. From his boyhood he had a strong partiality for the sea, and when fourteen years of age entered the Royal Navy as midshipman. The year following Franklin's ship

led the van in the desperate sea-fight off Copenhagen when Nelson gained a great victory over the Danish fleet. Two months after Franklin was appointed to the *Investigator*, which was fitting out for discovery and survey of the Australian coast under the command of his cousin Flinders. During this voyage Franklin studied hard at navigation, marine surveying and the natural sciences, so that he made himself an extremely well-educated man and an accomplished naval officer. The *Investigator* explored and surveyed the coasts of W.A. and S.A. Flinders also sailed into and surveyed Port Phillip, which had been discovered only ten weeks before by Murray in the *Lady Nelson*. Franklin returned to England in 1804 and was appointed to another line-of-battle ship. He was present at the battle of Trafalgar in 1805 where the illustrious Nelson lost his life. Happily Franklin escaped without a hurt. He was also present at the battle of New Orleans in 1814. Five years after Franklin was sent by the British Government to Hudson's Bay in North America with orders to explore his way thence to the Arctic Sea and to survey as much of the coast as possible. This expedition lasted about three years and a-half, and in the course of it Franklin travelled 5500 miles under circumstances of such severe hardship and privation that more than one half of his companions perished from cold and suffering. Franklin lived through all the perils and privations and returned to England in 1823, having successfully executed his commission. In 1825 he submitted to Lord Bathurst a plan "for an expedition overland to the mouth of the Mackenzie River, and thence by sea to the N.W. extremity of America, with the combined object also of surveying the coast between the Mackenzie and Coppermine Rivers." This proposition was accepted and six days afterwards he left Liverpool. The expedition was entirely successful, and Franklin returned to England the following year. He next accepted a commission for active service in the war for their national independence which the Greeks were maintaining against the Turks. In this war the Greeks were aided by England, France and Russia. It was ended by the great victory gained by the combined fleets over the Turkish fleet in the Bay of Navarino on 20th October 1827. Since that time Greece has been an independent kingdom. Franklin had now given twenty-seven years of public service to his country and the world, and honours began to flow in upon him. He was knighted by William the Fourth, and many learned societies enrolled his name amongst their members. In 1836 he was appointed by Lord Glenelg Governor of V.D.L. He was accompanied by Captain Maconochie, late secretary of the Geographical Society and one of the professors of the London University, and by the Rev. William Hutchins, in whose favour V.D.L. was erected into an arch-deaconry. Franklin assumed the government on 6th January 1837. "The nomination of Franklin," says West "was

acceptable to the colonists. His profession, his career and character were considered auspicious. He had accompanied the illustrious Flinders on his voyage of discovery, and was at Sydney when the first party left that port to colonise this island. During thirty-four years he had himself obtained great nautical renown, his intrepidity, his sufferings, his humanity and piety had been often the theme of popular admiration and were not unknown in Tasmania. The colonists were resolved to give him an appropriate welcome. He saw with astonishment the signs of wealth and activity in a country which he only remembered as a wilderness. Crowds followed him with acclamations; addresses couched in language of eulogy and hope poured in from every district. The progress of the Governor through the colony was attended with feasting, balls and public festivities. On his entrance into Launceston he was escorted by 300 horsemen and seventy carriages; the streets were thronged; the windows were crowded by fair spectators who shared the general enthusiasm. The private settlers received him with unsparing hospitality; he was both oppressed and delighted with the signs of popular joy. The hearty frankness of his replies was contrasted with the official coldness ascribed to his predecessor. He repeatedly reminded the colonists that although ambitious of their favour the duties of his station would probably oblige him to disappoint their desires. He assured them that he came among them without prejudice, and determined to see with his own eyes, hear with his own ears, and judge with his own judgment." But his task was no easy one. The perplexing question of secondary punishments, "destined to confound the wise, and furnish a theme for dogmatism through all time," agitated the colonies. Sir William Molesworth's Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to deal with it. The severity enjoined by the Home Government and the lenity of Governor Bourke had raised an outcry against transportation. There had been 442 capital convictions in three years. Men's minds were greatly agitated concerning new forms of penal discipline. Maconochie, who had a benevolent theory of his own, founded on the "mark" system, set himself to collect facts. In his estimate of prisoners Maconochie it is said was equally deceived by a generous confidence, or by his pity for human suffering. He embodied the results in a report and sent it home to the Colonial Office, without having fully explained the contents of the despatch to Franklin. On its publication he was dismissed by the Governor, and stormy discussions followed the charges made against the settlers. Franklin's term of office in T. extended to August 1843. He showed deep interest in educational matters, and had to contend with one of those crises which seem periodically to occur in colonies. Over speculation in land and stock and an unhealthy system of credit produced the usual depressing results. Sheep fell to half-a-crown

a-piece and wheat to half-a-crown a bushel. The discovery that sheep could be boiled down and that the tallow would bring about eight shillings a-piece saved the stockowners of the colonies and the other branches of commerce from utter insolvency. The year 1840 was the most prosperous year in the history of T. The revenue rose to £183,000. The imports were £988,000 and the exports £867,000. The chief difficulties in Franklin's official career were in ameliorating the condition of the prisoners and dealing with the vast numbers of those who were poured into the colony. In the five years subsequent to 1840 nearly 20,000 prisoners were sent to T. "The last three years of Sir John Franklin's administration," says West, "were chiefly employed in arranging the details of the system of penal discipline afterwards expanded by Lord Stanley to gigantic proportions. Accompanied by Lady Franklin in 1842 he penetrated the western district of V.D.L. to Macquarie Harbour, formerly a penal station, to ascertain its fitness for a similar purpose, and some of the perils of his early life were renewed. His absence for several weeks awakened great anxiety, and his return was greeted with a general welcome. The most painful event of his political career sprung from a disagreement with the nephews of Sir George Arthur, and especially with Mr. Montague the Colonial Secretary. A narrative of this dispute written by Franklin on his return to England was issued for private circulation just after he started on his last voyage of discovery. This account traces minutely the progress of a quarrel which all parties concerned are anxious to forget. The issue was that Montague was dismissed. But Franklin was recalled. Before he received official notice of his recall his successor arrived. On this abrupt termination of his office he obtained private lodgings in haste. The Legislative Council then sitting, the various churches and literary societies, expressed their admiration of his personal character, and more sparingly their approval of his administration. He was attended on his departure by a considerable party of northern colonists. The frank and humane temper of Franklin won the affections of the settlers. He thought favourably of their general character, appreciated their moral worth, and shared in their notions of penal discipline. The insults of which he complained were the acts of a few; a philosopher would have smiled where he deprecated, and have felt that the salary of office is not more certain than the enmities which surround it. The appointment of Franklin to this Government was made at the instance of William IV., by whom he was greatly esteemed. It was his expectation to find an easy retreat like some of the military governments where veterans enjoy the dignity of office without its toils. But he found himself doomed to encounter all the responsibilities of ordinary legislation and government, with difficulties peculiar to a penal colony. For this his former pursuits had not prepared

him. His manner was often embarrassed and hesitating, and presented a contrast to the quiet vigour of his more able but not more amiable predecessor. The colony had attained that development when the public institutions require reconstruction, and the popular will must in some measure regulate their form and spirit. The administration of the Governor was eminently disinterested. He had no private speculations or secret agents, and his measures were free from both the taint and the reproach of corruption. Such faults were sometimes imputed, but they were the staple slanders of writers without credit or name. His expenditure greatly exceeded his official income; and while the plainness of his establishment and entertainments was the topic of thoughtless censure, the charities of his family were scattered with a liberal hand. The piety of Franklin was ardent, and his conscience scrupulous. His remarks in Council on the sports of some idle boys in the Government Domain on the Lord's Day exposed him to the satire of scorners. An anecdote on the authority of Captain Back shows his harmless character in a striking light:—"As an illustration of the excellent individual to whom it refers, I may be pardoned for introducing it here. It was the custom of Sir John Franklin never to kill a fly, and though teased with them beyond expression, especially when taking observations, he would gently desist from his work and patiently blow the half-gorged intruders from his hands saying—'The world is wide enough for both.' Manfully (an Indian chief) could not refrain from expressing his surprise that I should be so unlike the 'old chief,' who would not destroy a single mosquito." In 1845 when nearly sixty years of age, a time of life when most men begin to think of retiring from active service, Franklin accepted the command of another expedition to explore the North-west Passage from Europe to America. The expedition sailed in May, and the last news heard from it was in July. But the vessels never returned home again. Franklin and his gallant party of explorers all perished in the frozen sea of the North Pole. For eleven years no tidings of what had happened to them reached England. Twenty separate expeditions were sent out in search of them at a cost of more than a million sterling. But all was in vain; no trace of the missing explorers could be found until in 1857 the mystery of their fate was cleared up. From the time that her husband had sailed on his last expedition Lady Franklin had never ceased her endeavours to obtain intelligence of her husband's fate. At last in 1857 she fitted out at her own expense a steam vessel, the *Fox*, commanded by Captain McClintock, to go once more in search of the explorers. After encountering many hardships from the rigorous climate, and narrowly escaping shipwreck amid the ice-fields, the party fell in with a tribe of natives in a snow village near the Fish River, from whom they learned the particulars of the loss of Franklin's ships. Many articles

belonging to the expedition were found—such as guns, watches, silver spoons, books, and fragments of clothing. Even the skeletons of some of the brave men who had perished were found in the snow. Amongst a heap of stones which they had raised as a landmark a tin box was picked up, in which was enclosed a written record stating that Sir John Franklin had died in his cabin on the 11th of June 1847; that the two ships of which his expedition had consisted were shut up in the ice and abandoned by the crews on the 22nd of April 1848; and that the survivors, 105 in number, had landed and built the pile of stones and left that record. It was then discovered that this party of survivors had all perished in their attempt to cross the great ice-fields on sledges in hopes of reaching the ocean. Thus perished one of the most skilful navigators and bravest explorers that England ever possessed. His countrymen in all parts of the world, and the people of all civilised nations lamented the loss of the great and good Franklin. The colonists of T. founded a college and a learned society in his honour. They also subscribed a sum of £1600 sterling towards an expedition designed for his rescue. He was a man who was beloved by everybody that knew him intimately. "In the whole course of my experience," says Sir Edward Parry, "I have never known a man like Franklin; with all the tenderness of heart of a simple child there was all the greatness and magnanimity of a hero." Lady Franklin, the loving and true-hearted wife of this truly heroic man, survived her husband twenty-eight years, dying in 1875.

FRANKLIN HARBOUR, or **FLINDERS LAKE**, in S.A. is a deep indentation on the W. side of Spencer's Gulf. It is shallow and bordered by a large tract of pastoral land. There is an aboriginal station at this place.

FRANKLIN ISLANDS, a group of three islands in S.A. lying to the S. of St. Peter's Island in Nuyt's Archipelago, a little to the N.W. of Streaky Bay. They are of moderate elevation and have a reef of rocks above water of a circular shape and nearly half-a-mile in diameter, lying five and a-half miles N.W., called the Flinders Reef, over which the sea breaks with great violence.

FRASER MOUNTAIN, in N.S.W., situated in the district of Liverpool Plains, was named by Mitchell after a botanist of that name.

FRAZER'S ISLAND, on the E. coast of Q., received its name from Captain Frazer of the ship *Stirling Castle*, a Scotch vessel, which has obtained some celebrity in N.S.W. from having brought out to that colony a number of Scotch mechanics (the first free immigrants of this class who had ever arrived in the colony) to erect buildings for an academical institution in 1831. On a subsequent voyage to the colony Captain Frazer was unfortunately wrecked on the Barrier Reef on his way to India. He reached the coast however in his boat, but it was only to experience a more awful fate, for he was seized by the black natives on his

landing and inhumanly murdered with most of his crew. Frazer's Island lies parallel to the coast line, and is about sixty-five miles in length with an average breadth of ten miles, the northern half of which being abreast of a bight in the mainland gives the latter the appearance of a deep bay, and induced Cook to designate it Hervey's Bay, anticipating doubtless that a river would be discovered at its head. In this anticipation Governor Hunter concurred, but when it was ascertained that the land forming the east side of the bay was merely an island the idea of finding a river on that part of the coast was abandoned. Frazer's Island is rather of indifferent character in point of soil and general capabilities in the estimation of Europeans, but it is an excellent fishing station and abounds in the other requisites of aboriginal life.

FREDERIK HENDRIK BAY, a beautiful bay in the S. of T., discovered and named by Tasman in 1642. It was here on the 3rd December of that year that the ceremony of planting a standard and taking possession of the new territory in the Dutch prince's name was performed by the carpenter, Francis Jacobsz, who swam through the surf to reach the shore.

FREELING (—) explorer, made an expedition from Adelaide into the interior in 1857.

FREMANTLE, a township in W.A., situated at the mouth of the Swan River twelve miles from Perth, named after Captain Fremantle. The harbour accommodation has been decried, but vessels provided with good ground-tackle can ride out any gale coming from a northerly direction. These gales are the only ones which effect any damage to the shipping; but as the barometer is an infallible guide during the winter months when they prevail, vessels have ample time to make for an excellent harbour of refuge which is provided at Garden Island, about twelve miles distant. Surveys have been made with a view to harbour improvement, and a substantial lighthouse has been erected for the guidance of shipping entering Gage's Roads. Rottnest Island fourteen miles W. of Fremantle is the marine residence of the Governor. A native penal establishment and farm are established on Rottnest Island, where also are the government salt works. The Swan River is spanned by a fine wooden bridge nearly 1000 feet long, built entirely by prison labour during the reign of Governor Hampton. A bar of basaltic formation obstructs the mouth of the river. Fremantle is the principal port of the colony and has a population of about 4000. During the winter season bay whaling is actively carried on.

FREMANTLE, CAPTAIN. When the settlement of Swan River W.A. was determined on by the English Government in 1829 Captain Fremantle was sent in H.M.S. *Challenger* to take possession of the territory. Large grants of land were made to the commander and his officers, but the settlement proved a failure, and the grants were either sold or abandoned by their owners.

FRENCH ISLAND is the largest island in Westernport Bay, V. It is so called because the French Government after Baudin's voyage to Australia had some intentions of founding a settlement there, which however were never carried into effect. The English occupation of this continent had by that time become too secure to be disputed.

FREYCINET, M., first lieutenant to Captain Baudin in his expedition of 1800. He said to Flinders at Sydney Government House, "Captain if we had not been kept so long picking up shells and catching butterflies in V.D.L. you would not have discovered the south coast before us."

FROME, CAPTAIN, Surveyor-General of S.A. made an expedition into the Lake Torrens country in 1842-3.

FRYER'S TOWN, a mining township in V. on Fryer's Creek, eighty-five miles N. by W. of Melbourne. It was the scene of one of the earliest gold-field "rushes," and large returns of gold rewarded the first diggers. The district is still a mining one, the diggings being both alluvial and quartz. The population numbers about 600, and 1720 miners of whom 735 are Chinese are at work on the auriferous ground, the area of which is twenty-eight and three-quarter square miles with thirty-seven distinct quartz reefs. The water supply of the town is derived from the Crocodile and Spring Gullies.

FURNEAUX, CAPTAIN TOBIAS, navigator, was second in command under Cook in his second expedition. He sailed as second lieutenant under Wallis in his voyage of circumnavigation. On 8th February 1773, in thick and hazy weather, Furneaux's vessel the *Adventure* became separated from the *Resolution* under the command of Cook. The rendezvous appointed in the case of this accident was Queen Charlotte's Sound in N.Z., and thither Cook directed his course. When Cook arrived at Queen Charlotte's Sound on 18th May at daybreak, he found the *Adventure* in the harbour. It appeared that Furneaux having lost sight of the *Resolution* in a thick fog, fired half-hour signal guns without success, and cruised near the spot for three days, according to agreement, when he followed a more northerly course along the southern and eastern shores of V.D.L.; and from examination of them he reported that there was no strait between this land and New Holland, but a very deep bay. On 19th March he stood away for N.Z., which he reached on 7th April, since which date till Cook's arrival the voyagers of the *Adventure* had held friendly intercourse with the natives. When Cook sailed away into the Southern Ocean, and seeing no land, this circumstance, with the sickly state of the *Adventure's* crew, induced him to direct his course to Otaheite. After a short stay there, and a cruise amongst the Society Islands, as the period of the year for prosecuting his researches in the high southern latitudes had come round again, Cook directed his course to N.Z. which he desiered on 21st October. The

ships encountered a succession of severe gales and bad weather during which the *Adventure* was again lost sight of and not rejoined during the voyage. When Cook again reached Queen Charlotte's Sound on 17th October he found that the *Adventure* had been there. The natives of whom only a few appeared, and those in a state of great fear, gave information from which it was inferred that some calamity had befallen the crew. The mystery was subsequently cleared up by a letter from Furneaux which Cook found waiting him at the Cape of Good Hope on his homeward voyage. From the letter it appeared that Furneaux being blown off the coast was beaten about by violent storms till the 6th November, when he put into Tologa Bay for water and wood; and sailed from thence for Queen Charlotte's Sound, the appointed rendezvous for the ships in case of separation, which he reached on the 30th. The *Resolution* not being there Furneaux and his companions began to doubt her safety; but on landing they observed cut on an old stump of a tree these words: "Look underneath!" They dug accordingly and found a bottle corked and sealed containing a letter from Cook stating his arrival there on the 3rd of November and his departure on the 26th, and that he intended passing a few days in the entrance to the straits to look out for the *Adventure*. The *Adventure* was now got ready for sea with all speed, and on the 17th December Furneaux sent a midshipman with nine men in a large cutter to gather wild greens for the ship's company with orders to return that evening. As they did not return by the next morning and the ship was now ready for sea the second lieutenant Mr. Burney set out in search of the cutter in the launch manned with the boat's crew and ten marines. They proceeded firing guns into all the coves by way of signals and landed at a settlement to search the houses, but could not find any trace of the missing voyagers. Persevering in the search they saw on the beach adjoining Grass Cove a large double canoe just hauled up with two men and a boy. On seeing the launch the men ran off into the woods, when Burney and his companions landed, and on searching the canoe found in it the shoes of a midshipman, and subsequently was picked up a hand tattooed "T. H.," which was immediately known to have belonged to Thomas Hill, one of the fore-castle men of the *Adventure*. Around Grass Cove the natives had collected in great numbers shouting and inviting the English to land. From the number of the savages and the suspicion excited by finding the shoes and hand the lieutenant would not trust himself ashore, but fired among the people until they retired. He then landed with the marines and soon ascertained the melancholy fate of the missing boat's crew. "On the beach" he says "were two bundles of celery which had been gathered for loading the cutter; a broken oar was stuck upright in the ground to which the natives had tied canoes, a proof that the attack had been made here. I then

searched all along at the back of the beach to see if the cutter was there. We found no boat but instead of her such a shocking scene of carnage and barbarity as can never be mentioned nor thought of but with horror. The savages had not only butchered the whole crew, ten in number, but feasted on the remains of the victims of their ferocity and left parts of them strewn along the beach." Subsequently Cook learnt all the particulars. It appeared that the voyagers having landed left their boat in charge of Furneaux's black servant while the party sat down to dinner at about two hundred yards distance, surrounded by natives; during the meal some of the savages snatched up a portion of the bread and fish, for which the voyagers beat them, and nearly at the same moment a native attempted to steal some articles from the boat, for which the black servant struck him severely with a stick; his cries being heard by his countrymen they imagined him to be mortally wounded, and exasperated by some of their own party having been beaten they immediately began the attack upon the voyagers. Two of the savages were shot dead by the only two muskets that were fired; for before the English could re-load the natives, armed with their stone weapons, rushed upon them and overpowering them by numbers slew every one of them. A chief named Kahoora confessed that he had killed the commander of the party, as he said, because one of the muskets fired was levelled at him, from which he escaped behind the boat. Kahoora was more feared than beloved by his countrymen who, not satisfied by telling Cook he was a bad man, importuned the captain to kill him and were much surprised at not being listened to, for according to their notions of justice this ought to have been done. "But" observes Cook "if I had followed the advice of all our pretended friends I might have extirpated the whole race; for the people of each hamlet by turns applied to me to destroy the other." The natives who related these particulars to Cook showed him the very spot where the slaughter took place, and by pointing to the place of the sun signified that it happened late in the afternoon. They also marked the place of landing, but Cook could not ascertain what became of the boat. Some said that it was broken to pieces and burnt; others stated that it was carried they knew not whither by a party of strangers. More than fifty years afterwards Mr. Augustus Earle, a resident in N.Z., met an old native who told him that he did not remember Cook but well recollected Furneaux, and was one of the party that cut off and massacred his boat's crew. Mr. Earle had reason from some other information he received to credit this story of the New Zealander. After this lamentable occurrence the *Adventure* was detained in the sound ten days, but no more natives were seen. Furneaux despairing of meeting Cook got to sea 23rd December, and being favoured with an easterly current and westerly winds, in about a month doubled Cape Horn, and arrived at Spithead 14th July 1774.

FURNEAUX ISLANDS, a group of islands in Bass Strait. They are numerous, the largest measuring thirty-five miles by ten miles. The soil is sandy and the vegetation scanty.

FYANS, CAPTAIN F. (1786-1870) was one of the early commandants of Norfolk Island. He introduced the first and only horse that ever landed on that island, he was among the first officials sent to Port Phillip, and within the span of his life sprang into being the mother colony of N.S.W. and the other six colonies. He was the first Police Magistrate of the Geelong district in V., and his venerable soldierly form was familiar to the residents there for many years. His residence was at Fyansford, near Geelong.

G.

GABO ISLAND, a rocky island off the coast of Gippsland, V., standing at a considerable elevation above the level of the sea, about six miles S.W. of Cape Howe. It lies about a mile distant from the mainland and has a lighthouse burning a fixed white light called the Flinders light. The site was selected in 1846 by C. J. Tyers, and the lighthouse was erected by John Morris in 1848.

GAGE'S ROAD, is the port of Swan River in W.A. It is partially sheltered by Garden Island and two other islands Rottnest and Pulo Carnac; but it is greatly exposed to the N.W. winds which often blow with considerable violence.

GAMBIER, MOUNT, a conspicuous mountain in S.A., discovered by Grant in 1800 and named after Admiral Gambier. It is an extinct volcano and its crater forms the celebrated Blue Lake. The surrounding district is agricultural and pastoral, the soil being well adapted for the growth of wheat and other cereals. The land is undulating, thickly timbered, and intersected by swamps and lagoons. The general aspect is fertile and pleasing even seen at a distance. That portion lying to the S. between Mounts Gambier and Shanck consists of beautiful meadow land equal to any in England. The population of the township is limited, but the district is well populated by farmers.

GAMBIER ISLES are four islands lying nearly in the middle of the entrance to Spencer's Gulf, besides two peaked rocks lying S. of the largest and southernmost, which is three miles long. This is called Wedge Island from its shape. There are twenty or thirty fathoms in mid-channel between it and Cape Spencer. The West Island is six miles W. from Wedge Island, and is about the same distance E.S.E. from Thistle Island. A reef lies to the N. of the North Island.

GASCOYNE RIVER, in W.A., rises in the unsettled portions of the colony, and flows into Shark Bay. It was discovered in 1839 by Grey and traced by A. C. Gregory in 1848.

GAWLER, COLONEL GEORGE (1796-1869,) second Governor of S.A., was the son of Captain

Samuel Gawler of the 73rd Regiment, who led one of the storming parties at the siege of Seringapatam and died shortly afterwards at the early age of twenty-five. Gawler joined the 52nd Light Infantry in November 1811 and served to the end of the Peninsular war in 1814. He led the forlorn hope at the storming of Badajoz, was struck by a grape shot in the right knee and fell from the parapet into the ditch below, where he lay all night, but was rescued by a private of his regiment who had his own head shot off whilst in the act of serving his officer. Gawler commanded the right company of the 52nd Regiment at Waterloo when he was under twenty years of age and received the war medal with seven clasps. He was appointed Governor of S.A. in 1838 and arrived in the colony on 12th October. During Gawler's administration the colony passed through the greatest trials and difficulties it has had to encounter. Financial embarrassments—the result of folly and extravagance—threatened and almost accomplished the complete destruction of the settlement. Money was scarce, and labour, which ought to have been productively employed in developing the resources of the colony, was concentrated in the city, where men instead of producing something from the land lived on each other. To save the colony Gawler commenced extensive public works, to pay for which he drew upon the Lords of the Treasury and had his bills returned to him dishonoured. This was not to be wondered at, for one principle on which the colony was founded was that it was not to cost the Mother Country a penny. The money was subsequently advanced by the Imperial authorities as a loan and the difficulty was tided over. Probably Gawler did the best he could under the circumstances; but the Home Government were dissatisfied with his administration and treated him in a somewhat scurvy manner. Captain George Grey a young officer who had been exploring in W.A., on 10th May 1841, walked into Government House and presented to Colonel Gawler a commission appointing him (Captain Grey) Governor of the Province in succession to Gawler.

GAWLER, HENRY (1827—) a son of Governor Gawler, came to S.A. in 1838. He was sent to England for his education which he received at Rugby and King's College, London. He then became a pupil of Brodie the celebrated conveying lawyer, with whom he studied for three years, and was called to the Bar in 1852. He returned to S.A. in 1858. In that year the scheme initiated by Torrens for simplifying the legal mode of dealing with conveyances of land came into force, and Gawler received the appointment of one of the Solicitors to the Lands Titles Commissioners under the Torrens Act, which appointment he still holds. On three occasions Gawler has for a short time held the office of Attorney-General but without a seat in Parliament. In 1870 he was specially sent for by the Government of N.Z. to

inaugurate the Torrens system in that colony, and on the conclusion of his labours received flattering testimonials from the Government. Gawler has written valuable reports on the theory and practice of the Real Property Act.

GAWLER, PORT, a port and harbour of S.A., into which the River Gawler empties its waters.

GAWLER RIVER, a river of S.A. flowing into Port Gawler, on which stands the sea-port town of Milner.

GAWLER RANGE, a range of mountains in S.A., between Streaky Bay and Mount Arden. It is a singularly high and barren range; consisting of porphyrite granite extending nearly all the way across, and then stretching out to the N.W. in lofty rugged outline as far as the eye can reach. The most remarkable fact connected with this range is the arid and sterile character of the surrounding country as well as of the range itself. There is not a stream or watercourse of any kind emanating from it, and it is destitute of vegetation, and timber.

GEELONG, a town in V. on the shores of Corio Bay, the western arm of Port Phillip, forty-five miles S.W. from Melbourne with which it is connected by railway. It is also the central station for the railway lines to Ballarat and the north-western district, to Colac and the western district, and to Queenscliff. The date of its incorporation is 12th October 1849. The situation of Geelong is perhaps the most picturesque of any town in the colony. It stands between the miniature bay of Corio, which has been compared for fine scenery to the Bay of Naples, with its picturesque green cliffs and comparatively sheltered water, and the River Barwon which flows from N. to S. (at the distance of a long mile from the landing place,) towards its outlet in Lake Connewarra, which again joins the sea in Bass Strait, by a narrow entrance. The scenery of its suburbs is as agreeable, its soil as fertile and its climate as healthful as that of Melbourne, while the town is more immediately upon the waters of the port and affords superior natural facilities for loading, discharging, or watering ships, for fortifications to seaward, and for communication with the interior. There are four jetties in Corio Bay alongside which ships of large tonnage can load and discharge, since the bar at the entrance has been removed to a depth of 21 feet 6 inches, at a cost of £60,000. There is regular communication by sea with Melbourne, as well as by land. The bay was surveyed by Grimes in 1802. Flinders viewed it from Station Peak with great admiration of its fine natural features. Batman's Association selected it as the site of their settlement, and "that tract of country situate and being in the Bay of Port Phillip known by the name of Indented Head, but called by us Geelong," is included in the purchase made from the Doutigalla tribe of natives in 1835. The name taken by the Association was the "Geelong and Doutigalla Association."

Bonwick, narrating the events of the early settlement says—"Geelong was long dragging itself into notice. She was a beautiful but neglected child. Geographically situated it had superior attractions to Melbourne, that required Government nursing—royal jelly to sustain its growth. Westgarth remarks: 'The site of Geelong, the qualities of its harbour, and the rich, beautiful and open country that extends for many miles behind it, appears to me to have offered recommendations for the site of the capital decidedly superior to those of Melbourne.' The stations around Carayo or Corio Bay needed stores for supplies, and so the town was established before the Government survey was made. The first who drove a bullock team between the two places was the present Mayor of Geelong (Dr. Thomson,) the fears which his man entertained of the natives obliged him to take the whip. The first store was erected by Champion in the early part of 1838. It was of wood, and stood near the site of the Custom House. When the town was surveyed Champion was directed to remove his dwelling. It was afterwards put up in Corio-street. The next erection was that of Strachan's, on about the same place as his present store. Fisher the squatter had a house on the Barwon some time before either of these. Mack's Hotel was originally a slab hut, of course without a license. McNaughton removed from Champion's store to open the public-house in July 1838. The original tavern is now (1856) the back kitchen of the hotel. There was no brick house in Geelong before the arrival of Latrobe. The Rev. James Love's brick house first appeared in 1840. The first town sale of land was on 14th February 1839. It was held at Sydney, and two-thirds of the lots were purchased by Sydney folks. It was a double township—North and South Geelong. The north, by the bay, was called Corio. The south, by the Barwon, was thought likely to form the villa residences of merchants. The average price of the sixteen lots sold of North Geelong was £140; that of the twenty-six lots of South Geelong £40. Foster Fyans was the first police magistrate of the Geelong district, receiving his appointment as early as 5th September. Fenwick followed. The mail cart between the two towns started 15th May 1839, a punt being then thrown over Saltwater River; passengers paid £2. The first wool of the district was shipped by Champion to Willis, Garrett and Co., Hobart Town. It was conveyed to the *Princess Charlotte* at Cowie's creek, and the bales rolled off the bank into the vessel." Hume and Hovell in 1824 had come down on Corio Bay, and they learned the native name (Geelong) from the natives. The recommendation to lay out a township was made by Captain Fyans to Sir Richard Bourke in 1837. The town has the credit of establishing the first woollen mill in Victoria, and received the Government award of £1500. Its operations and buildings are more extensive than any other, the products of its looms being found all over Australia, the

land having cost £500, the buildings and improvements £16,000, and the machinery and plant £20,000. The cloth is manufactured by hand loom and steam power. One of the largest tanneries in the colony is carried on at the river Barwon; there are also several excellent wool-scouring establishments. The country surrounding Geelong is essentially agricultural and is taken up by farms, vineyards and orchards. The Barrabool hills on the west bank of the Barwon are of a very fertile character, and have also the advantage of being most picturesquely situated. There are extensive quarries of limestone at the eastern boundary of the town on the shores of Corio Bay. The population of the town and suburbs is about 23,000.

GEILS, COLONEL, in 1812 became Acting-Lieutenant Governor of V.D.L., and remained until the arrival of Governor Davey. Geils devoted great attention to agricultural pursuits and first formed at Risdon a considerable farming establishment. Ordered to India with the troops under his command he forwarded his youthful sons to the Cape of Good Hope, thence to be conveyed to England. The colonists heard soon after with deep commiseration that the vessel in which they re-embarked was lost.

GELLIBRAND, JOSEPH TICE, Attorney-General of V.D.L., arrived in the colony in 1824. He was dismissed from his office by Governor Arthur for alleged unprofessional conduct. The case excited great interest in the legal circles of Great Britain. The disagreement sprang chiefly from a trial, *Laurie v. Griffiths*, characteristic of the times. The plaintiff sued for damages for the illegal capture of a vessel of twelve tons, of which he was the owner and master. The vessel (called the *Fame*) was found by the brig *Glory* in Twofold Bay. Griffiths, the owner of the *Glory*, invited Laurie on board and made him prisoner. He then boarded the *Fame*, deprived her of charts and compass, and amidst the shouts of his seamen fastened her to the tail of the *Glory*. In this condition she was carried triumphantly towards Launceston, but a storm arising the *Glory* encountered by the *Fame* cast her adrift, when she was exposed to great danger. The prize-master ran her on shore, and the party were wrecked. After fourteen days journey through the woods they reached Georgetown. The justification pleaded was that the plaintiff had conveyed prisoners from Port Jackson and was liable to forfeiture, that he had embarked in an unlawful voyage and intended to visit Launceston to circulate forged paper. No proof of these assertions was offered, and the jury granted £460 damages, a verdict which the Government found no occasion to disturb. In the case of *Laurie v. Griffiths* Gellibrand had drawn the pleas for the plaintiff, and afterwards acted officially against him; he however transferred the fee he received to Alfred Stephen when he was compelled to relinquish the charge. The profession almost unanimously asserted that the custom of the English Bar warranted the practice

of Gellibrand. The judge stated that he was not controlled by the custom of the English Bar, and that the court might treat as a contempt a practice tolerated at Westminster. He considered the custom pernicious, but dismissed the case and left the Governor to act for himself. The appeal of Gellibrand to the profession perfectly vindicated his conduct. It was found that the first counsel in England often acted against a retaining client, and sometimes drew pleas on both sides. Alfred Stephen therefore brought the complainant formally before the court, and moved that Gellibrand be struck off the rolls. Although the Chief Justice dismissed Stephen's motion, the Governor determined to press the charge and appointed a commission of enquiry. Additional matter was urged. It was said that Gellibrand advised a client to enter an action against a magistrate, whom his office might oblige him to defend, and that his intimacy with Murray did not become his relations with the Government. Sergeant Talfourd regretted that by quitting the commissioners appointed by the Governor he had damaged his case. The crown had a right to dismiss; but he was clearly of opinion that the proceeding of the local officers was the effect of either "malice or mistake." The charges of professional malversation he pronounced too absurd for notice; that the practice was not only allowable but often imperative. Subsequently Gellibrand's name was expunged from the list of magistrates by order of the Secretary of State, for joining in sending a despatch directly without the Governor's concurrence. In January 1827 Gellibrand joined Batman in a proposal to Governor Darling to establish a settlement at Western Port in V., and to bring over stock to the value of £4000 or £5000. This proposal was refused on the ground that, as no determination had been come to with respect to a settlement at the spot, it was not in the Governor's power to grant their request. Gellibrand was a member of Batman's first Association to make a settlement in Port Phillip and took an active part in furthering its interests; but the Association did not succeed. West gives the following account of Gellibrand's unhappy end:—"A few months after the departure of Governor Arthur Gellibrand lost his life. He visited Port Phillip in 1836, a place which had long engaged his thoughts; in company with Mr. Hesse a barrister, he set out to explore the interior; they missed their way. The guide who attended them was convinced of danger; he could not prevail on them to change their route and he returned alone. Their long absence occasioned anxiety, and parties of their friends attempted to track them; they found that when in company with the guide they had crossed the Byron instead of the Leigh, their intended course; they then travelled on about fifteen miles by the river side and over a plain, and entered a wood soon impervious to horsemen; then their track was lost. For several years efforts were made to solve the mystery of their fate. In 1844 the natives directed Mr. Allen,

a gentleman of credit, to a spot where they stated a white man had been murdered; there he discovered human bones but no evidence by which identity could be established. Beyond this nothing certain is known." Gellibrand's contest with Governor Arthur continued many years, but they met at the sacrament shortly before their final separation. Arthur approached the seat where Gellibrand was sitting and offered his hand. This being misunderstood a prayer-book was tendered him; he then explained that before they joined in the solemnity which had brought them there he was anxious for reconciliation. A river and one or two other geographical points in the western district of V. bear Gellibrand's name.

GELVINK CHANNEL, is situated between the Abrolhos Islands and the mainland on the N.W. coast of the continent, and bears its name after the ship of Vlaming, the first that ever passed through it, in 1680.

GEOGRAPHE STRAIT divides Scoutens Island from Freycinet Peninsula on the E. coast of T.

GEOGRAPHE SHOALS lie on the N.W. coast of the continent. They form two rocky patches some distance from each other about twenty-three miles apart. These two geographical points were named by Baudin after his vessel in 1800.

GEORGE LAKE, in N.S.W., lies at an elevation of upwards of 2000 feet above the sea and is situated between the counties of Argyle and Murray. It is sixteen miles in length from N. to S. its greatest breadth being seven miles. The western shore is confined by a steep ridge of hills rising from the water's edge which extends southward to Molonglo, but the country eastward and southward of the lake is chiefly lowland with open plains. A succession of fine open plains extends northward from the northern shore.

GEORGE TOWN, a straggling village on the E. bank of the river Tamar, T., about four miles from its mouth upon a flat forming the N. side of a cove at the foot of a group of conical hills. On one of these is a signal station by means of which communication was kept up with Launceston, distant thirty-two miles, before the era of electric telegraphs came in.

GILBERT RIVER, in N.A., was discovered by Leichhardt in 1844. It falls into Van Diemen's River and was named in commemoration of the fate of his unfortunate companion Gilbert, the naturalist, who was killed by the natives on their overland journey to Port Essington.

GILES, ERNEST, explorer, came to S.A. in 1849. In 1852 he joined a party to the Victorian diggings, and subsequently became a clerk in the Post Office at Melbourne. In 1854 upon some retrenchments being made he lost this post, but obtained another in the County Court. This he soon afterwards resigned and joined an exploring party in Q. The route traversed by Macdonall Stuart from south to north across S.A., has since become the transcontinental telegraph line. This

line cuts the continent into two equal halves, which may be termed respectively the explored and unexplored halves. In 1872 Giles attempted to penetrate into the unknown portion. Starting from Chambers Pillars on the telegraph line, he discovered a host of permanent waters, ranges of mountains and tracts of good pastoral country. He also found some extraordinary geographical features, including the Glen of Palms, winding amongst the mountains for over 100 miles, with magnificent palm trees, growing to a height of sixty feet; also a vast salt expanse which he named Lake Amadeus after the then King of Spain, which apparently interminable obstacle prevented the further passage of the explorer in a westerly or southerly direction. Baffled also by the disorganisation of his small party, Giles after travelling over 1000 linear miles was compelled to return; the furthest distance reached from the telegraph line being 300 miles, at two points about 100 miles apart. Just as he had returned to his starting point, two other exploring expeditions, both of them furnished with camels by Sir Thomas Elder, were preparing to start, one being commanded by Major Warburton, whilst the other was fitted out by the South Australian Government under the charge of W. C. Gosse. Giles having placed his journal and map at the disposal of the Government, Gosse's expedition was ordered to examine the country considerably to the north of his route. The publication of Giles' journal induced some gentlemen of the Hamilton district to subscribe a new fund to enable Giles to pursue his investigations. With a fresh party and equipment he again left the telegraph line at a more southerly point, not many weeks after Warburton and Gosse, who both started a good deal further north. The novel fact of three exploring expeditions running a race against each other now occurred. Warburton reached the De Grey River on the western coast with only two camels, after suffering great hardships. Gosse penetrated to the 127th meridian, or nearly half the distance to be travelled, and then returned for about 200 miles on Giles' outgoing tracks. Giles' furthest on that occasion was also somewhere about the 127th meridian, but a good deal further south. He was obliged to return as the party were attacked nine times by the natives, all the horses died but one, and the leader gave that one to his companion Gibson to enable him to save his life, but Gibson was never again heard of, and Giles had to walk back, arriving in a state of great exhaustion and semi-consciousness at the dépôt. The distance travelled was 700 miles from the starting point. Four distinct ranges of mountains were mapped out, watercourses innumerable, and large tracts of good pastoral country. The South Australian Government contributed £250 towards this expedition, all of which however was swallowed up in paying wages and expenses. John Forrest was next despatched by the West Australian Government to cross from the Murchison river in that colony to the South Australian telegraph, and

he succeeded in coming upon Giles' tracks of the year before, and gained credit for 1000 miles of exploration when 600 miles of the distance should have been credited to Giles, Forrest's name being inserted on the maps of the Geographical Society. Giles' third attempt to cross the continent was more successful. Sir Thomas Elder fitted him out with camels for a new line of discovery. He started in May 1875, and the country through which he penetrated proved to be one of the most terrible deserts on the face of the earth, it being necessary to travel distances of 200 miles and in one case of 325 miles without water. After conquering all these difficulties, as well as surviving a fierce attack from the natives, the party succeeded in reaching their destination Perth, the capital of W.A. on 10th November, having travelled 2575 miles in about five months. For the last month of the journey they had subsisted chiefly on the Mallee hen. At Perth the explorers received a perfect ovation. Governor Sir William Robinson represented Giles' achievement to the Secretary of State and a small grant of land in W.A. was the result. Bidding adieu to his new-made friends, Giles started back to endeavour to reach the S.A. telegraph by a route 400 miles to the northward of the one by which he had just arrived at Perth. He crossed the Murchison, the Gascoyne, the Lyons and the Ashburton rivers all much further up their channels than any former travellers had reached, but found very little else than stony and sterile country unfitted for the habitation of man. After encountering many privations the adventurer managed to reach Fort McKellar one of his former depôts, whither he had wended his way in the hope of finding some trace of Gibson who had been lost two years before. He was unsuccessful in learning anything about his unfortunate friend; but being now within 200 miles of the telegraph line Giles eventually reached it, having twice traversed Australia—a feat which no other explorer has ever attempted—once being sufficient for most travellers. On his arrival in Adelaide he was presented with an address by the mayor and town council. The King of Italy sent him a decoration with the title of Chevalier.

GILLIES, DUNCAN (—) came to V. in 1854, and was concerned in several mining ventures at Ballarat. In 1859 he was elected member of the Assembly for Ballarat West. In 1868 he became Commissioner for Lands in the Sladen Ministry, but was rejected on going for re-election. He regained his seat at the ensuing general election, and in 1872 again took office as Commissioner for Railways and Roads in the Francis Ministry, and in 1875 as Commissioner for Crown Lands and Survey in the Kerferd Ministry. He still holds a seat in the Victorian Parliament.

GIPPS, SIR GEORGE (1790-1847) ninth Governor of N.S.W., in succession to Sir Richard Bourke, was an officer of the Corps of Royal Engineers. His first commission as a lieutenant bears date 11th January 1809. He rose through

the different grades to that of Lieutenant-Colonel, 23rd November 1841. He served in the Peninsular campaigns to the end of the war. He was at the siege of Badajoz, where he was wounded. He was also at the Pass of Biar, at the battle of Castella, and at many other brilliant triumphs of the British armies. He received the honour of knighthood in 1835. He owed his appointment to a Colonial Governorship entirely to the ability he had displayed while acting as secretary to the commission issued for inquiring into the grievances of rebellious Canada in 1835. During his residence in that colony he had devised and published a plan for educating colonists to the use of representative institutions, by "district councils" for the administration of local affairs. It was an ingenious theory, but not suited to the state of society in pastoral Australia. Nevertheless the forcing this scheme on the unwilling colonists was the one great idea of Sir George Gipps' colonial career, to which he sacrificed both them and himself. He was a man of abilities far above the average, an eloquent speaker, a nervous writer, with industry, energy and a special aptitude for the details of administrative business, but haughty and narrow-minded, impenetrable to reasoning which did not square with his preconceived views, filled with inordinate ideas of his own importance as the "representative of majesty," with a violent temper, which he took little pains to control, although his communications with the Colonial Office displayed a pliability almost amounting to subservience. He claimed to receive the deference due to a viceroy and at the same time to exercise the duties of an English prime minister. With sharp and ready tongue he introduced and pressed legislative measures for carrying into effect theories most distasteful and unsuitable to his colonial "subjects;" but opposition or even that fair criticism and discussion which a British premier would expect and invite he treated as a personal insult to his authority, almost as high treason. The period of his accession to power was in every respect inopportune. Backed by a Secretary of State as obstinate as himself, with the sanction of a House of Commons utterly ignorant of the condition of A., Gipps came determined to govern on high prerogative principles at a time when the colony had advanced from the Algerine rule of Darling to enjoy the externals of a free State. A Legislative Council no longer secret, although not elective, had superseded the irresponsible decrees of the Governor, courts regularly constituted with juries in political cases had taken the place of courts-martial. The Press was free; the liberty of discussing political questions had been sanctioned and exercised. A rapid and enormous immigration from the Mother Country swelled the ranks of the thousands who, however descended, were born free; and under the guidance of the burning eloquence of a native-born Australian, claimed to exercise those rights of representation and self-taxation which

they had not forfeited by becoming colonists. Gipps was not without noble as well as brilliant qualities. He took no share in the jobs of the servile crew whom he used and despised. But he was intoxicated by the greatness thrust upon him. At one stride he passed from a subordinate military rank to the government of a great province of wealthy and discontented men; having in his hand authority which could make or mar a whole class or a whole district. In a different sphere and subdued by the even competition of English parliamentary life, he might have done himself honour and the State service. In the temper of the Governor and the governed questions of difference were not long in arising. Governor Bourke took a colonial view of colonial subjects; he did not hesitate to dissent from the views of a Secretary of State; he treated the opinions of his Council with deliberate consideration and respect even where he came to a contrary conclusion. Governor Gipps adopted an opposite course. Nothing could equal the contempt with which he treated colonial subjects, except the zeal with which he echoed and carried out the instructions issued by the Secretary of State. When the new settlement of Port Phillip was rising into notice, an order was issued bearing the royal signet and sign manual dividing the colony of N.S.W. for all purposes connected with the sale of land. At this time Gipps was anxious to become popular with the aristocratical council of Sydney, and at their desire made every effort to retard or overturn the movement. Gipps backed up by the Council and a public meeting of the colonists, and nothing loth, considered himself justified in not obeying his instructions in reference to Port Phillip. In October 1841 Gipps paid a visit to the Port Phillip district; he was well received in spite of his refusal and a public dinner was given him. He also visited Geelong and inspected a portion of the western district; after a week's stay he returned to Sydney. Subsequently when Judge Willis in Port Phillip arbitrarily fined and imprisoned Arden, editor of the *Port Phillip Gazette*, a memorial extensively signed was sent to the Governor accusing the Judge of misbehaviour. Some ground for those charges certainly did exist, and as he was no favourite at the vice-regal court in Sydney he was suspended from his office in a very unconstitutional manner. This arbitrary exercise of the prerogative aroused a strong feeling of indignation in Melbourne. Gipps took his departure from Sydney on 9th July 1846. His rule had not been a happy one. Although a man of great intellect, information and integrity, owing partly to his infirmity of temper and partly to the extremely embarrassing state of affairs in the colony at the time, the Governor came into such unpleasant collision with his elective Legislative Council that his recall was the consequence. Yet whatever complaint there might be made against his imprudence he retired with his honour unsullied and the purity of his motives acknowledged by

men of all parties. An address signed by nearly 6000 colonists made some amends for the loss of health and harassment he had suffered in his conscientious devotion to duty.

GIPPSLAND, the south-eastern district of V., was first explored by Angus McMillan, who gave it the name of Caledonia Australis. In May 1839 McMillan was superintendent on Macalister's station in the Maneroo district, N.S.W. He had won the confidence of the natives in the neighbourhood, who had traditions of fine country to the south; and with the intention of finding a station for himself started with one of them from Carrywong on the 28th of that month, with four weeks provisions. From the top of Mount M'Leod (Haystack) he had a view of Corner Inlet, and of the long Ninety-mile Beach. On a second expedition commenced on 20th December 1839 he reached the Glengarry on 23rd January 1840, formed a party, and finally starting on 9th February 1841 from the station he had formed at Nunton on the Avon, reached the sea-coast on the 14th, and supped the saltwater at Port Albert out of his Highland bonnet. A sun-dial erected by public subscription, affixed to a gum-tree stump, now marks the spot. Count Strzelecki, who had walked over 7000 miles of Australian ground in his scientific travels, joined in Sydney in January 1840 James Macarthur and James Riley, who had formed the idea of travelling in search of country available for grazing to the sea coast at Western Port; this, after suffering great hardships, they reached on 11th May. On the 7th March 1840 Strzelecki and his companions came down and called at McMillan's camp on Dowman's River, and were supplied with provisions, a camp kettle, and a guide, who went a day's journey with them over the tracks into the new district, which at the suggestion of the Count was named after Governor Gipps. The Gippsland district comprises about one-fifth of the whole territory of V.; much of it to the N. and E. particularly is unavailable for agricultural or pastoral purposes from its rugged and mountainous character, but there are in other parts large tracts of grazing and tillable country, rich deposits of alluvial soil predominating in some parts, rendering large returns for the labour of cultivation. Owing however to the heavy timber, gum and ironbark, that grow on it in many places, its clearing is attended with considerable toil and expense. In the S. and W. portion a large quantity of land is occupied for farming and cattle-grazing, for which its rich and fertile soil peculiarly fits it. A large proportion of the fat cattle supplied to the Melbourne market during the winter months is received from here. Its mineral resources are immense, comprising gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, lead, coal, marble, and limestone. In the north-west portion of the district quartz reefs are very numerous, and these are being systematically worked, in many cases with remunerative results. The climate and soil are well fitted for the growth of oranges, limes, hops, tobacco, and opium, and

its rivers abound in fish. The lakes are admittedly the finest in V., and are a great source of attraction to tourists and sportsmen; the fishing and shooting are unsurpassed. The principal rivers are the Avon, Thompson, Tambo, Snowy, and Latrobe, all rising in the Dividing Range or its spurs. The mountain ranges are numerous, and most of them are covered with snow for a considerable portion of the year. The chief towns are Sale, Stratford, Bruthen, Alberton, Rosedale, Tarraville, Palmerston, Bairnsdale, and Jericho. Gippsland is a country of colossal mountains, of magnificent streams, and of fertile plains. Strzelecki describes it as a noble province of Arcadian beauty. Enclosed between the sea and the snow-clad summits of the Dividing Range, it is sheltered from the hot blast of the interior, and the climate is therefore extremely mild and salubrious. Flowers in endless variety and of great beauty form a wide-spread carpet. The tall fern-trees with their gigantic leaves droop into natural bell-shaped tents. A hundred deep pellucid streams display the crystal quartz and sharp clear sand and gravel which compose their beds. Everywhere the traveller comes upon opening glades leading up to the ranges and clothed with many varieties of flowering heaths and acacias. Since the opening of the railway line connecting Melbourne with Sale, Gippsland has been rapidly progressing. In particular the district of Buln Buln, comprising the whole region of heavily timbered and mountainous country from the sources of the Yarra to Corner Inlet, is being settled and cleared by a body of energetic farmers. The population of Gippsland is about 20,000.

GISBORNE, MOUNT, a high peak of the Australian Alps about forty miles N.W. of Melbourne. It was named from the district surveyor who first surveyed it in 1838.

GLADSTONE, a township of Q., on the river Boyne at Port Curtis. The place was fixed upon as the site of penal settlement under the superintendence of Colonel Barney in 1847, but was subsequently abandoned. Gladstone lies 354 miles N.W. from Brisbane. It possesses a fine harbour into which the Auckland Creek at this point empties itself. The harbour is spacious, deep and well sheltered by Facing and Curtis Islands. Vessels of large size can lie alongside the wharf. The population is about 460. It was proclaimed a municipality on 21st February 1863. An average of 1800 head of cattle is yearly shipped from here to New Caledonia. There are gold diggings in the neighbourhood. It is named after W. E. Gladstone, the celebrated statesman.

GLASSHOUSE MOUNTAINS, in Q., lie a short distance inland from Moreton Bay and not far from each other. They are remarkable for the singular form of their elevation which very much resembles a glasshouse, for which reason Cook so named them. The northernmost of the three is the highest and largest.

GLENELG RIVER, in the western district of V. was discovered by Mitchell in 1836 and named after Lord Glenelg, Secretary of State for the Colonies. It flows into the sea at the deepest part of the bay between Capes Northumberland and Bridgewater. The same name is given to a river in S.A. flowing into St. Vincent's Gulf.

GLENNIE'S ISLANDS, a cluster of islands lying off the W. coast of Wilson's Promontory, named by Grant the discoverer after G. Glennie, a friend of Captain Shack.

GOLD DISCOVERIES.—**DISCOVERIES IN N.S.W.**—The existence of gold in Australia was known long prior to the discoveries of Hargreaves. In the early days of the N.S.W. settlement prisoners employed in making a road across the Blue Mountains found specimens of the precious metal; but their report was discredited and themselves silenced. In February 1823 McBrien a surveyor reported the finding of particles of gold in the sand of the Fish River near Bathurst, and also in the hills adjacent. Count Strzelecki the explorer reported to Governor Gipps in 1839 the discovery of gold in Gippsland. In his despatch to the Secretary of State the Governor wrote:—"Gold.—An auriferous sulphuret of iron partly decomposed, yielding a very small quantity or proportion of gold sufficient to attest its presence." This announcement was lying for twelve years amongst the papers of the Imperial Parliament when the discoveries of 1851 astonished the world. It was known to a few persons in N.S.W. that an old shepherd of the name of Macgregor was in the habit of annually selling small parcels of gold to jewellers; but those who watched him could discover nothing, and the common belief was that he sold the produce of robberies which had been melted up to destroy suspicion. This old man acknowledged that he obtained his gold from Mitchell's Creek, beyond Wellington Valley, about 200 miles west of Sydney. The Rev. W. B. Clarke of Sydney, a geologist of considerable acquirements, in 1846 privately but unsuccessfully directed attention to the gold-bearing regions of Bathurst. In England in 1844 Sir Roderick Murchison read a paper to the Geographical Society in which he noticed a forthcoming work by Count Strzelecki on the physical geography of Australia; and declared that on an examination of that traveller's collection of rocks, fossils and maps, he could not but recognise a singular uniformity between the Australian Cordillera and the auriferous Ural Mountains. Two years later he received evidence of the truth of his conjecture in some specimens of gold quartz sent to him from Australia. Thus confirmed, he strongly advised a body of Cornish emigrants to select Australia and to seek for gold among the *débris* of its older rocks. His advice, printed in the Cornish papers and transmitted to Sydney, stimulated inquiry, which was so far successful that in 1848 he received several letters from persons in the colony stating that they had detected

gold, and expressing anxious hope that Government would so modify the law as to make it worth their while to engage seriously in mining speculations. After these opinions had been made public, persons resident in Sydney and Adelaide sought for and found specimens of gold, which they transmitted to Sir Roderick, who thereupon wrote to Earl Grey, Minister for the Colonies, in November 1848, stating the grounds for his confident expectation that gold would be found in large quantities, and suggesting precautionary measures. Earl Grey never answered this letter, and neither took measures nor sent out private instructions to prepare the Governor for the realisation of the predictions of the man of science. As he afterwards explained, he thought it better that the people should stick to wool-growing. The first printed notice by Clarke appeared in the *Sydney Morning Herald* in 1847, in which, following in Sir Roderick Murchison's footsteps, he compared Australia with the Ural. In 1848 Mr. Smith, engaged in iron-works near Berrima N.S.W. waited upon Deas Thomson, the Colonial Secretary, produced a lump of gold imbedded in quartz, which he said he had found, and offered on receipt of £800 to discover the locality. On reference to the Governor a verbal answer was returned that if Smith chose to trust to the liberality of the government he might rely on being rewarded in proportion to the value of the alleged discovery. The government suspected that the lump of gold came from California, "and were afraid of agitating the public mind by ordering geological investigations." On 3rd April 1851 Edward Hammond Hargreaves addressed a letter to the Colonial Secretary, after several interviews in which he said that if the government would award him £500 as a compensation he would point out localities where gold was to be found, and leave it to the generosity of the government to make him an additional reward commensurate with the benefit likely to accrue to the government. Hargreaves while in California was struck with the similarity between the richest diggings of that country and a district in the Bathurst country which he had travelled over fifteen years previously; and on his return to Sydney he made an exploring expedition of two months, which realised his expectations. The same answer was returned to Hargreaves as to Smith. He was satisfied, and on the 30th April wrote naming Lewis Ponds and Summerhill Creeks and Macquarie River, in the district of Bathurst and Wellington, as the districts where gold would be found. A copy of this letter was by the Governor's directions forwarded to the Colonial Geologist Stutchbury, with whom Hargreaves was put in communication. Hargreaves and Stutchbury set out on their journey. On 8th May, Green a crown commissioner wrote in alarm from Bathurst that "a Mr. Hargreaves has been employing people to dig for gold on the Summerhill Creek, who have found several ounces;" and suggested "that some stringent measure be adopted to prevent the

labouring classes from leaving their employment to search on the crown lands." On 13th May Green writes again in still more alarm:—"A piece of gold valued at £30 had been brought in, and that he feared that any future regulations would be set at defiance." A few dates will show how rapidly gold gathering grew into an important pursuit, stimulating agriculture and overshadowing the pastoral interest:—

May 14th. Stutchbury reported that he "had seen sufficient to prove the existence of grain gold."

19th. "That many persons with merely a tin dish have obtained one or two ounces a day. Four hundred persons at work occupying about a mile of the Summerhill Creek, fear that great confusion will arise in consequence of people setting up claims."

22nd. A proclamation was issued declaring the rights of the crown to gold found in its natural place of deposit within the territory of New South Wales.

23rd. John Richard Hardy, chief magistrate of Paramatta, was appointed the first gold commissioner, with instructions to organise a mounted police of ten men; to issue licences to gold diggers at the rate of 30s. a month; to receive in payment gold obtained by amalgamation at £2 8s. per ounce, and at £3 4s. per ounce for gold obtained by washing. And to preserve the peace and put down outrage and violence he was further instructed to co-operate with the local police, and to swear in special constables from the licensed diggers.

25th. Stutchbury reported that the gold diggers had increased to 1000; that lumps had been found varying in weight from one ounce to four pounds; that the larger pieces were generally got out of fissures in the rock, "clay slate," which forms the bed of the river, dipped to the north-east at various angles, the fissile edges presenting jagged edges, which had opened under the influence of the atmosphere, "the smaller grain gold being procured by washing the alluvial soil resting upon and filling in the cleavage joints of the slate;" that "gold was also found in the planks of the ranges, proving that it had originated in the mountains." He added:—"The workings at present are conducted in the most wasteful manner, from the cupidity and ignorance of the people, which cannot be remedied until some officer is appointed acquainted with the proper mode of working, with power to enforce it. The best thing that could happen would be a severe flood, which would fill the diggings, and oblige them to begin *de novo* under proper restrictions."

Stutchbury further reported that gold had been found in Argyle on the Abercrombie River, in the creeks running N. and S. of the Canobolas Mountains, such as Oakley Creek, the whole length of the Macquarie from Bathurst to Wellington.

When the existence of gold was first ascertained some flockowners who disapproved of the course pursued by the Governor in raising gold-digging to the condition of a regular industrial pursuit, recommended "that martial law should be proclaimed,

and all gold-digging peremptorily prohibited in order that the ordinary industrial pursuits of the country should not be interfered with.²⁹ But the miners proved themselves more orderly and sensible than timid individuals had imagined; and in Hardy, the first gold commissioner, the Governor had selected a man of judgment, temper and courage, who was determined to let the industrious miner have fair play, and equally determined to enforce his lawful authority.

2nd June. Hardy arrived at Summerhill with eight extra police lent by Major Wentworth; found not the least desire to resist the government regulations, and did not keep the extra force on the ground half an hour. An arrangement to intercept all new arrivals by sending them to an unoccupied ground prevented confusion.

On 8th June 446 licenses had been issued; to two or three hundred new arrivals he had given a few days to pay; quiet and good order prevailed: in one instance alone was there an inclination to disregard my decision.

9th June. The Government Geologist reported the existence of gold in the Turon and other branches of the river Macquarie; and Hardy, anxious that there should be no great accumulation of diggers, posted up notices of the new discoveries.

11th June. Hardy writes:—"All anxiety as to the payment of the licence fee is at end. I give parties who profess themselves unable to pay at the onset a few days. But it is well understood and invariably acted on that no man works more than a few days without a licence; and it is partly from this known circumstance that so many leave after a week's fruitless labour. This is after all of a good tendency. Universally successful diggers would leave the colony in a bad position. The return to their former employments adds greatly to the general benefit."

In July the rush to the diggings had somewhat moderated when the discovery of a hundred-weight of gold revived and stimulated the excitement to a degree which affected all classes of society; and after that discovery crowds of gentlemen repaired to the diggings. This great prize having been raised by a gentleman (Dr. Kerr) who had not taken out a licence, the gold commissioner in the exercise of his duty seized it in order to assert the rights of the crown. An educated aboriginal formerly attached to the Wellington mission, and who had been in the service of Dr. Kerr of Wallawa about seven years, returned home to his employer with the intelligence that he had discovered a large mass of gold amongst a heap of quartz upon the run whilst tending his sheep. He had amused himself by exploring the country adjacent to his employer's land, and his attention was first called to the lucky spot by observing a speck of some glittering yellow substance upon the surface of a block of the quartz, upon which he applied his tomahawk and broke off a portion. At that moment the splendid prize

stood revealed to his sight. His first care was to start off home and disclose his discovery to his master, to whom he presented whatever gold might be procured from it. As may be supposed, little time was lost by the doctor. Quick as horse would carry him he was on the ground, and in a short period the three blocks of quartz containing the *hundredweight of gold* were released from the bed where, charged with unknown wealth, they had rested perhaps for thousands of years awaiting the hand of civilised man to disturb them. The largest of the blocks was about a foot in diameter, and weighed 75 lbs. gross. Out of this piece 60 lbs. of pure gold were taken. Before separation it was beautifully encased in quartz. The other two were something smaller. The auriferous mass weighed as nearly as could be guessed from two to three hundredweight. Not being able to remove it conveniently, Dr. Kerr broke the piece into small fragments. In the place where this mass of treasure was found quartz blocks formed an isolated heap, and were distant about one hundred yards from a quartz vein which stretches up the ridge from the Meroo Creek. It is distant about fifty-three miles from Bathurst, and within about eight miles of Dr. Kerr's head station. The neighbouring country was subsequently well explored after this discovery, but with the exception of dust no further indication was found. In return for his very valuable services Dr. Kerr presented the black fellow and his brother with two flocks of sheep, two saddle horses and a quantity of rations, and supplied them with a team of bullocks to plough some land in which they were about to sow a crop of maize and potatoes. Dr. Kerr's great prize revived the "sacred rage for gold" among the whole population, and Sydney seemed about to be deserted. New discoveries in various directions were made. The Bathurst district consists of elevated tableland, intersected by barren ridges, watered by rivers flowing from the Canobolas Mountains, most of which were found to be auriferous. The journey to Bathurst was easily performed by mail-coach or on horseback. Arrived at Bathurst the explorer found himself in the midst of a rich pastoral and agricultural district, in which every fertile valley had a small colony of settlers ready to supply flour, meat, milk and butter at reasonable charges. The gold-diggers instead of settling in a wilderness found themselves in a district where a market was only needed to call into cultivation thousands of acres of capital land—at Frederick's Valley, a gold placer of extraordinary richness, belonging to Wentworth; at Summerhill Farms, at King's Plains, Pretty Plains, Emu Swamp and the Cornish Settlement, where the crops in the severest droughts never failed.

By the close of 1851 the quantity of gold exported to England amounted to 144,120 ounces, valued at £468,336. Here was actual evidence before the people of the mother country that the Australian El Dorado was no fiction or imposture, but a region teeming with the coveted treasure. Then

commenced a rush of emigration unexampled in history; but the stream was chiefly directed to the still richer gold-fields of V.

DISCOVERIES IN V.—When the announcement of the discovery of gold in the Bathurst district reached the inhabitants of the newly-formed colony of V. about a month before the formal ceremony of naming it and swearing-in the Lieutenant-Governor and his Executive Council, a feeling of chagrin was felt by some at the luck of the elder colony, while the public mind generally became unsettled as the glowing accounts reached them from time to time. It was the winter season and the roads were unsuited for travelling so great a distance. This prevented the adventurers undertaking the journey by land. A good many went by sea to Sydney and from thence travelled to Bathurst, so that a marked and immediate effect took place in the labour market and the prices of provisions. There followed a general preparation amongst the male adults, especially of the working classes, to start in the spring. Landholders and house-proprietors in Melbourne and Geelong anticipated ruin at the departure of the inhabitants and a sudden depreciation in property took place. In the country stockholders and farmers were likewise affected by the threatened departure of the bone and sinew on which the prosperity of their farms and stations depended, and an immediate rise took place in the rate of wages. Therefore while the hopes of the adventurers were buoyant the prospects of the proprietors who were obliged to remain behind were of the most gloomy character. At this juncture some shrewd colonists calculated it might be possible that gold existed also in their own colony. It was known that three years previously Brentani an Italian jeweller in Melbourne had bought a mass of gold weighing upwards of thirty ounces, which he stated had been found at a station near Mount Buninyong seventy miles to the west of Melbourne by a sailor who was a shepherd there. Other shepherds had picked up small grains also in the same district. William Campbell discovered gold in March 1850 at Clunes, but concealed the fact at the time from the apprehension that its announcement might prove injurious to the squatter on whose run the discovery was made; but he mentioned it in a letter to a friend on 10th June 1851, which friend at Campbell's request reported the matter to the gold-discovery committee on 8th July. A number of persons went to Buninyong but as the jeweller had no exact information of the locality and the sailor had left the colony their adventure was fruitless. After two or three months scraping around the flanks of the mountain they returned to their homes disappointed. The fact of large auriferous deposits having been found in N.S.W. caused others to renew the search, and this time with success. L. J. Michel and six others discovered gold in the Yarra Ranges at Anderson's Creek, which they communicated to the gold-discovery committee on 5th July. James Esmond, a California

digger, and three others, obtained gold on the quartz rocks of the Pyrenees, and made the discovery public on 5th July. Dr. George Bruhn, a German physician, found indications of gold in quartz two miles from Parker's Station in April 1851, and forwarded specimens to the gold committee on 30th June. Thomas Hiscock found gold at Buninyong 8th August, and communicated the fact to the editor of the *Geelong Advertiser* on the 10th of the same month. This discovery led to that of the Ballarat gold-fields. C. T. Peters, a hutkeeper at Barker's Creek, and three others, found gold at Specimen Gully on 20th July; worked secretly to 1st September then published the account. This led to the discovery of the numerous gold-fields about Mount Alexander. Gold was discovered at Clunes by J. W. Esmond on 1st July 1851. Henry Frencham and his party discovered gold at Bendigo (Sandhurst) in November 1851. The first finds were in the bed and on the banks of the creek, a little to the west of Golden Gully, where the party also found the precious metal, and in three weeks obtained seventy-six pounds weight. The Ballarat gold-fields were discovered simultaneously by two parties in August 1851. These world-famed gold-fields were at that time a sheep-station. Almost simultaneously with this discovery and by separate gold-seekers deposits were found at Anderson's Creek, Clunes and other places. But the neighbourhood of Mount Alexander, an area of many thousand acres, was found more or less impregnated with deposits, and the discoverers were enriched with "nuggets" of clean solid metal, weighing hundreds of ounces, so that a temporary exodus took place from Ballarat. When the news reached those who had migrated to Bathurst, most of them returned to the colony where their interests were centred; large numbers of N.S.W. diggers abandoned the workings in that colony and travelled to V. where the yield was richer to the experienced miner. In like manner the gold mania spread to the other colonies. There were daily arrivals overland and by sea. Even California could no longer lay claim to the first place in auriferous production, and numbers of miners left the diggings in that country for A. The gold discovery agitated the subjects of the Celestial Empire about Hong Kong and Canton, so much so that the ships which brought tea to the colony added their quota of Chinese adventurers. This ultimately increased to considerable emigration from thence, to add to the motley population on the goldfields. From these sources the community in twelve months after the date of the gold discovery in V. had received an accession of about 65,000 to its numbers. Up to September 1852 very few emigrants from the United Kingdom had arrived, beyond the usual immigration. It took nine months to inform and convince the British public of the great fact that V. was the richest gold region in the world, and to induce the adventurous to risk their fortunes at the diggings. By that time ship after ship had arrived in England from Port Phillip with its gold

freight of £30,000, £50,000, and even £100,000. Then a thirst for the coveted metal seized all classes of the people as it had done in the colonies. A tide of emigrants set in from all parts of the three kingdoms to the great shipping ports of London and Liverpool. The energies of shipowners and agents failed to find sufficient accommodation for applicants. A better idea of the emigration at this time cannot be given than that which the following extract from the *Times* of 9th August 1852 conveys:—"Notwithstanding the thousands of fortune seekers who have sailed during the last few months for the golden regions of A., from the ports of London, Liverpool, Glasgow, &c. the tide of emigration does not appear to have much subsided, as from thirty to forty first-class ships, varying from 500 to 2000 tons, are entered to sail during the present month from London, Plymouth, or Liverpool, for Melbourne, Geelong, Adelaide, and Sydney. The greatest activity prevails in the St. Katharine, London and West and East India Docks, in fitting up the vessels for the accommodation of the adventurers. The following are the names of the ships that leave the port of London this and the next week:—For Port Phillip, the *South Sea* 2000 tons, *Waterloo* 900, *Atalanta* 1300, *Moselle* 1200, *Gloriana* 1200, *Bru* 1050, *Velore* 1100, *Wandsworth* 896, *Countess of Elgin* 1200, *Ballarat* 1100, *Blackwall* 1000, *Prince Alfred* 1400, *Cornelius* 850, *Hyderabad* 850, *Windermere* 850, *Prince of Wales* 850, *Victory* 800, *Louise* 800, *Blorenge* 800, *Tulloch Castle* 800, *Syria* 800, *British Isle* 800, *Galway Ark* 800, *Duke of Norfolk* 800, *Eliza* 800, *Enchanter* 800, *Brightman* 600, *Sir Walter Raleigh* 600, *Beulah* 500, and *Sea Park* 835. For Sydney N.S.W.: *Catherine Jamieson* 1100, *Robert* 950, *Hermione* 830, *Sarah Metcalfe* 800, *Hydaspes* 700, and *Washington Irving* 600. The Australian Steam Screw Navigation Company's packet *Formosa* sailed from Southampton on Saturday last. The following are a few of the principal vessels to sail from Liverpool: *Una* 1500, *Orestes* 1100, *Eldorado* 2000, *Ben Nevis* 3000, *South Sea* 1800, *Great Britain* iron screw-steamer of 3500 tons and 500 horse-power, with berths for 1000 passengers; and the *Sarah Sands* steamer of 1300 tons; besides several others. So great is the emigration enterprise that a considerable number of clerks who had excellent situations in the Bank of England, South-Sea House, East India House, the Post Office, Customs and Excise, banking houses, merchants' counting houses, solicitors' offices &c. have resigned and set off to the diggings. This magnificent fleet of forty-five merchantmen, making an aggregate of 50,000 tons, sailing within a fortnight with not less than 15,000 passengers, each of whom paid an average passage-money of twenty-pounds, or a total of £300,000, is unparalleled in the annals of shipping." Nineteen-twentieths of the emigrants were males, and a considerable proportion of them married men who had left their wives and families behind with a view to make money and send it home for them to pay

their passage out. The first of the remittances sent for this purpose showed that 136 persons could afford nearly £3000 from their earnings after a few months residence. On the other hand many were unsuccessful, and at one period it was calculated that upwards of 11,000 wives and families so forsaken received out-door relief from their parish funds. These evils however were only transient and small in proportion to the benefits resulting to the community at large, for so great a migration had the effect of improving the wages and salaries of those who were left behind.

The first batch of British gold-seekers arrived in Hobson's Bay in September 1852. It augmented the arrivals of the previous month from 6552 to 15,855. This increased to 19,162 in October, after which the number fell off to 10,947 in November and rose in December to 14,255, making a total of 60,219 arrivals. There were 15,621 departures however to be deducted from these numbers, giving an accession to the population of 44,598 being at the average rate of 2623 per week or 375 daily. Although the number slackened at times during the following year yet this average gives a fair criterion of the influx of people during the early days of the gold discovery. As a natural consequence on the arrival at Melbourne of such a concourse of people, where the house accommodation was barely sufficient for the settled population, a state of privation and social anarchy was produced which no pen can describe. The new era of gold had entirely changed that state of things. It withdrew the greater part of the male population from their homes. This, though it made temporary room for a portion of the newly-arrived immigrants, yet disorganised the whole fabric of commerce. Even facilities for traffic were no longer afforded. The mass of the English immigrants being unused to the rough life they were entering upon, it is not surprising that great privations and much distress had to be encountered from the moment they landed at Port Phillip. Indeed it may be said that their troubles commenced before they landed, for when the ships which brought them out anchored in Hobson's Bay, the captains informed their passengers that the voyage was ended and they must get ashore the best way they could. As Melbourne was nine miles distant by the river Yarra they had to pay exorbitant charges for themselves and baggage to reach that point, which deceptive agents had told them in England they would be conveyed to at the ship's expense. Those who had luggage or merchandise had to pay a wharfage rate at the town of forty shillings per ton. This transit of nine miles cost as much as the charge from England—sixteen thousand miles altogether. Few of these immigrants had much spare cash after paying for their outfit and passage. These and corresponding charges for cartage, food and house accommodation, soon drained them of their surplus moneys. The active and prudent lost no time in the town, but started at once with pick and shovel for the

golden goal they had come so far to reach. This was accomplished without much difficulty as long as the weather continued dry, but when the heavy rains came on it was a matter of the greatest toil for man or beast to travel along the muddy roads. At one time the charge for carrying provisions and other merchandise reached twenty shillings a mile per ton; so that at Bendigo, distant a hundred miles, the diggers had to pay one hundred pounds for the carriage only of a ton of flour. At that season many were deterred from or found themselves physically incapable of undertaking a journey to the goldfields. The consequence was that as the tide of immigration continued the city and suburbs of Melbourne became so crowded that fears were entertained by the authorities of pestilence arising from the densely packed community, such as arose at San Francisco on the gold discovery in California. Although the utmost turmoil and confusion prevailed, happily the salubrity of the Australian climate and the genial weather ward off any special disease or mortality accruing from this exceptional state of society. There is no better evidence of the salubrity of the climate than this immunity from epidemic disease of that badly-sheltered, ill-fed mass of humanity located on the banks of the Yarra during the year 1853. We have all read of the disease and mortality that decimated the British troops in the Crimea during the Russian war, notwithstanding their military discipline and the services of a commissariat staff—an army of not more than forty thousand men landed during a couple of years. Here was an immigrant army one hundred and fifty thousand strong landed in sixteen months on the shores of Port Phillip without any discipline and very slender equipment, one hundred thousand of whom had gone to battle on the gold-fields, removed from seventy to one hundred miles from their city base of operations, encountering the greatest privations from irregular supplies of food and exposed to all the changes of weather, and yet the amount of disease and mortality was not appreciably greater than the natural deaths and illness of such a community. Even that was at a minimum rate among sections of it living in every stage of squalor and destitution. A most characteristic sight was the population of "Canvas-town," which was so named from being composed entirely of tents. It arose from the immigrants continuing to arrive after every room in the city was crammed with people. They were therefore obliged to pitch the tents they had provided themselves with, and live in them until they were able to proceed up the country or occupy some temporary barracks the Government was erecting to meet the emergency. A spot easily accessible to the passengers as they landed was marked out for this purpose on the opposite side of the river to that on which the city is built and about three miles from the beach where they could land by boat. Notwithstanding the outward prosperity that existed and the profuse expenditure of money that went on in the city there were very

many cases of destitution in Canvas-town, where every necessary of life was sold at famine prices. The tents were arranged so as to form streets and squares each with some familiar name given to it and suggestive of the localities from whence the emigrants came. Evidently not a few were Londoners. Regent-street was the name of the principal thoroughfare at one corner of which was a round tent of a military cut having a flag that directed the stranger into Piccadilly. Other thoroughfares were named Oxford-street, Holborn, the Strand &c. Tents for refreshments were named after many well known London hotels as if the name could bring back to the distressed cockney the comforts and pleasures of his native city. Many of the tents were pretentious marquees in quality and size, set off with blue and silver or green and gold fringes and hoisting gay flags; others were coarse and small. When first set up they presented an appearance of cleanliness and comfort very different from that which they offered before they were removed. The occupants likewise changed from decently dressed though desponding immigrants to be like the scum and offscouring of the purlieus of Whitechapel. Peeping into the tents each displayed some articles for sale and these frequently told a mournful tale. A pianoforte might be seen in one which spoke of happy days gone by in the old country and of wrecked hopes in this golden land. Books were exposed for sale in many tents, many of them standard and classic works evincing the taste and education of the owners who were forced to dispose of their literary treasures to obtain the means of subsistence. In others were furniture and fine dresses which had been brought half round the globe, now sacrificed to buy daily bread. The majority were of that class of emigrants unfitted for a new colony and who often leave a small certainty at home for an uncertainty abroad, repining because their talents are of less avail than the hands of the common labourer in the work of primary colonisation. In time these gay tents became ragged and dirty, and the occupants, or others of a lower grade that succeeded them, allowed Canvas-town to become the abode of filth and misery, thick with dust in dry weather and deep in mud when it rained. In many of these canvas dwellings there was only one common space, where two or three families of both sexes were huddled promiscuously together. In the morning, clustering swarms of half-dressed women and children gathered before the various tents, busily cooking breakfasts at their small stoves; while around them were all the discomforts that mark the hovels of an Irish village. But the worst feature of the locality was that it became and long remained the hot-bed of crime and immorality, where the vicious inhabitants went to spend their ill-earned gains in the sly-grog shops with no publican's licence. Thence used to emanate those night prowlers, whose occupation it was to stop and rob the wayfarer quietly returning to his

home. At last the government resolved on sweeping away this intolerable nuisance, and the last tent disappeared in April 1864. During this time the state of society was completely unhinged, and neither person nor property was safe from the gangs of marauders and robbers in town and country. The increase of this class was chiefly from T., the Government of which allowed every facility for convicted felons to cross over to V., where they became the terror of the peaceable inhabitants and defied the authorities. On one occasion a gang of ruffians took possession of the St. Kilda Road for a whole day, robbing and maltreating every traveller that passed; another gang had the audacity to seize and rob the chief constable of Melbourne, who was accounted one of the strongest men in the colony. The diggers, returning with their gold from the mines, were the chief sufferers from this state of anarchy, when they were pounced upon, and frequently tortured or murdered when showing resistance. For the safety of the conveyance of gold to the towns of Melbourne and Geelong the government organised a corps of mounted police, that formed an armed escort travelling at stated periods to and from the mines. Even these were attacked and robbed by formidable gangs, when many lives were lost and thousands of ounces of gold stolen. So daring were these villains that the *Nelson*, a ship loading for London, with twenty thousand ounces of gold on board, was successfully plundered and nearly the whole of the gold abstracted and carried away. For a time the worst state of anarchy prevailed. While crime was thus stalking rampant through the towns and suburbs and along the roads of the country, the social and political affairs of the miners on the gold-fields were assuming an alarming aspect that added to the confusion which prevailed.

Governor Latrobe in his proclamation for the regulation of these workings, at first levied a license fee of thirty shillings per month, which yielded the very large sum of £580,616. With a view to increase that amount so as to meet the greatly increased expenditure for police and gaols, and also to induce the less fortunate gold diggers to return to the ordinary industrial occupations which were suffering from want of labour, he contemplated at one time doubling the fee. Had he done so in all probability the miners would have risen *en masse* in open rebellion to the constituted authority. As it was, the policy of Latrobe rendered him so unpopular that, conscious of his inability to administer the laws by the authority invested in him he resigned, and in June 1854 his successor Sir Charles Hotham arrived in the colony. At this point the history of the gold discoveries takes a new direction. Under the various heads of the separate colonies will be found further information on the progress of the gold-fields and the finding of new areas of auriferous wealth.

GOLD, YIELD OF. The estimated produce of the Victorian gold-fields for the successive

years since 1851, the date of the discovery, is as follows:—

		Ounces.
1851	145,147
1852	2,724,933
1853	3,150,021
1854	2,392,065
1855	2,793,065
1856	2,985,696
1857	2,761,528
1858	2,528,188
1859	2,280,676
1860	2,156,660
1861	1,967,420
1862	1,658,207
1863	1,626,872
1864	1,544,694
1865	1,543,801
1866	1,480,597
1867	1,433,687
1868	1,960,713
1869	1,340,838
1870	1,222,798
1871	1,355,477
1872	1,282,521
1873	1,241,205
1874	1,155,972
1875	1,095,787
1876	934,224
1877	799,613
1878	768,869
1879	707,260
Total		49,038,534

The total value of the gold produced from the Australian and New Zealand mines from the first discovery till the end of 1879 is estimated at £257,372,252.

Other particulars of the gold yield will be found under the heads of the several colonies.

GOLDIE, ANDREW (1840—) explorer, a native of Scotland, was educated as a nurseryman. Actuated by a desire of seeing the world he came to N.Z. in 1862. The Maori war had just commenced, and everything in Auckland being unsettled Goldie went to Christchurch, returning to Auckland after an interval of eighteen months. He engaged there in the nursery business till 1874, when he went to Scotland on a visit. Whilst there he made arrangements with B. S. Williams of London to visit the South Sea Islands as a collector of plants and botanical specimens. Arriving in Sydney in 1875 he changed his destination, and resolved to proceed to the little known country of New Guinea, where he landed in April 1876, and has remained there with the exception of two short visits to Sydney ever since. He sailed along the coast in his small vessel the *Explorer* from Yule Island to the most south-easterly point of New Guinea, and has added largely to our knowledge of the country and people; whilst his observations regarding the

reefs and other dangers which impede the navigation of that little known coast are invaluable. In the beginning of 1878 he discovered two large and safe harbours suitable for vessels of the largest size, one of which he named Millport in honour of the place where he spent his early years.

GOLDSWORTHY, R. J. (—) Colonial Secretary of W.A. served with distinction in the Indian Mutiny in 1857. In 1868 was appointed Inspector-General of Police in Sierra Leone, and in 1873 Inspector of Customs on the Gold Coast where he served as second in command under Sir John Glover, and for his services received the order of C.M.G. In May 1876 he was made President of Nevis, and in 1877 Colonial Secretary of W.A.

GOODENOUGH, COMMODORE JAMES (1831—1874) entered the navy at an early age. In 1857 he went to China in the *Raleigh* which was wrecked at the entrance to Mocao. In 1859 he took the *Calcutta* home, and in 1863 was appointed to the *Renard*. He then commanded the *Revenge* in the Channel fleet and the *Victoria* flagship in the Mediterranean. In 1867 he was appointed to the *Minotaur* flagship of the Channel fleet, and in 1873 to the *Pearl* as Commodore of the Australian squadron. During a cruise amongst the Polynesian Islands he was shot by arrows at Santa Cruz on 12th August 1874, and died on the 20th. Goodenough was a man of very superior ability in his profession, an English gentleman of the best stamp and a zealous Christian philanthropist.

GOOLD, JAMES ALIPIUS (1812—) first Roman Catholic Archbishop of Melbourne, came to N.S.W. in 1838 and laboured for some years under the direction of Archbishop Polding. When it was determined to erect the district of Port Phillip (then part of N.S.W.) into a separate diocese, Goold was selected to fill the new bishopric. He was consecrated at Sydney on 6th August 1848 by Archbishop Polding, assisted by Bishop Murphy of Adelaide. Goold found the new diocese almost destitute of all the outward appliances of an ecclesiastical system. There was a very small band of clergymen; the places of worship in which they fulfilled their ministrations were few in number and of humble character; there was neither convent nor college in the whole diocese. But he met the difficulties of his position with spirit and perseverance. His zeal kindled that of the clergy and lay members of his Church, and in conjunction with energy and tact secured to him a vast influence over the minds of his co-religionists. The erection into an independent colony of the territory included in his diocese, the rapid introduction of a numerous population which followed that event, and the gold discovery afforded unusual scope for the efforts of a zealous bishop; and with the help of the clergy whom he had gathered round him and the liberality of the laity, Goold has seen as the result of the labours which he organised and directed many churches, convents and educational establishments spring up in all parts of his diocese.

On the twenty-fifth anniversary of his consecration in 1873 the Vicar-General and senior clergymen, on behalf of the clergy of the diocese, presented to Dr. Goold in the episcopal palace an address in which they spoke of his successful episcopal career. This address was accompanied by a gold repeater-watch and guard-chain, and a carriage and pair of horses valued at about £500. In 1876 he was raised to the dignity of first Archbishop of Melbourne.

GORDON, SIR ARTHUR HAMILTON (1829—) first Governor of Fiji, is a son of the fourth Earl of Aberdeen. He was educated at Cambridge, where he took the degree of M.A. in 1851. He entered Parliament as Member for Beverley in 1854. In 1856 he accompanied Mr. Gladstone in his mission to Corfu. In 1861 he was made Governor of Brunswick; in 1866 was transferred to Trinidad; and in 1871 to the Mauritius. In 1875 he was appointed first Governor of Fiji, and High Commissioner in Polynesia. In 1878 he visited England, returning to the islands the following year. In September 1880 he was transferred to the Governorship of N.Z. During Gordon's rule Fiji advanced rapidly in material prosperity.

GOSSE, WILLIAM CHRISTIE (1842—) explorer, came to S.A. in 1850 and entered the Government Survey Department in 1859, and was variously employed for several years until in 1872-3 he was sent out to explore new country lying 800 miles S.W. of Central Mount Stuart, with a view to push through to W.A. In this he did not succeed on account of the extremely dry and inhospitable character of the country. His explorations were however in a geographical point of view of great value, giving a detailed description of over 60,000 square miles of country, and fixing accurately the position of many of its important physical features. He started on his expedition 23rd April 1873 from Alice Springs, on the Port Darwin telegraph line, the party consisting of five whites, three Afghans with camels, and a native boy. On 19th July he discovered a most extraordinary granite rock rising abruptly from the plain to a height of 1100 feet, two miles in length from E. to W. and one mile in width. It was honeycombed with numerous caves and holes, many of which even on the top of the rock contained springs of beautiful water. The caves were extensively used by the natives, who had covered the walls of many of them with cleverly-drawn figures of snakes and animals and of two hearts joined together. Gosse says, "This rock must present a grand sight in the wet season, there being waterfalls in every direction." He named it Ayers Rock, after Sir Henry Ayers. He found some good country and springs of water, and after long and dreary journeyings reached the telegraph line on 16th December 1873. In recognition of his services he was appointed Deputy-Surveyor-General in 1875, which office he still holds.

GOULBURN, a city of some importance in N.S.W., being the principal depôt of the southern inland trade. It is situated near the junction of the Mulwarree Ponds and Wollondilly river, and lies distant from Sydney 134 miles in a south-westerly direction at an elevation of 2129 feet above the sea-level. It was made a city in 1865, the diocese being known by the same name; the present occupant of the see is the Right Rev. Mesac Thomas D.D. There is also a Roman Catholic Bishop Dr. Lanigan. The railway from Sydney was many years in progress, the mountainous character of the country having placed engineering difficulties of no small character in the way of its completion. Goulburn is well laid out with broad thoroughfares crossing each other at right angles. The buildings are of a substantial character, some of them comparing favourably even with those of Sydney. There are goldfields in the vicinity but of no great extent or richness, the prosperity of Goulburn mainly depending on the agricultural resources of the country which are very productive, a wide extent of the fertile plains in the vicinity being under cultivation. The mineral wealth of the country has yet to be developed; copper and other metals, and marble, slate and lime may be instanced as the best known at present. At Currawang fourteen miles distant a copper mine has been working for some time; and at Mummell a good lode has been discovered. The population is about 4500. Goulburn was proclaimed a municipality on 4th June 1859.

GOULBURN RIVER, in V., was discovered by Hume and Hovell in 1824, and named after the Right Hon. Henry Goulburn, Under Secretary of State for the Colonies. It rises in the Great Dividing Range near Emerald Hill, and after flowing N. and N.W. for upwards of 250 miles empties itself into the Murray about six miles N.E. of Moama. The capabilities of this fine river have never yet been properly developed. The upper portion above the township of Seymour the crossing place of the Sydney road is tortuous and cannot be navigated on account of the fallen trees and rocky and sandy obstructions, but below that point a moderate outlay would render it navigable. By means of this river and the Murray, there is water carriage from S.A. to the N.E. gold-fields of V. The upper part is extremely picturesque being overhung with mimosa and eucalyptus interspersed with rocky falls. The prevailing character of the land along its banks is agricultural; the alluvial flats are good for grazing purposes. The river teems with fish and almost every description of water-fowl and the platypus is frequently met with. The land animals are also very numerous along its banks. The Jamieson gold-fields are on the upper portion of this river. The same name is given to a river in N.S.W. which is a branch of the Hunter.

GOULBURN VALE, is situated in the district of Liverpool Plains, N.S.W. It was discovered by

Oxley and named in honour of the Under Secretary of State for the Colonies.

GOULBURN PLAINS, is the name given to an extensive plain on the banks of the Wollondilly in N.S.W., naturally clear of trees, and about 120 miles S.W. from Sydney.

GOULD, JOHN, F.R.S. (1804—) ornithologist, left England for Australia in the spring of 1838, for the purpose of studying the natural productions of that country. The result of this visit was *The Birds of Australia*, a work in seven folio volumes, containing figures and description of upwards of 600 species. He subsequently published a work on *The Mammals of Australia*. These magnificent works are now very scarce, and are hardly to be procured at any price. Copies of them are in the Melbourne Public Library.

GOVERNOR KING'S BAY, a large bay lying to the westward of Wilson's Promontory and extending from South Cape to Cape Otway, discovered by Grant in 1800 and named by him after Governor King.

GOVETT'S LEAP, is a picturesque cataract in the Blue Mountains, N.S.W., about seventy miles from Sydney. It was discovered by W. R. Govett, surveyor, in 1832.

GOYDER, GEORGE WOODRUFFE (1824—) Surveyor-General of S.A., has been since 1851 connected with that important branch of the public service. He first entered the office of the Colonial Engineer, Colonel Freeling and rapidly rose by his talents and close attention to business. He was chief clerk in the Lands Office in 1853, in January 1858 received the appointment of Deputy Surveyor-General; and three years afterwards on the retirement of Colonel Freeling was appointed Surveyor-General. He has undertaken several exploring expeditions and was sent with a staff of surveyors to survey the Northern Territory and lay it out in sections, a work which was accomplished in a wonderfully short space of time and for which Goyder was complimented by Parliament. He has a more extensive and accurate knowledge of the lands of S.A. than any other person, and the acquisition and settlement of the Northern Territory are mainly owing to his indefatigable exertions.

GRAFTON, a township in N.S.W., is pleasantly situated on both sides of the Clarence River, about forty-five miles from the sea, from which it is navigable, the river here being about half a mile in width, with fine wharves and a patent slip for the shipping. A sandspit one mile inside the bar considerably impedes the navigation, but is now being removed by dredging. Grafton is distant from Sydney by land 350 and by sea 450 miles N.E. It is a city; and in conjunction with Armidale constitutes a diocese of the Church of England. It was proclaimed a municipality in July 1859. The population is about 8000, and is well supplied with schools, churches, and public

buildings. The lowlands on either side the Clarence River are amongst the richest in the colony and suitable for the growth of sugar, tobacco, and many other tropical productions; but the crops are sometimes jeopardised and sometimes injured by floods. In July 1876 the heaviest flood ever known in the memory of the white man occurred; nearly the whole city was submerged, much damage was done, and several lives were lost. The township is named after the Duke of Grafton.

GRAMPIAN MOUNTAINS, in V., were discovered by Mitchell in 1836, and named after the well-known Scotch mountains which they resemble in general outline. They are a range of extremely rugged mountains, forming the W. termination of the great Dividing Range, and running N. and S. with numerous spurs in all directions. The principal peak is Mount William, 5600 feet high. The Sierra Range forms the S. portion of the main range, the highest peaks of which are Mounts Abrupt and Sturgeon, the former 2700 feet and the latter 2000 feet above the level of the sea; both lie at the S. of the range. The Victoria, although generally considered as a separate range is partly a spur from the Grampians. Nearly the whole of these mountains are heavily wooded with splendid timber, which is fit for building. They are the source of numerous excellent streams, and produce granite much of which is of fine quality. From Pleasant Creek the distant view of the Grampians is exceedingly grand and picturesque. Mount William was ascended by Mitchell, who spent a night of great danger and suffering on its summit.

GRANT, JAMES, navigator and lieutenant in the Royal Navy, made a voyage to Port Jackson in 1800 in command of H.M. surveying brig the *Lady Nelson*, during the course of which he discovered and traced a considerable part of the continent. The first land seen by him was Cape Northumberland, named in honour of the head of the Percy family. Within the cape stands Port Macdonnell, subsequently named after Governor Macdonnell of S.A. Two high mountains seen far inland by Grant were named the one Mount Schanck, after Admiral Schanck, and the other Mount Gambier, after Admiral Lord Gambier. Sailing along the coast another cape was met with and named Cape Bridgewater, after the Earl of Bridgewater; and a third cape he named Cape Sir William Grant. Some adjacent rocks were named the Lawrence Rocks. The sight of smoke on the hills on shore showed that the land was inhabited. A large bay was next discovered and named Portland Bay, after the Duke of Portland. To the right as he advanced lay a high and rocky island, about a mile long, which he named Lady Julia Percy Island, in compliment to the Northumberland family. To the E. of Portland Bay he found a bold headland the shores of which appeared inaccessible, but the land was picturesque.

This was named Cape Otway. Rounding this headland another high cape was seen which from its fancied resemblance to the Isle of Wight in England was named Point Wight. It so happened that Wight was also the name of a son-in-law of Admiral Schanck. Wilson's promontory was next passed and named. He had just missed the chance of discovering Port Phillip by sailing straight across the bay instead of exploring it. At Cape Liptrap an unsuccessful attempt was made to land. The *Lady Nelson* having accomplished the achievement of sailing through Bass Straits from the westward at length arrived at Sydney, where the tidings of what had been achieved by so small a vessel in such dangerous seas gave great satisfaction. The ship was put in commission by the Government, and sent to make a survey of Western Port Bay. She entered Western Port on 21st March 1801, and discovered two islands within the entrance. To one of these was given the name of Schnapper Island from its fancied resemblance to a schnapper's head. A second very pleasant island was named Churchill Island. After making a complete survey of the port the *Lady Nelson* surveyed the three bays round Wilson's promontory and then returned to Sydney.

GRANT, JAMES MACPHERSON (1822—) came to N.S.W. in 1839. He served articles to Chambers and Thurlow solicitors. In 1844 he went to N.Z. and volunteered in the war with Hōni Heki: returning to Sydney he completed his articles and was admitted in 1847 an attorney and solicitor of the Supreme Court. He then entered into partnership with Thurlow. In 1853 he came to V. and began practice in Melbourne. In December of that year the miners insurrection took place at Ballarat and Grant was amongst the leading sympathisers with the miners, acting professionally without fee for the men accused of treason. In 1856 he was elected for the Sandhurst Boroughs, and in 1859 was returned for Avoca. In 1861 he was appointed Commissioner for Public Works, and in 1864 Minister for Lands in the McCulloch administration. He carried his Lands Amendment Act in 1865. In 1868 the Ministry resigned. In 1871 Grant again took office as President of the Board of Land and Works. In 1872 he went into opposition; and in 1877 became Minister of Justice in the Berry Cabinet.

GREGORY, AUGUSTUS C., explorer, with his brothers C. F., and Frank T., three young surveyors, started on an exploring expedition from N.S.W. in 1846. Their modest equipment consisted of four horses and seven weeks provisions. Starting from Bolgart Spring in August they passed through a large tract of salt swamp country, with dense scrubs and granite ranges, and came to an immense salt lake which baffled further progress to the eastward. Turning N.W. towards the coast through acacia shrubs and red sand, they reached the rich limestone country at the mouth of the Arrowsmith. In latitude 28° 57' 10", longitude 115° 30' 30" they

came across fine seams of coal five and six feet thick, with large beds of shale. The party returned to the settled districts after an absence of forty-seven days, during which they had travelled nearly 1000 miles. The coal discovery led to an expedition being despatched for its further examination. Lieutenant Helpman was sent in December in the schooner *Champion*, and having landed in Champion Bay travelled with a cart up the Greenough, and following the track of the Gregorys from the Arrowsmith arrived at the coal deposit. Returning with a load of the mineral his companion, Frank Gregory, made a flying survey of the country in the immediate neighbourhood, which was unfortunately found to be of such a sterile nature as to render the discovery of the coal of comparatively little value. A second expedition was however despatched under Roe the Surveyor-General of W.A. in 1848. While Roe was engaged on this journey A. C. Gregory was despatched to the northward to explore the Gascoyne. His party consisted of six men. He started in September 1848 from a point eighty miles from Perth, and after passing the grassy plain between the Moore and the Arrowsmith struck into dense scrubs in the endeavour to reach the heads of some of the coast streams. He penetrated 350 miles north of Perth and was then compelled to return to the Murchison, the exploration of which and of the country around Champion Bay showed that there were thousands of acres of pastoral and agricultural land available; while the discovery of a load of galena on the Murchison inspired new hopes of mineral wealth. A. C. Gregory undertook a third expedition in July 1855, under the auspices of the Royal Geographical Society of London, to explore the interior and also with some hope of getting news of Leichhardt. One party consisted of eleven persons among whom was Baron von Mueller, Wilson as geologist, and H. Gregory. Two vessels took them round to the Victoria, and landed them on the Plains of Promise seen by Stokes. The *Tom Tough* remained to co-operate with them on the coast. Though the horses were weak they reached the Macadam Range in six days. On 18th October they and the vessel reached the upper part of the Victoria, where time was lost in repairing an accident to the *Tom Tough*. On 3rd January 1856 they again started, and made the head of the river in latitude $18^{\circ} 12'$ longitude $130^{\circ} 39' E$. A journey of 300 miles brought them to Sturt's Creek and an impracticable desert, whence they returned to the dépôt. Subsequently the lower part of the Victoria was explored towards the Gulf, while the vessel went to Coepang for supplies. In June Gregory again started, and in August made the head of Leichhardt's M'Arthur River, and pushing S.E. came on the Albert where the Plains of Promise commenced, and where they found H.M.S. *Torch* had touched. Two days from the Albert they struck the Leichhardt, tracing which downwards M'Kinlay afterwards reached the coast. On the 11th they crossed the spurs of the Great Australian

Cordillera at a height of 2500 feet, and reached the Lynd, descending thence into the valley of the Burdekin, in latitude $18^{\circ} 57'$, where they were on known tracks. The party returned to Brisbane in November. Gregory reported most favourably of the valley of the Victoria. In fertility and extent he stated that it far exceeded the best parts of W.A. Of the 1500 plants collected by Von Mueller during the journey, 500 were found to be new species. This extensive expedition cost a large sum of money. What new discoveries Gregory made were of a very interesting nature; but with such an outfit and such a starting point it has been regretted that he did not turn towards the interior and follow Leichhardt's tracks, when he might have discovered the fine tracts of country afterwards traversed by Burke, M'Kinlay, Landsborough and Walker, even if he could not have pushed S. from Termination Lake. He missed the great opportunity, but his improvements in pack-saddles and compasses and the difficult art of leading an extensive exploration have proved useful to other explorers. In 1858 after his return from the North Australian expedition the N.S.W. Government sent Gregory in search of Leichhardt—ten years after the missing traveller had departed. The party consisted of nine men and forty horses each of which carried 150lbs. of provisions. They reached the Barcoo (or Victoria of Mitchell) on the 17th April. The fine stream and rich open downs seen by Mitchell were now a dry watercourse and a withered desert. In latitude $24^{\circ} 25'$, longitude $145^{\circ} 6'$ they found a tree marked with an L, and near it some stumps of trees that had been felled with an axe, but whether these are traces of Leichhardt is still disputed. Steering W. they reached the Thompson on 10th May, and followed it till it ran into plains of mere baked clay, which cast a glare into the sky above, until in latitude $23^{\circ} 27'$ there was neither water nor grass. Landsborough who saw it in 1862 describes it as one of the most charming rivers in Australia. Gregory's expedition proved that the Barcoo, found in its upper regions in 1835 by Mitchell, was really the same watercourse as that discovered by Sturt in a much lower latitude in 1845. He subsequently pushed down the Cooper inland until near the borders of S.A., when he descended the Strzelecki creek of Sturt, and arrived at Adelaide seven months after his start from Brisbane on an exploration which added nothing to our knowledge of the fate of Leichhardt. Since then Gregory has not taken the field. He retired on his laurels as an explorer, and became Surveyor-General of Q.

GREGORY, FRANK T., explorer, brother to the foregoing, accompanied his brother in his expedition in 1846. In 1858 he organised an expedition to examine the country between the Gascoyne and Mount Murchison, W.A. The party consisted of J. S. Roe, W. Moore, C. Navin, A. Chainer and a native. They started 16th April 1858 from the Geraldine mine. They discovered and named Mount Nairn, Lockyer Range, Lyons River, the Alma,

Mount Augustus, Mount Gould, and Mount Hall. A million acres of good land were found, and they returned to Adelaide 10th July 1861. In 1861 he tried to penetrate the interior from the N.W. coast, but was baffled by the arid red sand ridges, amidst which he and his party nearly lost their lives. He discovered some extensive rivers, amongst which were the Fortescue, Ashburton, De Grey and Oakover, and also a large extent of pastoral ground, a portion of which is now settled.

GREY, SIR GEORGE (1812—) explorer and governor, is a son of Colonel Grey, who was killed at the storming of Badajoz. He was born at Lisbon, Portugal, on 14th April 1812 and entered the army in 1829. In 1837 Grey in company with Lieutenant Lushington undertook an expedition to explore the country lying between Swan River and the Gulf of Carpentaria. H.M.S. *Beagle* was then lying at Plymouth, and a passage was offered for himself and his exploring party in the *Beagle*. At the Cape of Good Hope he hired the *Lyneher* schooner and started with a party consisting of twelve men, thirty-one sheep, nineteen goats and six dogs. On 2nd December 1837 they reached the coast of Australia and anchored in Port George. Here Grey landed and proposed to explore the shore for some distance. He took with him a few men and some dogs. The vessel was to meet them at the bottom of the bay. The weather was burning hot and the rocks and sands were literally scorching. There was not a breath of air nor a single tree to shelter the explorers. Their stock of water began to fail. First the dogs gave in and began to drop down dead; then the men began to drop behind. The party was unable to go forward. In vain the men plunged into the sea to refresh their exhausted frames. At length Grey started in advance with one companion, in hopes of reaching the schooner. But a new and terrible difficulty arose. At the distance of a mile and a-half the two travellers met an arm of the sea five hundred yards wide, out of which the tide was sweeping like a torrent. What to do now? Grey's companions could not swim. Grey saw that the lives of his companions depended on him. He stripped to his shirt, and with a pistol in his hand and his military cap on his head, plunged into the water. Soon his pistol was swept away by the current; then the cap had to be abandoned lest the chin-strap should choke the hardy swimmer. After a fearful struggle the waves dashed him on the opposite shore. He clambered up the rocks, naked and wounded. A savage had perceived him, and the war-whoop was raised. But Grey contrived to hide in the crevice of a rock, where overpowered nature at once found relief in sleep. From this perilous position he was rescued, as were subsequently the party on shore, by the arrival of the schooner. This was Grey's first adventure in Australian exploration. After undergoing considerable difficulty in finding a suitable place for landing Grey discovered a sheltered cove which he named Hanover Bay. On 16th all the stores

were landed, and the schooner started to Timor for the ponies. Grey spent the interval in taking a view of the country around. The schooner returned on 17th January 1838. Then Grey's explorations and difficulties commenced. The ponies were found unmanageable and not suited to the climate; the sheep died; a large part of the stores had to be left behind, and the natives came down in force and an encounter took place with them in which Grey was wounded, no less than three spears having entered his body. All hope of exploring the country about Swan River was then abandoned. But proceeding a little inland they came upon a most delightful tropical country. From Hanover Bay the expedition proceeded for seventy miles inland along the banks of the Glenelg a river discovered in the vicinity, the country still preserving the same appearance. On 16th April the party returned to Hanover Bay where he found Captain Wiekham with the *Beagle*. A month later the *Lyneher* returned and all further attempts at exploration in that quarter were abandoned. Grey sailed thence to Mauritius to recruit his health. In 1839 he returned and again started on an exploring expedition with thirteen men. By the advice of the settlers at Swan River he determined to land at Sharks Bay and to explore the coast upwards to Hanover Bay. At Sharks Bay a violent tempest put an end to further explorations. The sea rose and washed away the whole dépôt of provisions. Two leaky whaleboats and a little flour and salt provisions were alone left, and with these he and his men made a hasty retreat to Perth. About half-way from Perth the two boats were so shattered by the surf as to be found useless, and the retreating party took to the land. Here they would have miserably perished but for the commander. They lay down and declared themselves unable to proceed further. Leaving them on the sea-shore at a native well Grey pushed on for Perth and reached the out-settlements. Horsemen were immediately despatched with food, and arrived in time for the relief of all the party save one a lad named Smyth who had perished. When the remnant reached Perth on 21st April 1839 they were so reduced as to be hardly recognisable. From King George's Sound Grey returned to Adelaide. He subsequently published his *Journals of Discovery* of that part of the country. His accounts of his travels are amongst the most romantic in the annals of Australian exploration, and reveal his character for courage, perseverance and endurance under privations. The labour of this first expedition consisted chiefly in tracing the sources of the Glenelg river. In 1841 he was appointed Governor of S.A. There he gave his attention to exploration, colonisation and the state of the aboriginals. In 1845 he was made Governor of N.Z., and conducted the war to a successful termination. He was made a Baronet and K.C.B. in 1848 and a D.C.L. of the Oxford University. In 1854 he was appointed Governor of Cape Colony; and in 1861

was re-appointed by special request of the Colonial Office, on account of his extensive knowledge of the Maori character, language and habits, Governor of N.Z., in consequence of the breaking out of the Maori war at Taranaki. The second war was more troublesome than the first, and though ended successfully Grey went to England in 1867 partly to vindicate his administration. He returned to take up his residence in N.Z., and in 1875, on the death of the Superintendent of the Province of Auckland, Grey yielding to an influential requisition accepted that office and a seat in the Colonial Legislature as member for Auckland. On the Abolition of the Provinces Act—which was carried notwithstanding his strenuous opposition—coming into force in October 1876 Grey's tenure as Superintendent ceased. He continued however to hold the leadership of the Opposition in the House of Representatives, and on the defeat of the Atkinson Government became Premier 14th October 1877, forming a Government on the broad liberal principles of a land and property tax and a reduction of Customs duties. During his Ministry he carried several Acts of great practical utility. The Grey Ministry continued in office until December 1879, and Grey whose influence with the Maori chiefs and people is unbounded, engaged in exercising his powers with a view to induce the Maori king to consent to a construction of the railway across his country, so as to connect Auckland and Wellington. A sum for the purpose was authorised by the Parliament, and the achievement of this great work would form a fitting crowning act to the long series of eminent public services which have engraved the name of Sir George Grey indelibly on the scroll of N.Z. history. Grey is one of the few instances, if not the only one, of a statesman having descended from the Vice-Regal position into the troubled arena of political warfare in the very colony where he was himself Governor.

GRIFFITH, SAMUEL WALKER (1845—) came to Q. in 1854 and was educated at the Sydney University. He returned to Q. and in 1867 was called to the bar. In 1872 he entered Parliament as Member for East Moreton. In 1873 he was returned for Oxley and in 1874 was appointed Attorney-General. After filling various offices in the Macalister, Thorn, and Douglas Ministries he resigned on the defeat of the latter Ministry in January 1879.

GRIMES, CHARLES, Surveyor-General of N.S.W., was sent down by Governor King in November 1802 in a small vessel named the *Cumberland* (the same in which Flinders was made prisoner in the Isle of France) with orders to "walk round" Port Phillip. Grimes was accompanied by Lieutenant Charles Robbins of H.M.S. *Buffalo*, James Meehan and James Fleming who aided him in the survey. At Sea Elephant Bay (King Island) on 3rd December, Grimes fell in with the French expedition under Baudin, to whom he carried a despatch from the Governor warning the

French commander off the coast. "I shall not even attempt to dissemble," wrote King; "for such is the nature of my instructions, that I must oppose by all the means in my power the execution of the project you are suspected of being about, viz. to form a French settlement on the S. coast of A. or in T." Grimes and Robbins having executed their orders and seen the Frenchman depart passed through the Heads into the bay and anchored at the spot where the settlement was afterwards formed by Collins. From this point Grimes explored the whole of the shores of Port Phillip, Geelong and Corio Bays, and in his whale boat pulled up the Saltwater and Yarra rivers as far as what is now known as the Falls, near Studley Park. This interesting exploration discovered several runs of fresh water around the bays, and determined the various physical features of the country. The report he made on his return to Sydney, with the manuscript journal and the original map, were disinterred from the records in the Survey office at Sydney in 1877 by Mr. J. J. Shillinglaw of Melbourne, and were printed and published by the Victorian Government in 1878. The disputes of Batman and Fawkner on this point are therefore at once disposed of, and putting aside the doubtful stories of the discovery of the Yarra by prisoners who escaped from Collins' settlement Grimes is certainly entitled to the credit of having been the first to view the "everflowing" Yarra. The unfavourable report of the country made by him added influence to the request of Collins. Orders were given for the removal of the settlement. Grimes acted as Judge-Advocate at the trial of Macarthur in Sydney in 1808.

GROOTE EYLANDT (Great Island) lies off the western coast of the Gulf of Carpentaria, and is the largest island in the Gulf. Its extreme length and breadth are about forty miles each. The centre is mountainous, and the shores are dry and barren.

GROSE, MAJOR FRANCIS. When Governor Phillip took his departure from Sydney in December 1792 the government devolved on Major Grose, senior officer of the 102nd Regiment or N.S.W. Corps, who was subsequently succeeded by Captain Paterson. During his rule of two years Grose placed the whole of the civil power in the hands of the military officers. He returned to England in December 1794.

GROSE RIVER, in N.S.W., rises near Pulpit Hill and flows into the Nepean River. It was discovered by Captain Paterson in September 1793 and named after Major Grose.

GUARD, JOHN. In April 1834 the barque *Harriet*, J. Guard master, bound for Cloudy Bay was wrecked at Taranaki near to the spot where the English settlement now stands. For six days the shipwrecked mariners were treated as friends, but from some unexplained cause a quarrel arose, in which twelve sailors and twenty-five natives were slain and Guard and his wife, two children, and ten seamen were made prisoners. Guard and

several sailors were allowed to depart on promising to return with powder as a ransom for the others. In consequence of Guard's representations, the Government of N.S.W. sent the ship *Alligator*, Captain Lambert, and a company of the 50th Regiment to rescue the prisoners. On the arrival of the force at Taranaki the captured sailors were given up, and the two interpreters who were sent on shore promised that a payment should be made when the woman and children were released. The soldiers were then landed, and as they formed in battle array on the beach two unarmed and unattended natives came down to meet them. One introduced himself as the chief who had got the woman and children, rubbed noses with Guard in token of ancient friendship, and told him that Mrs. Guard and the children were well, and that they would be surrendered on the natives receiving the promised payment. The officer in charge of the boat attributing evil motives to this man seized him, dragged him into the boat, and stabbed him with a bayonet. A few days afterwards Mrs. Guard and one child were released and the wounded man given to his friends. The other child was subsequently brought down to the strand on the shoulder of the chief who had fed it, and he requested to be allowed to take the child on board ship to receive the promised ransom. When told none would be given he turned away, but before getting many yards was shot and the infant was taken from the agonising clutch of the dead man, to whom it clung as to a friend. The dead man's head was then cut off and kicked about the sand, and Mrs. Guard afterwards distinguished it as the head of their best friend. In consequence of a shot discharged by whom and at whom no one knew, the ship's guns and the soldiers commenced firing, and after destroying two villages and several canoes and killing many natives, the troops re-embarked and the expedition sailed for Sydney. The Government of N.S.W. urged on His Majesty's government the necessity of supporting the British resident with an armed force, as that officer was placed in a position neither creditable to himself nor to the English he represented.

GUICHEN BAY, in S.A., is a fine bay formed by Cape Lannes on its southern extremity and Baudin's Rocks and reefs at its northern. The coast to the southward is composed of sandy hillocks lightly timbered. Baudin's Rocks form a group of islets situated from Cape Lannes N. by W. four and a-half miles. The bay inside the reefs is three miles deep and lined by a sandy beach, the bottom quite clear and of excellent holding ground with gradual soundings from five fathoms in the stream of the reefs to the shore with the exception of a few rocky points. The township of Robe lies at the head of this bay. The whole of the E. and N. sides of Guichen Bay are composed of low sand-hills scarcely thirty feet above the water level, but on the S. side a change takes place. The sand is replaced by rough craggy rocks which, though not rising high are bold and

abrupt, sometimes presenting a perpendicular face to the heavy surf which beats upon that coast. Amongst the rocks on the S. side of this bay are several blowholes caused by the wash of the waves having bored caves into the rock, and then upward to the surface by a channel through which every wave which falls upon the shore sends up a column of spray into the air even on the calmest day.

GUN ISLAND, an island off Swan River W.A., the largest of the Pelsart group on which a small brass four-pounder was found by Stokes; the gilding was in a wonderful state of preservation; and also two Dutch doits bearing date 1707 and 1720.

GUNDAGAI, a township on the banks of the Murrumbidgee River 245 miles S.W. of Sydney containing about 1000 inhabitants. The iron bridge over the Murrumbidgee together with the viaduct is five-eighths of a mile long and cost £38,000. The Murrumbidgee is navigable as far as Gundagai by steamers. The river flats are liable to floods, but the present township is high and dry. The original township on the river flat was washed away in June 1852 when seventy-one dwellings were wrecked and eighty-one lives were lost. The country is principally taken up by squatters and small farmers. The land is in places, particularly along the banks of the river, of a very fertile character and admirably adapted for the growth of wheat, maize and tobacco. A rich copper mine is in full work at the Snowball Creek nine miles distant employing a large number of hands. The mineral resources of the district are vast. A private company is working the asbestos fields, the quality of the fibrous mineral being pronounced by experts as very superior.

GURNER, HENRY FIELD (1819—) a native of Sydney, where his father was chief clerk of the Supreme Court, with Baron Field as Judge. In 1834 Gurner was appointed clerk in the Supreme Court office; and in March 1841 was admitted to the bar of N.S.W. as an attorney, solicitor, and proctor. In March 1841, on the establishment of a Supreme Court in Port Phillip, he was appointed Deputy Registrar, and accompanied Judge Willis to Melbourne, and was the first person admitted as attorney in V. He filled the office of Deputy Registrar until the appointment of J. D. Pincock to that office in November 1841. He subsequently practised his profession, and in January 1842 was appointed Crown Solicitor for the province; this appointment was confirmed when, in 1851, the colony of V. was proclaimed. He was also appointed the first Town Clerk of Melbourne in January 1842, when the Act of Incorporation was passed. Gurner is the author of two treatises on the practice of the law courts, and also of the *Chronicles of Port Phillip*, published in 1876. He has been from the first a zealous collector of all printed documents relating to the Australasian colonies, and recently printed a catalogue of his extensive and valuable collection.

GYMPIE, a gold-field township in Q., situated on the side of a range of hills on the upper waters of the river Mary, 116 miles N. of Brisbane and 54 miles S. of Maryborough. It is a large straggling township, extending nearly three miles from N. to S., consisting of three distinct portions—Gympie, the One Mile, and Monkland. The existence of gold was made known in October 1867 by Nash (after whom the town was first named Nashville, but afterwards altered to Gympie,) and the discovery soon attracted a large number of miners and others. In the following month (8th November) the first quartz reef, the Lady Mary, was opened up by Pollock and Lawrence. The Caledonian reef was discovered a day or two later by Goodchap. White's and Walker's gullies were found and worked soon afterwards. Immediately after the finds at the Deep Creek the One-mile Township was formed. There are numerous reefs in work. Some of the crushings during 1877 and 1878 were very rich, averaging 2 ozs. 5 dwts. to the ton. The total returns for the year 1877 were 45,119 ozs. 6 dwts. 11 grs., being 4931 ozs. 6 dwts. 11 grs. in excess of 1876, and 13,134 ozs. 18 dwts. 17 grs. more than the yield of 1875. The population is about 6000. The country surrounding Gympie, although but little prospected, is known to abound in minerals; copper, silver, antimony, cinnabar, bismuth and nickel having been found in payable quantities. At Miva, about forty miles to the N., extensive coal beds have been discovered, but remain as yet unworked. At Kilkivan, about forty miles to the W., a reef known as the "Rise and Shine" has been profitably worked. Near Kilkivan cinnabar has been found of considerable richness, out of which three or four tons of quicksilver have been extracted with indifferent appliances.

H.

HACKING POINT, a beautiful harbour of N.S.W. about eighteen miles to the southward of Port Jackson, so named from the discoverer, a pilot.

HACK, JOHN BARTON (1805—) one of the pioneers of S.A., came to the colony in 1837; and having called at V.D.L. purchased sheep, cattle and horses there, and brought them over in the *Isabella* commanded by Captain John Hart. He undertook the first Government contract in the colony which was to cut a dry canal through the Sandhills at the old Port to deep water in the creek, to afford a convenient landing place for goods from vessels. Hack suffered with many others in consequence of the heavy depreciation of property in 1842, resulting from the crash that took place after the dishonour of Governor Gawler's drafts on the Home Government. He embarked in a whale fishery with the S.A. Company, and employed Captain Hart whose vessel was wrecked in Portland Bay. He was the first person to take out

special surveys of land, which he did at the Little Para and the Three Brothers survey, near Echunga. He was appointed one of the committee to name the streets of the city, and bought no less than sixty-four acres at the Government sale of town lands. In 1869 Hack was appointed accountant to the Goods department of the South Australian Railways.

HAGGERSTONE ISLAND, a high and rocky island off the N.E. coast of the continent, separated from the islands of Sir Everard Home's Group by a channel three miles wide, and free from danger.

HAINES, WILLIAM CLARKE (1807—1864) came to V. in 1848, and settled as a farmer near Geelong. In 1851 he was nominated member of the Legislative Council, and in 1853 elected member for South Grant. He was appointed Chief Secretary by Sir Charles Hotham on the resignation of Foster in 1854. On the establishment of the new Constitution the Haines Ministry resigned their offices, but were immediately re-appointed by the Governor the first responsible Government. The Council and the people concurred in thinking the members of the Ministry were actuated by a desire to secure their pensions. Under the 50th clause of the new Constitution Act persons released from office on political grounds were entitled to pensions, but this clause was qualified by the next clause, which provides that pensions shall be granted subject to the regulations in force in Britain, which shut out all who may not have been two years in office. The new ministers only escaped a severe vote of censure for thus prematurely assuming "responsibility" by one vote. They had moreover anything but an agreeable task before them, with the great bulk of the popular members decidedly hostile to their policy, and the Governor inclined to exact compliances hardly in accordance with their vaunted responsibility. The question of vote by ballot was introduced into the Legislature by Nicholson on the 18th December 1855. The motion which he submitted was to the effect:—"That in the opinion of the House any new Electoral Act should provide for electors recording their votes by secret ballot." This resolution was not only opposed by the newly-appointed responsible Government who, contrary to Nicholson's express desire, made it a ministerial question, but by several members who were opposed to the Ministry. It was, notwithstanding, affirmed by thirty-three votes to twenty-five, and the cabinet had no alternative but to resign. They had made an error in having overrated the influence of those popular members who were antagonistic to the measure. The advocates of the ballot had not anticipated this, and were scarcely prepared for assuming the responsibility of forming an administration. Sir Charles Hotham adopted the constitutional course of sending for Nicholson, who rather unwillingly accepted the task of forming a Ministry. During the pending negotiations between Nicholson and the other

supporters of the ballot in the House Sir Charles Hotham's death occurred, and Major-General Macarthur, the officer who assumed the administration of the Government, being Governor-in-Chief of the colony, re-called Haines and the other members of his Ministry to power. In March 1857 the Ministry was defeated on a vote of want of confidence, and the first O'Shanassy Ministry came into power. It was however itself defeated on a vote of want of confidence after a debate extending over seventeen hours on 29th April, the first evening of its meeting Parliament. Haines again returned to power. He held office till March 1858, when he was again defeated by O'Shanassy, and went for a three years tour to Europe. On his return in 1861 he was returned for Portland, and then joined O'Shanassy's Ministry as Treasurer, remaining in office from 14th November 1861 till 27th June 1863. He died the following year. Haines was a man of very respectable abilities as a politician, and of sound principles, but lacking originality and decision of character. At the head of a strictly Conservative Ministry he brought in and carried the measure granting universal suffrage, his evident object being to catch the popular vote from the opposite party. He failed utterly to grapple with the difficulties of the land question; and his junction with his uncompromising opponent O'Shanassy ruined his reputation for consistency.

HALE, MATTHEW BLAGDEN (1811—) Bishop of Brisbane, received his education at Cambridge, was for some years Vicar of Stroud, and in 1847 was appointed Archdeacon of Adelaide. There he established the mission station of Poonindie, where after struggling through great difficulties he demonstrated that under proper training the aborigines might be led to a permanent place in civilised life, and become good Christians and useful members of society. In 1856 he was appointed Bishop of Perth, in W.A., and in 1875 was transferred to Brisbane.

HALIFAX BAY, on the N.E. coast of the continent, extends from Cape Cleveland to Point Hillock; it has several islands in it and is fronted by the Palm Islands.

HAMILTON, CAPTAIN. In the year 1797 a ship named the *Sydney Cove* bound from India to Sydney, commanded by Captain Hamilton, was wrecked on Furneaux Islands. The supercargo Clarke with a party determined to reach Sydney if possible in the long boat. The disastrous fate of this party is narrated under the article "CLARKE." Hamilton and the rest of the crew remained on the islands some months and were rescued by the *Francis*, a schooner sent down from Sydney for the purpose. Flinders saw portions of the wrecked vessel on the islands the following year.

HAMILTON, the capital of the western district of V., is situated on the Grange Burn Creek, 219 miles W. of Melbourne. The River Wannon flows about twelve miles distant W. The municipal area is 5280 acres. Hamilton contains a fine hospital

and benevolent asylum, a shire office, a mechanics' institute, town-hall, and the usual Government buildings. The Hamilton and Western District College was founded in 1871; the building is one of the finest in the district. There are besides the Alexandra College for Ladies, and a State-school capable of accommodating 500 children. A large new building on the site of the old Post Office, accommodating the Treasury, Land Office, and Post and Telegraph Offices, is now opened. A handsome private club-house, erected by the members at a cost of £5000, was opened in 1879. The Hamilton Gas Company has been very successful. The water supply works, which cost £9000, were completed 1st January 1880. The population of the borough is 3500, including the suburbs about 6000 people. The district is a pastoral (principally sheep-grazing) and agricultural one.

HANNIBAL ISLANDS, off the N.E. coast of the continent, are three in number, low and covered with bushes.

HANOVER BAY, on the N.W. coast of the continent. Here Grey, accompanied by Lieutenant Lushington with a party of twelve men, landed in December 1837 from the schooner in which they came from the Cape. The vessel was then sent to Timor for the ponies with which it was proposed to explore the interior. The result was disastrous—the plan of operations was ill digested, the ponies sickened and died, the leader was speared by the natives, the climate was unbearable. Grey made his way back to Hanover Bay, and was picked up in April 1838 by Captain Wickham, who in H.M.S. *Beagle* had been engaged in surveying the N. coast, and taken to Swan river.

HANSON, SIR RICHARD DAVIES (1805-1876) Judge of the Supreme Court in S.A., was in 1828 admitted to the English Bar, and as an attorney practised for some time in London. He also wrote for the *Globe* and *Morning Chronicle* newspapers and actively promoted Wakefield's scheme of colonisation. The Earl of Durham appointed him in 1835 Assistant-Commissioner for Crown Lands and Immigration in Canada. On that nobleman's death in 1840 he came to N.Z. with the appointment of Advocate-General. In 1846 he came to Adelaide and took a leading position at the Bar. In 1851 he was appointed Advocate-General and Member of the Legislature. In 1856 he became Attorney-General in the first responsible Ministry, which lasted only three months, but from 1856 to 1859 Hanson was Attorney-General and leader of the Government. In 1861 he was appointed Chief Justice and in 1866 was knighted. When the University of Adelaide was established he was chosen the first Chancellor. Hanson was a man of very superior abilities, both as a jurist and a literary man. He wrote and published in his later life some works of a theological cast, and in his early days he rendered material assistance to Lord Durham in drawing up his able and exhaustive report on the affairs of Canada.

HARDWICKE MOUNTAINS (or **NUNDARAW**), a range of mountains situated in the district of Liverpool Plains, N.S.W., discovered and named by Oxley after the Earl of Hardwicke in 1817. The highest elevations are Mount Apsley and Mount Shirley.

HARDWICKE BAY, in Spencer's Gulf, S.A., is a deep bight in the W. coast of Yorke's Peninsula. This opening was so called by Flinders after the Earl of Hardwicke. He found it one of the safest and best in the Gulf, with abundance of wood and water on the shore.

HARGRAVE, JOHN FLETCHER (1815—) Jurist, was educated at London University and Cambridge, where in 1840 he took his M.A. degree, and was called to the English Bar in 1841. The same year he published his *Treatise on the Thellusson Act and on Trusts for Accumulations*, and in 1843 edited the first volume of the twenty-first English edition of *Blackstone's Commentaries*. From 1841 Hargrave practised in London at the Equity Bar until 1856, when his health failing he was compelled to leave England, and came to Sydney in February 1857. On his health being re-established he determined to stay in the colony, and was appointed one of the first District Court Judges and Chairman of Quarter Sessions, but after holding one Session at Maitland and assisting in preparing the present rules of District Court practice he resigned his Judgeship. In February 1859 Hargrave entered political life as Solicitor-General in the Cowper Ministry and presented himself to the electors of East Camden, who returned him at the head of the poll after a sharp contest. A few months afterwards the general election took place, and Hargrave was returned for Wollongong by a large majority. He sat in the Legislative Assembly till October 1859, when he was appointed Member of the Legislative Council and also Member of the Executive Council to represent the Cowper Government in that chamber. In November Hargrave accepted office as Solicitor-General in the Forster Government, but without a seat in the Cabinet. In March 1860, on the formation of the Robertson Government, Hargrave was appointed Attorney-General, and after the retirement of Cowper from the Legislative Council in January 1861 again Member of the Executive Council. He assisted his colleague Robertson in carrying the present Land Act through the Council. After this Act had become law Robertson resigned in January 1862, leaving Hargrave sole representative of the Government in that chamber and Attorney-General until August 1863. In that month he resigned the Attorney-Generalship in favour of Darvall, who had previously held that office, but continued in the Cowper Government as Solicitor-General and its representative in the Council until the Martin Government came into power in October 1863. In February 1864 Hargrave again accepted office as Solicitor-General in the reinstated Cowper Government, and represented it in the Council till

June 1865, when he was appointed Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court on the death of Justice Milford. During his Legislative career Hargrave carried through the Council the Trustees and Mortgages Act, the State-aid to Religion Abolition Act; the Real Property Act, and the Electoral Upper House Bill of 1862; and also introduced the Insolvency Law Consolidation Bill of 1862, the Criminal Laws Consolidation Bills of 1864-65, and the Master's Office Abolition Bill of April 1865. Shortly after his appointment as Puisne Judge he accepted the office of Primary Judge in Equity. In July 1873 he was appointed first Judge of the Divorce Court. From the year 1858 till 1865 Hargrave held the appointment of Reader in General Jurisprudence at the Sydney University, and in that capacity delivered and published several lectures and an elaborate syllabus of two courses of twenty lectures on General Jurisprudence, which he had delivered orally every year at the University to the students of his class. He has also on several occasions delivered lectures at the Law Institute and Sydney School of Arts on topics connected with legal education.

HARGREAVES, EDWARD HAMMOND (1816—) gold discoverer, came to N.S.W. in 1832, and in 1833 went to Torres Straits in search of *bêche-de-mer* and tortoise-shell. At Batavia twenty out of the twenty-seven in the vessel died of yellow fever, and the survivors had some difficulty in getting back to Europe. Thence Hargreaves returned to Sydney in 1834. He was engaged in pastoral pursuits until 1849, when he went to California. Struck with the similarity of its geological formation to that of Bathurst he returned to N.S.W. in 1851, and on 12th February discovered gold at Lewis Ponds Creek, near Bathurst. He at once made its existence known to the world, thus gaining for himself the fame of being the first practical discoverer of precious metal in A. In 1853 he visited England, and was presented to the Queen as the Australian gold discoverer. Hargreaves was rewarded by a grant from the N.S.W. Legislature of £10,000, and from the V. Legislature of £5000. He also received from the N.S.W. Legislature in 1877 a pension of £250 for life.

HARKER, GEORGE (1816-79) came to V. in 1846 and engaged in commerce. He entered public life in 1856, when the first general election under the Constitution Act took place, being returned for Collingwood at the head of the poll. He occupied for some time an independent position, declining to identify himself with either of the existing parties. He voted for the motion which caused the resignation of the first Haines Ministry, and six weeks afterwards took part in the action which led to the downfall of their successors. On the formation of the second O'Shanassy Administration he accepted the office of Treasurer. His re-election for Collingwood was opposed by J. M. Smith, but the Minister was returned by a considerable

majority. In the election of August 1859 however Harker shared the fate of many of the Ministerialists, being rejected by his constituents. But he was furnished with a seat by Maldon, then a newly-created electoral district. The O'Shanassy Government on meeting Parliament was defeated, and resigned in October 1859. While Treasurer the responsible duty devolved upon Harker of negotiating the loan of £7,000,000 authorised by Parliament for railway construction. In February 1859 it also fell to his lot as Treasurer to oppose an attempt of the Legislative Council to make an alteration in the Appropriation Bill for the year. The vote for education was divided into two items—£92,500 for the Denominational Board and £32,500 for the Board of National Education. On the motion of Fellows the Council struck out these two amounts and substituted the lump sum of £125,000. A message was sent to the Assembly stating that the Council had made an amendment in the Bill "for the purpose of furthering the meaning of the Legislative Assembly in distributing the grant for education as expressed in the vote directing the mode of distribution." On the Bill being returned to the Assembly the Speaker reported, "as the guardian of the privileges of the Legislative Assembly, that an amendment had been introduced by the Legislative Council into a Money Bill." Harker at once moved, "That the Constitution Act having forbidden the Legislative Council to make any alteration in the Act for the appropriation of the consolidated revenue, this House refuses to entertain the amendment it has introduced into it, and insists on the Bill being passed by the Upper House in its integrity." The majority of the Assembly saw in the amendment more than a clerical correction—in fact, an attempt to favour the National as against the Denominational Board—and after a long discussion Harker's motion was carried by twenty-four to fifteen. On a message in accordance with the motion being sent to the Legislative Council (on the day of prorogation) that Chamber decided not to insist on its amendment, and the bill was passed into law in its original form. In March 1860 Harker resigned his seat in the Assembly and went on a visit to Europe. At the general election of 1864 he was again elected by his old constituency of Collingwood. The Parliament lasted for only one session, but that session was a long and important one, for in it were passed the Grant Land Act and the revised tariff. In the debates on both of these questions Harker took a prominent part. He manifested an excess of liberality to the agricultural selector, advocating that his rent should be no more than 6d. per acre, and that the upset price of land should be fixed at 5s. per acre. He opposed the tariff on principle, and dissented from the course of "tacking" the measure to the Appropriation Bill. In the early stages of the deadlock he condemned the McCulloch Government for allowing the public creditor to remain unpaid, and voted for Greeves' motion

censuring their policy. During this session he introduced a bill to abolish State aid to religion, but the measure was lost on its second reading. He carried through the Lower House a bill for the payment of members, which was rejected by the Council on its first reading. At the general election of 1866 Collingwood rejected Harker, who stood as the constitutional candidate, and on a subsequent occasion he was again unsuccessful in seeking the suffrages of this constituency. At the general election of 1871, however, a third attempt was successful. He finally retired from political life at the general election of 1874. He sat on the Common Schools Commission of 1866, and the Charitable Institutions Commission of 1870. For many years he was treasurer and chairman of the committee of the Melbourne Benevolent Asylum, and a member of the Melbourne Hospital Committee. He also long filled the position of chairman of the committee of the Victorian Asylum and School for the Blind, in the establishment of which he took an active part. Before the change in the educational system he was a member of the Board of Education. Harker belonged to the Congregationalist body, of which he was an influential member.

HARPER, HENRY JOHN (1807—) first Bishop of Christchurch, N.Z., was educated at Winchester and Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1836, and M.A. in 1840. After having been private tutor to Sir Charles Coote he officiated for many years as chaplain to Eton College, and in 1856 was appointed first Bishop of Christchurch. The diocese was reconstructed in 1869, and made Metropolitan over the sees of Auckland, Wellington, Waipau, and Nelson.

HARRINGTON INLET, in N.S.W., is the northern entrance of the River Manning. It was named by Oxley in honour of the Earl of Harrington.

HARRIS MOUNTAIN, in N.S.W., in the district of Bligh, was named by Oxley after Dr. Harris of the 102nd Regiment, who accompanied him in his expeditions into the interior. It is about 170 feet above the level of the plains. It lies fifty-three miles to the N.N.W. of the cataract, and about sixteen miles from the first of the marshes of the Macquarie.

HARTLEY, a township of N.S.W. on the river Lett, eighty-two miles N.W. of Sydney, contiguous to the Great Western Railway. It is embosomed among the Blue Mountains at an altitude of 2300 feet above the level of the sea. Rich and apparently inexhaustible deposits of coal and of kerosene shale have been discovered in the neighbourhood of the township. The shale is found to be rich in oil, and large quantities are exported to Melbourne and California for gas-making purposes. In 1875 5492 tons of shale value £13,730, and 19,065 tons of coals valued at £6684 15s. 6d. were raised. In 1876 the output was 15,598 tons. This shale is said to yield 150 gallons of crude oil to the ton

and 18,000 cubic feet of gas. Ironworks, copper smelting and the manufacture of fire-proof bricks, drain-pipes and terra-cotta goods are leading industries of the locality. The population numbers 250 persons.

HARVEST, LIEUT.-COLONEL EDWARD DOUGLAS, entered the British Army in 1842; in 1860 was appointed Resident at Cerigo, but relinquished the appointment at the end of the following year to join his regiment in India. In January 1872 he was appointed Commandant of W.A. and administered the Government from 12th January to 1st April, and again in 1877.

HASTINGS RIVER, in N.S.W., the entrance to which is the large harbour of Port Macquarie 220 miles to the N.E. of Sydney. The country bordering on the Hastings is a pleasing undulation of hill and dale richly clothed with timber; to the N.E. the river opens into reaches of great width and beauty extending to the sea; a few miles to the N. and S.E. are extensive lagoons which have a communication with the ocean. It was discovered and named by Oxley in honour of the Marquis of Hastings, Governor-General of India.

HAWKESBURY RIVER (OR DEERUBBUN,) in N.S.W., was named by Governor Phillip after Lord Hawkesbury. It is a continuation of the Nepean River after the junction of the latter with the Grose River, issuing from a remarkable cleft in the Blue Mountains in the vicinity of the township of Richmond. Along the base of these mountains the Hawkesbury flows in a northerly direction fed by numerous tributary mountain torrents descending from narrow gorges, which after heavy rains cause it to rise and overflow its banks as it approaches the sea. In one instance it rose near the town of Windsor ninety-seven feet above its ordinary level. The Hawkesbury disembogues into an excellent harbour about fourteen miles N. of Port Jackson called Broken Bay. As the river is traced inland it becomes extremely tortuous, the distance of Windsor (which is built on the Hawkesbury) from the sea in a direct line being not more than thirty-five miles, but by the windings of the river 140 miles. The rise of tide is four feet only, and the water is fresh forty miles below Windsor. The Hawkesbury is navigable for vessels of 100 tons for four miles above Windsor, but its navigation is impeded by some shallows after being joined by the Nepean.

HAY, a township in the Riverine district, N.S.W. on the Murrumbidgee River. It is a shipping port and port of entry, 460 miles S.W. of Sydney, the communication with which is *via* Melbourne to Echuca by rail, thence by the Deniliquin and Moama railway. It is an important crossing place by an iron swing bridge on the Murrumbidgee which is navigable to here by steamers during the greater part of the year. The highest rise in the river above summer level ever known here has been twenty-four feet. The surrounding country

is entirely taken up for sheep and cattle stations and consists of plains sparsely timbered. The population is about 2000.

HAY, SIR JOHN (1816—) came to N.S.W. in 1838 and for eighteen years was engaged in squatting pursuits. He became known in the southern districts as a man of ability and of public spirit. Before his entrance into Parliament the Border Duties had become a matter of controversy, and Hay advocated the policy of Freetrade across the Border. He first came forward as a candidate for the Murrumbidgee district in 1856 when the first general election took place under the new Constitution, and was returned without contest together with George Macleay the former representative. In September 1856 Hay moved a vote of want of confidence in the Cowper Ministry and made a memorable speech on the occasion. The motion was carried by twenty-six against twenty-three. Cowper advised the Governor-General to dissolve Parliament on the ground that no party in the House could form a permanent Government; and on his refusal to accept that advice tendered his resignation. Sir William Denison sent for Hay and requested him to form an administration. That commission he declined but recommended that it should be entrusted to Watson Parker, who succeeded in forming a ministry in which he himself was Colonial Secretary, S. A. Donaldson Treasurer, and Hay Minister for Lands and Works. E. Deas Thomson was associated with this ministry as Vice-President of the Executive Council and Representative of the Government in the Legislative Council. In September 1857 an amendment moved by Mr. Cowper on the motion for the second reading of the Government Electoral Bill—"That the Bill be read a second time this day six months"—was carried by twenty-six to twenty-three. In consequence of this vote the Parker Ministry resigned, having held the reins of power eleven months, and Cowper returned to office. Hay continued to fulfil the duties of a representative from his first election in 1856 until his appointment to the Upper House in 1867. He took a conspicuous part in 1860 in opposing the famous 13th clause of Robertson's land bill, embodying the principle of "Conditional Purchase," or "Free Selection before Survey." Hay thought survey ought to precede selection. He therefore in October 1860, when the 13th clause was under discussion, moved as an amendment the insertion of the words "after survey." After two nights debate Hay's amendment was carried by thirty-three to twenty-eight. The result was a dissolution of the Assembly and a general election in which the people were appealed to with the cry of "Free Selection before Survey." A large majority was returned pledged to support the rejected 13th clause. Hay was returned for the Murray amongst the few opponents of the principle who were sent back to Parliament. Though defeated in his attempt to modify the Robertson land policy in this important point, Hay accepted the decision of Parliament and endeavoured to

make the best of a system which differs widely from what he would have established. After the defeat of the Parkes Ministry Hay did not hold office though frequently invited to do so; but in October 1862 he was elected Speaker of the Assembly. He was re-elected to the same position in the next Parliament, and held it for three years. At the end of that period having found the duties of the chair too much for his health he resigned. He continued to sit as a Member of the Assembly for more than a year afterwards. In June 1867 he was appointed Member of the Legislative Council, and in July 1873 after the demise of Sir T. A. Murray was appointed its President, which office he continues to hold. He received the honour of Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George in 1877.

HAYES, JOHN, captain of the Bombay Marine, visited the S. coast of T. with the ships *Duke* and *Duchess* in 1794. He went much further up the River of the North than the French voyager D'Entrecasteaux had gone, and named it the Derwent, a much more appropriate appellation than the other, which is now quite forgotten. He was probably unaware of the visits of the French, and deemed himself the first discoverer. The name of the French navigator still survives in the channel called after him, as well as in the two islands named Bruni (which after all are but one island) and in Cape Bruni.

HAYES, SIR HENRY, a gentleman of rank and sheriff of Cork in Ireland, was one of the first residents in Sydney. He was sentenced to death for the abduction of Miss Pike a wealthy Quaker lady, but this sentence was commuted to transportation for life. His case made a great noise at the time in consequence of his high position. Some time elapsed before he was captured and brought to justice. A large reward having been offered for his apprehension he walked into the shop of a hairdresser at Cork named Coghlan, and after some conversation said that it was his intention to surrender himself, and Coghlan might as well reap the reward of his capture as anybody else. He resided while in Sydney at Vauluse, a beautiful spot near the entrance of Sydney Harbour, for many years afterwards the property of W. C. Wentworth. He received a pardon and left the colony for Ireland in 1812. There is a singular story current respecting him, which is implicitly believed by the more ignorant of the old colonists, to the effect that finding his place at Vauluse much infested with snakes, and firmly believing that these reptiles could not exist on Irish soil, he sent home for several casks of that article which he scattered over the place. His faith in his native land and its patron saint was amply rewarded, for—says the story—a snake has never been seen at Vauluse from that time to this.

HAYTER, HENRY HEYLYN (1821—) Government Statist of V., a native of Eden Vale, Wiltshire, England, was educated at the Charterhouse,

where he was a contemporary of Sir George Bowen and Sir Charles Ducane. He came to V. in 1852, and in 1857 joined the department of the Registrar-General where he was for many years at the head of the statistic branch. Whilst in that position he brought the official statistics of V. to a high state of perfection. Sir Charles W. Dilke in his *Greater Britain* says: "The exact position of V. is easily ascertained from her statistics, which are the most perfect in the world. The arrangement is an exquisite piece of mosaic." He was author of all the statistical reports issued from the office although these were not published under his name. In 1870 Hayter was selected to the office of Secretary to a Royal Commission appointed to enquire into the working of the public service of V. This Commission sat for upwards of three years, and brought up an exhaustive report in which the Commissioners expressed their high sense of the value of his services. Hayter's labours on the Commission did not prevent him from attending to his ordinary official duties, which were much added to by the census of 1871, the whole of the details of which both as regards the collection of the returns and their subsequent compilation were devised by him and carried out under his management. These labours, which involved the sacrifice of almost the whole of his leisure, together with domestic losses, affected his health, and in 1872 he was granted leave of absence for a short period, which he spent in N.Z., where at the request of Sir Julius Vogel the Premier, he investigated the working of the Registrar General's department and made suggestions for its improvement and the better taking of the census, the whole of which were adopted. In May 1874 the statistical branch over which Hayter had so long presided was erected into a separate department, he being placed at its head under the title of Government Statist. In 1875 he was deputed by the Government to represent V. at a conference of the Australasian colonies held in T. for the purpose of establishing a uniform system of official statistics. The result being that the conference, in almost every case, recommended the adoption of the forms and methods devised and brought into operation in V. by him. In 1879 Hayter visited the United Kingdom as secretary to a mission (of which Graham Berry, Premier of Victoria, was chief) whose object was to bring to the notice of the Imperial Government certain defects in the Victorian Constitution. Whilst in England Hayter was twice examined at length before a Committee of the House of Commons appointed to enquire into and make suggestions for reorganising the system of collecting and compiling the official statistics of the United Kingdom. He has also on several occasions been examined before Parliamentary Committees and Royal Commissions in V. Soon after Hayter assumed the office of Government Statist he originated the work he is best known by, *The Victorian Year-book*. This work as its name indicates is published annually but is rewritten from beginning to end each year.

High testimony has frequently been borne to its exhaustiveness and impartiality and general utility by the Parliaments and Press of all the Australian colonies, and in Europe and America. Hayter is also author of *Notes of a Tour in N.Z.*, of *Notes on the Colony of V.: Historical, Geographical, Meteorological and Statistical*, a portion of which has been reprinted for use in the Victorian State-schools, of a *Nosological Index*, which is used in the statistical departments of all the Australasian colonies; of several papers which have been read before scientific societies in various parts of the world, and of a great number of statistical and other official reports. In 1877 he edited, at the request of the Victorian Government, *Précis of information on the Colony of Victoria and of its capabilities for Defence*, for the use of the Intelligence Branch of the Imperial War Office. He is an honorary member of the Statistical Society of London, of the Royal Society of T., and of the Philosophical Society of Adelaide. He is also a Fellow of the Royal Colonial Institute.

HEALES, RICHARD (18—1864) came to V. in 1842 and was first employed as a mechanic in a coach-building establishment. He subsequently became proprietor of the establishment in which he had been employed. In 1849 he was elected City Councillor for Gipps Ward, Melbourne. He took an active part in the Temperance movement. He was elected Member of the Assembly for East Bourke in 1857 and became Chief Secretary in November 1860; resigned in November 1861; took office again under Sir James M'Culloch as President of the Board of Lands and Works and Commissioner for Crown Lands and Survey in June 1863, which posts he retained until his death on 19th June 1864. Heales was essentially a popular leader, and his advocacy of temperance and other objects conducive to the people's well-being gained him very great popularity. His sudden death, the direct result of overwork and public cares, was universally lamented, and his memory is preserved by the Victorian people as that of an honest, upright and most public-spirited statesman.

HEARN, WILLIAM EDWARD, A.M., LL.D., jurist and political economist, was in 1854 chosen by a committee of which Sir John Herschel was chairman to be the first Professor of Modern History and other subjects, including Political Economy, in the University of Melbourne. In 1873 when the Faculty of Laws was established, Dr. Hearn resigned his professorship and accepted the post of Dean of the Faculty. After several unsuccessful attempts to gain a seat in the Legislative Assembly he was returned to the Legislative Council as Member for the Central Province in August 1878, beating his opponent by 3854 votes to 1659. Dr. Hearn besides being an able and efficient journalist is the author of the following standard works:—(1) *Plutology, or the Theory of the Efforts to Supply Human Wants*; (2) *The*

Government of England: its Structure and its Development; (3) *The Aryan Household; its Structure and its Development*. These works have gained for Dr. Hearn a European reputation, and are regarded as standards in their several departments. He is held in the highest respect as a man of great erudition combined with indefatigable intellectual industry, and as a public man of the very first rank.

HENTY, EDWARD (1809-1878) the first colonist of Victoria. His life includes that of the Henty family. Their father, Thomas, lived at West Tarring in Sussex, England. The British Government being anxious to settle population on certain portions of the Australian continent held out inducements in the shape of liberal grants of land. Thomas Henty, attracted by the promise of a grant of 80,000 acres, made up his mind to emigrate to W.A. The eldest son, James, set out in 1829 in a well-found vessel for Swan River, but the country was found to be poor in quality and far below the descriptions received of V.D.L. The party therefore went on to Launceston. Not long afterwards Thomas Henty and several of his sons followed. By the time they reached V.D.L. the practice of giving free grants of land to the settlers had been stopped. In fact the orders from the Home Government on the subject passed the Hentys on the way out, and reached the colony before they landed. Their aim was to breed sheep and produce wool on a large scale. The head of the family had been the first to introduce the merino into the South of England. He brought some choice sheep out with him to V.D.L. To obtain scope for their operations the Hentys saw that they must look for land on the continent. At that time little was known of the southern portions of A. beyond the names of the capes and the harbours. The eldest son settled down in Launceston as a merchant, and the work of exploration was undertaken by Edward. In 1832 he went to W.A. to take a second look at the land which his brother had previously condemned, saw that it had been correctly described, and put back. In the course of the trip Port Lincoln, on the shore of Spencer's Gulf was visited, and a stay of two months made there, but the country did not prove attractive. Portland Bay was then often talked about in Launceston. It was the depôt of several parties of whalers. Edward Henty put into the bay and was struck with the advantages which the place offered for settlement. Other portions of the coast were examined but none pleased him so well as the locality first examined, so that in 1834 preparations were made for the occupation of the vacant territory. The *Thistle* was despatched from Launceston in October with Edward Henty on board, a number of men and thirty-three head of cattle. The vessel fell in with tempestuous weather, took thirty-four days to cross the narrow breadth of sea between Launceston and Portland Bay, and on the way sixteen head of cattle were lost. In spite of these disasters the party landed safely on 19th November

1834. The second vessel brought Francis Henty, who landed on the 14th December; and in course of time Stephen and Thomas followed. Sheep were fetched across from Tasmania, pastures occupied, houses erected, land cultivated, &c. Thus it came to pass that when Sir Thomas Mitchell the explorer found his way overland in 1836 from Sydney to the Murray, thence to the southern shore of the Australian continent, he lighted on a small but prosperous community at Portland Bay. The explorer could not believe his eyes when he got his first view of the place. The sheds erected by whalers under the cliffs were supposed to be grey rocks singularly like houses; but shortly afterwards the brig *Elizabeth* was detected at anchor in the harbour and the truth was fully realised. The Hentys had a good garden stocked with vegetables. A few days later five vessels lay at anchor in the bay, and from the verandah of Mr. Henty's house Sir Thomas Mitchell saw a whale caught, facts that he duly chronicled in his diary. Regular communication was kept up with Launceston. On the second trip of Francis Henty to Portland in a small cutter he was obliged by contrary winds to put into Port Phillip. He found Batman's party at Indented Heads, and transported them and their goods to the banks of the Yarra. Up to the advent of Sir Thomas Mitchell the Hentys had not ventured further than twenty miles inland with their flocks. The territory they occupied consequently was not remarkably rich; they grazed sheep and cattle and traded with the whalers. The accounts given by the explorer of the fertile districts in the interior induced them to extend their operations largely and push inland. The brothers took up large areas as pastoral tenants under the New South Wales Government in the valley of the Wannon. When Sir Thomas Mitchell got back to Sydney a party of surveyors was sent to lay out the town of Portland. The only settlement on the coast for some years besides Portland was Port Fairy, where some whalers lived. About 1840 the *Children*, a vessel bound from Launceston for South Australia and chartered by Mr. Bryan, a brother-in-law of the Hentys, was wrecked near Portland, and Edward Henty gave the shipwrecked passengers effective aid. Sixteen lives were lost. For some years Edward carried on business as a merchant in Portland. In 1845 he held two runs—Connell's 17,500 acres, and Muntham 57,300 acres—and gradually acquired possession of a large extent of freehold property. He owned upwards of 20,000 acres of the Muntham run. The Henty family bred the merino sheep with care, and the flocks grew largely in numbers. The quality of the wool was good, but the fleeces were light. In 1843 the prices of sheep fell very low all over Australia, and surplus stock became almost unsaleable. Edward Henty took to boiling down on the inland station, but found that it did not pay to cart tallow far, and removed the business to Portland. He was also an agriculturist on a large scale. On the inauguration of the constitution he was

elected without opposition to represent Normanby in the Legislative Assembly. At the general election of 1859 he was again returned without opposition; but at the general election of 1861 he was defeated. For many years after he lived in retirement, and devoted himself to the management of his affairs. He was a candidate for the Western Province but was defeated. The last time Edward Henty appeared in public was at the annual gathering of the old colonists in Melbourne in November 1877. He said that when he landed at Portland in 1834 a friend and four working-men were his companions, and there was then no white man nearer to them than Twofold Bay on the one side and King George's Sound on the other. In a small vessel belonging to his family, and engaged in bringing goods from Swan River, he prosecuted a survey all along the coast, and there was scarcely a bay from Cape Otway to W.A. that he had not been into. He had introduced the first sheep and cattle into the colony. They were counted by the score then but by the million now. It was wonderful to compare now with then, and to think that this almost miraculous advance in the progress and prosperity of the country had taken place within the life of one man. Like the rest of the family he was a man of active habits and steady energy, and from first to last upheld the honour and integrity of the name of Henty. In his capacity as first colonist he headed the address which the early settlers presented to the Duke of Edinburgh on his visit to V. in January 1868. For the last few years of his life Edward Henty resided in the suburbs of Melbourne. The head of the family, Thomas, died in V.D.L. in 1839.

HERBERT, ROBT. GEORGE WYNDHAM, was educated at Eton and Oxford and called to the English Bar in 1858; in 1859 he was appointed Colonial Secretary of Q., and was leader of the Assembly from 1860 to 1865. He then returned to England, and from 1868 to 1870 was Assistant Secretary to the Board of Trade, when he was appointed Assistant Under-Secretary of State for the colonies, which office he still holds.

HERSCHELL RANGE, a range of mountains in Victoria Land, W.A., between the Arrowsmith and Smith rivers, named after Sir John Herschell the celebrated astronomer.

HERVEY RANGE (Native name GOOBANG;) a range of mountains in N.S.W., in the district of Wellington, dividing the waters of the Bogan from those of the Macquarie River. It is named from the family name of the Earls of Bristol.

HIGINBOTHAM, GEORGE (1827—) jurist, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, afterwards studied at Lincoln's Inn and was called to the English Bar in 1853. The following year he came to Melbourne, where he contributed to the *Herald* and practised his profession. In 1856 he succeeded Edward Wilson as editor of the *Argus*, and conducted that journal for three years; he then returned to the bar. In 1861 he was elected

to the Legislative Assembly for Brighton, and voted as an independent member. At the next election he again stood for the same place but was defeated by Brodribb, who resigned his seat nine months afterwards, and Higinbotham was again elected. In the Assembly he opposed the third reading of the Land Act of 1862 and the Electoral Bill. On the defeat of the O'Shanassy Administration in 1863 he accepted the Attorney-Generalship under McCulloch. He became the most popular man in V. during the struggle between the Assembly and the Council in connection with the new tariff of 1865, the "tack," the Darling grant and the deadlock. He opposed the action of the Upper House all through that exciting time. When the second McCulloch Ministry was formed he refused to go back to the Law Office so long as V. was to be governed by instructions from Downing-street; but he consented to act as Vice-President of the Board of Land and Works without salary. At the general election of 1871 he was again defeated for Brighton by T. Bent. He took no part in politics until the next general election in 1874, when he was returned for Brunswick; but soon afterwards resigned his seat, being unable to agree with the Government, and being unwilling to vote against it. Higinbotham's abilities as a statesman are of the very highest order. He is a distinguished parliamentary orator; and as an advocate he stood in the front rank of his profession. His elevation to the Bench of the Supreme Court in 1880 gave universal satisfaction to the people of V.

HILL, W. K. (1826-1869) was ordained to the Wesleyan Ministry in 1847; and in 1850 sent as a missionary to Ceylon. He returned to England in 1853; in the same year came to Melbourne, where he arrived in February 1854; laboured in Geelong, Richmond, Sandhurst, Castlemaine and Melbourne. He was appointed Chaplain of the Pentridge Prison in 1869, and was murdered there by a prisoner named Ritson on the 14th May 1869 whilst in the act of visiting the man's cell to minister religious counsel and consolation.

HINDMARSH, SIR JOHN (1780-1859) first Governor of S.A., entered the Navy in 1793 as a volunteer on board the *Bellerophon*, seventy-four guns, in which ship he was employed for seven years and was indebted for his education to a learned paymaster (Mr. Neale) to whom through life he was much attached. Hindmarsh was present in Lord Howe's action of the glorious 1st June 1794 and also at the battle of the Nile, besides sharing as midshipman in most of Nelson's boat operations off Cadiz in 1797 and contributing in 1799 to the capture of the ports at Naples and Gacta. During the battle of the Nile he was for some time the only officer (though but a midshipman) left on the *Bellerophon's* quarter-deck, and being so at the time her formidable opponent *L'Orient* caught fire he ordered the cable to be cut and the spritsail to be set (the masts being disabled,) by which means his ship was wafted away

from close contact with her burning antagonist, when the latter blew up and sank. Captain Darby and the surviving officers felt that the brave youth had saved the ship from inevitable destruction, and they presented him with a sword in testimony of their admiration. In his conduct on that glorious day Hindmarsh had the honour of eliciting the public thanks of Lord Nelson. Although during that battle he received so severe a contusion as ultimately to lose the sight of an eye, yet to his honour it is recorded that nothing could induce him to leave his station. Accompanying Captain Darby in the *Spencer*, he shared in 1801 both in the action off Algeiras and in the victory gained by Sir J. Saumarez in the Gut of Gibraltar. The *Spencer* being paid off, Hindmarsh in 1803 joined the *Victory*, bearing Lord Nelson's flag, the hero on taking command having written to young Hindmarsh to join him, and in a few months he obtained his promotion as Lieutenant of the *Phoebe*. During more than two years Hindmarsh commanded the boats of that frigate at the capture of many of the enemy's vessels, and in one instance having stormed successfully some batteries near Toulon, he brought out a ship which had been lying under their protection. After participating in the battle of Trafalgar 1805, he contributed at its close to the preservation of two of the prizes, the *Swiftsure* and *Bahama*. Afterwards as First Lieutenant of the *Beagle* he was for a long time on the coast of France, and proved instrumental to the capture of many privateers. During the destruction of the French squadron in Aix Roads in 1809 the *Beagle*, with a degree of gallantry that procured her general admiration, took up a position between Her Majesty's ships and the enemy, and remained on the quarters of the *Aquilon* and the *Ville de Varsovie* until they successively struck their colours. She then followed the *Ocean* up the River Charente, and having moored across her stern continued in hot action with her for a period of five hours, when the turning of the tide compelled her to desist. After assisting at the reduction of Flushing, Hindmarsh was nominated First Lieutenant of the *Nisus*, Captain Philip Beaver, and ordered to the Isle of France, where he took command of a large detachment of boats belonging to the several ships engaged, stormed the coast batteries, and subjugated that island. The entire enterprise was planned and carried out by Hindmarsh. In 1811 he was at the fall of Java, to which he was signally instrumental; and in 1814 was promoted to the rank of Commander. His slow promotion after such distinguished services is accounted for by the fact that in those days the accounts of daring feats of bravery were scarcely recorded in the case of officers below the rank of captain, and it was not till after the British Government bestowed the war-medals that it was discovered that Hindmarsh was entitled to the war-medal with seven clasps for his distinguished services, being the greatest number, save in one instance, received by any officer

in the Navy. In 1830 he was placed in command of the *Scylla*, was advanced to post-rank the following year, and returned home. In 1836 Hindmarsh was appointed to the *Buffalo*, and founded the Province of S.A., of which he became the first Governor. In 1840 he was nominated to the Government of Heligoland, which after holding for nearly seventeen years he relinquished in 1857. During his service in that island he received many honours. Having been invested with the insignia of a Knight of Hanover from King William IV. in 1836, he received the honour of knighthood from Her Majesty in 1851, with the Good-service Pension, together with the war-medal and seven clasps already mentioned, having been engaged in seven great actions, besides in nearly 100 fights with the enemy. In 1856 he obtained the rank of Rear-Admiral. He was also presented with a gold goblet by King Frederick VI. of Denmark for his impartiality during the Sleswic-Holstein and Danish War. He died in 1859. Hindmarsh's short career as Governor of S.A. was rendered unpleasant to himself by the fact of a divided authority existing. The dual government by Governor and Resident Commissioner, as might have been expected, did not work well and grievous divisions soon occurred amongst the officials. After fourteen months term of office Hindmarsh was recalled, and was succeeded by Colonel Gawler, in whom the sole authority was vested, the services of Fisher as Resident Commissioner being dispensed with.

HINDMARSH LAKE, a lake of V., thirty miles in circumference into which the Wimmera River flows. It was discovered by Eyre in his unsuccessful attempt to continue Mitchell's track to S.A., and named in honour of Governor Hindmarsh.

HINDMARSH ISLAND in S.A. is a flat and swampy island lying in the S.W. corner of Lake Alexandrina and separated from the mainland by the Goolwa or lower Murray River. The sea mouth of the Murray lies to the S.E. of this island, and is connected with the lake by three passages known as the Goolwa, Holmes Creek and the Boundary Creek. On this island a brittle inflammable substance resembling resin in appearance was found some time ago in considerable quantities. It burns slowly with a clear flame and gives out a bituminous smell.

HOBART TOWN, the capital of T., and the seat of Government, is an extensive well laid out and neatly built town on the river Derwent, about twenty miles from its mouth, standing at the foot of a lofty mountain called Mount Wellington. Its distance from Cape Pillar is thirty-three miles, and from Tasmania Head thirty-seven miles. These two heads form the entrance to Storm Bay, and are thirty-six miles asunder. The place where Hobart Town stands might perhaps with more propriety be termed an arm or creek of the sea, it being of considerable width, the water salt, and possessing scarcely any characteristics of a

river until the town is passed. The cove or bay on the banks of which it stands affords one of the best and most secure anchorages in the world for any number of vessels and of any burthen. An amphitheatre of gently rising hills, beautifully clothed with trees and having Mount Wellington as the highest, defends it from the westerly winds and bounds the horizon on that quarter; while the magnificent estuary of the Derwent, with its boats and shipping and picturesque points of land along its winding banks, forming beautiful bays and lakes, skirts it on the E. The town itself stands upon gently rising ground and covers rather more than two square miles. Its present population is about 20,000. There are numerous public buildings, of which the Government House (a handsome palatial pile of the finest white freestone, on the banks of the Derwent) and Government offices, the Houses of Parliament, the Town-hall and Post-office are the largest. Churches and chapels are very numerous, numbering in all thirty-one, exclusive of the two cathedrals. Among the principal are St. David's Cathedral (Episcopal,) the original foundation of which was laid on 19th February 1817; Trinity Church, with a peal of eight bells; St. Mary's Cathedral (Roman Catholic,) St. Andrew's (Church of Scotland,) the Congregational Memorial Church, and the Wesleyan Centenary Chapel. Attached to the Town-hall is a public library well supplied with works in nearly every department of literature. At the head of the private schools stand the High school and the City school. The public charitable institutions are numerous. The town possesses five breweries two of which are on a very extensive scale; five flour-mills, six jam manufactories, numerous tanneries, and also a woollen factory. Dr. Bromby is the Church of England Bishop, and the Right Rev. D. Murphy the Roman Catholic Bishop. The city is under municipal government (incorporated 22nd December 1857) the corporation consisting of a mayor and nine aldermen. It is lighted with gas and plentifully supplied with water, conserved in a reservoir on the Sandy Bay Rivulet, which is capable of containing fifty million gallons. This Reservoir is supplied from springs in Mount Wellington. The Derwent is celebrated for its annual regatta, which attracts visitors from all the colonies and is the grand holiday of Hobart Town. The Queen's Domain, a spacious reserve of about 1000 acres, serves as a most efficient lung for the city. In the centre of the town stands a monument to the memory of Sir John Franklin, formerly Governor of T., around which is a pleasant garden provided with seats and sheltering trees. The site of Hobart Town was discovered by Hayes in 1798, and was explored by Flinders and Bass in the same year. On the 11th June 1803 the *Lady Nelson* was sent down from Sydney with a detachment of fifteen persons under the command of Lieutenant Bowen. They set up their rude huts at Risdon Cove, a place which had been named by Hayes. In February 1804 Collins and his party

having abandoned Port Phillip sailed to the Derwent where Bowen's settlement was. Collins selected a spot at Sullivan's Cove, ten miles from Risdon Cove, and named the new settlement Hobart Town in honour of Lord Hobart, Secretary of State. The history of Hobart Town is, in fact, the history of the settlement until the proclamation of the colony of T. in 1851. The first Post-office was established on 25th April 1809; in November 1811 Governor Macquarie visited the settlement; the first Supreme Court was held on 23rd January 1814; the first Government House was finished on 4th October 1817; gas was first used on 12th March 1857; the public Cemetery was opened on 22nd July 1872; and the Waterworks on 23rd February 1876.

HOBSON, WILLIAM, first Governor of N.Z., a Captain in the Royal Navy, was sent out by the Imperial Government in 1839 to establish British rule in the islands. The title given him was Consul, but with a Lieutenant-Governor's commission appended. He landed at the Bay of Islands in January 1840, and on 4th February convened a meeting of the native chiefs at a settlement called Waitangi ("the Weeping Waters,") and there concluded with them a treaty by which the sovereignty of N.Z. was ceded to Great Britain. The Treaty of Waitangi is the first historical event in the annals of the colony. He selected the site on which the city of Auckland now stands as the capital of the colony, and so it continued to be till 1865. Hobson held office until his death in September 1842. One of his first official acts was to disallow by proclamation the claims made by Wentworth, Busby, Baron de Thierry and others to immense areas of land alleged to have been purchased from the natives before N.Z. was declared a British settlement. As N.Z. was at first a dependency of N.S.W. Governor Gipps, who was strongly opposed to the claimants, framed and passed a bill in the N.S.W. Legislature declaring their claims invalid. Hobson had previous to his appointment made a survey of Port Phillip, and Hobson's Bay bears his name.

HOBSON'S BAY, the anchoring ground in Port Phillip, was surveyed by Captain Hobson of H.M.S. *Rattlesnake* in 1836 and was named after him by Sir Richard Bourke on his visit in 1837. Hobson also surveyed Corio Bay and published a chart of Port Phillip.

HOCKING, HENRY HICKS, Attorney-General of W.A., was educated at Oxford where he graduated B.A. in 1864 and B.C.L. in 1867. He was called to the English Bar in 1867 and joined the Home Circuit. In 1872 he was appointed Attorney-General of W.A.

HODGSON, SIR ARTHUR, came to N.S.W. in 1840 and settled at Darling Downs. Before the separation of Q. he represented Darling Downs in the N.S.W. Parliament. In 1856 he was appointed General Superintendent of the Australian Agricultural Company. In 1862 he represented Q. at

the London Exhibition. After the separation of Q. he represented the Warrego, and was Premier at the time of the Duke of Edinburgh's visit to the colony. In 1874 he returned to England and was knighted in 1878.

HOLDFAST BAY OR ROAD is a bight in the E. coast of St. Vincent's Gulf lying to the S. of the entrance to Port Adelaide, about thirty-three miles N.N.E. from Cape Jervis. The anchorage is off the town of Glenelg and about one and a-half miles from the shore in five or six fathoms clay, with Mount Lofty bearing E. by N. S.W. gales cause a very heavy sea in this roadstead, but as the holding ground is good ships may ride in perfect safety if provided with good anchors and cables. There is a green fixed light twenty-nine feet high on the end of the jetty at Glenelg, in this bay, which may be seen at a distance of six miles. The holding ground is clay of great consistency, and as the water shoals very gradually a vessel must drag her anchor up hill for two miles before she can sustain damage. About the middle of the bay lies an inlet or boat harbour on which is built the township of Glenelg.

HOLROYD, ARTHUR TODD (1806—) jurist, was educated at the Ripon Grammar School. In 1824 he commenced a medical career, and in 1827 entered himself at Cambridge to take a degree in Medicine and became a student at the University of Edinburgh. In 1830 he took his degree of M.D. at Edinburgh, and resided at Cambridge until 1831 when he commenced practice as a physician in London. In 1832 he graduated M.B. at Cambridge and was admitted a Licentiate of the College of Physicians, London. He afterwards joined an association of Physicians to obtain the same privileges for Scotch graduates as the English ones enjoyed, a select committee of the House of Commons having been appointed to inquire into the subject. Finding from these enquiries that the medical profession did not present the alluring prospects he expected, he relinquished it and entered at Lincoln's Inn to be called to the Bar. He resolved first to travel, and in June 1835 left England and wintered in Rome in order to master the Italian language; in September 1836 he arrived in Alexandria. He ascended the Nile to the second cataract, and then proceeded across the desert to Khartoom, up the Blue Nile to Sennaar, returned to Wad-Medinah and crossed the desert to the White Nile, whence he went in a south-westerly direction to Kordofan and then returned to Cairo. From information obtained in these travels regarding slave-hunting he was able to assist in suppressing the practice, and was successful in the first remonstrance made to the Egyptian Government on the subject. In July 1838 he travelled through Palestine and Syria and returned to London in November. Up to a recent date "Holroyd's tracks" were marked on African maps. He intended to publish his travels but could not agree with the booksellers. In 1841 he was called to the Bar, and came to N. Z. in 1843 where he

remained for two years; but on the outbreak at Kororarika he left and came to Sydney in 1845 and was admitted to the Bar. In 1851 he was elected member for Bathurst and Carcoar, but in 1858 was defeated. In 1860 he was elected for Parramatta, and was for some time Chairman of Committees. He was one of the Commissioners for laying out Hyde Park, and took an active part in the working of the first building societies in Sydney. He was Minister for Works in Sir James Martin's Ministry in 1863-4. In 1866 he was appointed Master-in-Equity, and in March 1879 Acting Supreme Court Judge. He has been a Fellow of the Zoological Society of London since its commencement in 1827, of the Linnean Society since 1829, and of the Royal Geographical Society since 1839.

HOLT, JOSEPH (1756-1826) better known as General Holt, the principal leader of the Irish Rebel Army of 1798, was a native of the county Wicklow. In 1782 he married, and for sixteen years lived a country life as a farmer, Overseer of Public Works and Deputy Billet-Master. In 1794 he distinguished himself by the capture of a notorious robber named Rogers. In 1798 being unable to obtain payment of a sum of money due to him and having threatened legal proceedings to recover it, his debtor obtained a party of the Fermanagh militia, a thing easily done in those troubled times, to arrest Holt as a rebel. Holt escaped but his house was burnt down and his family were turned out of doors. This drove him into the ranks of the rebels, where he was honourably distinguished not only by his ability as a leader but by his repression of plunder and the maintenance of discipline. General Moore offered to accept his surrender towards the end of the year, but he would not desert his men and the overture came to nothing. A man named Quin betrayed him and he and eight others were surrounded in Quin's house, but he escaped. On 10th November he surrendered. His life was spared but he was exiled to N.S.W. Here he became manager for W. Cox. In 1804 occurred a dangerous outbreak amongst the convicts, and they being partly composed of the Irish rebels and knowing he had been "out" in '98 wished him to join them, but he utterly refused to do so and made judicious arrangements for the defence of Cox's house. But his influence with the prisoners was known to be great and they declared that he was to have been their leader; this causing him to be suspected he was sent to Norfolk Island. He afterwards, about 1814, received a free pardon and returning to Ireland passed his latter years in respectability at Kingston near Dublin, where he died 16th May 1826.

HOPELESS MOUNT is a solitary hill lying a few miles to the S.E. of Blanchewater in S.A. This hill is peaked, and to it Eyre steered his way in 1840 through thirty-five miles of arid country. The view from its summit so sickened him of the surrounding country that he gave it

the name it bears and retraced his steps to Mount Arden where he had left most of his party.

HOPKINS RIVER, in V., rises near Mount Cole and falls into Lady Bay, having the town of Warrnambool on its banks. It was named after one of the earliest settlers on its banks.

HOTHAM, SIR CHARLES (1800-1855) second Governor of V., was descended from an ancient English family many members of which arrived at distinction. He was son of the Rev. Frederick Hotham prebendary of Rochester, and grandson of the second Lord Hotham Baron of the Court of Exchequer. He entered the navy in November 1818 and was present in a gallant engagement between the boats of the *Naïad* and a brig of war alongside the walls of the fortress of Bona, in which was a garrison of 400 soldiers who kept up a tremendous fire almost perpendicularly on the deck. In September 1825 he was made lieutenant in the *Revenge* flag ship of Sir Harry Burrard Neale of the Mediterranean station. He was next appointed in May 1826 to the *Medina* 20 guns, and in December 1827 first lieutenant of the *Terror* and *Meteor* bombs. He distinguished himself on the occasion of the wreck of the *Terror*, and in consequence he was promoted to the rank of commander in August 1828. After an interval on half-pay he was appointed to the *Cordelia* 10 guns, and returned to the Mediterranean; he returned home in October 1833, having been raised to the rank of post-captain in compliment to the memory of his uncle, Vice-Admiral Hon. Sir Henry Hotham K.C.B. He was appointed to the *Gorgon* steam sloop, stationed on the coast of South America, in November 1842. In November 1845 in conjunction with several British ships and a small French force under Captain Tréhouart, Hotham ascended the Parana and engaged with four heavy batteries belonging to General Rosas which he succeeded in demolishing, he also destroyed a schooner of war and twenty-four vessels chained across the river. He landed towards the close of the action with 180 seamen and 150 marines, and attacked and defeated the forces of General Rosas, which were said to have amounted to nearly 3000 men. In acknowledgment of his zeal and ability he was in March 1846 nominated a K.C.B. Mackinnon in his work, *Steam Warfare in the Parana*, published in 1848, says in reference to the brilliant affair on that river, "The great secret of the success which crowned almost every effort, with one miserable exception, was due firstly to the excellent arrangements which by the powers of steam were so perfectly and expeditiously carried out, and secondly to the admirable nature of the ordnance and the skilful application of its various branches. Where the leader is of great ability and possesses the confidence of those under his command, coupled with such *matériel* and *personnel* as Sir Charles Hotham had under his control, it is not surprising that everything succeeded admirably." Sir William Gore Ouseley, her Majesty's Minister Plenipotentiary

to the States of La Plata, in his account of the action says, "It was not believed that any serious objection would be made to the advance of the blockading flotilla. However, when the fire had been opened by the Buenos Ayreans at Obligado, it became of course necessary to return it and the result was the general engagement that ensued. When it is recollected that the scale on which the defences had been prepared was quite unexpected and that the Buenos Ayrean force employed was much greater than was anticipated (amounting to about 4000 men) while the nature of the other obstacles to be encountered was previously unknown, it will be evident that the skill and experience of the able officer who commanded the squadron were put to a severe test and that it required his well-concerted arrangements in the plans of attack and the gallantry displayed in carrying them into effect to obtain the successful result that added to the high professional reputation of Sir Charles Hotham, already too well known to require any tribute here." He was afterwards in 1845-6 sent in conjunction with Baron Defandis on a mission to Paraguay, and the manner in which he discharged that important trust recommended him to Her Majesty's Government. In April 1852 he was appointed Minister Plenipotentiary to proceed in company with M. L. de St. George on a joint special mission to Brazil and the Republics of the River Plata, for the purpose of promoting peace between them, and more especially for the opening up of the trade and navigation of the noble arteries of that river. He succeeded in negotiating the treaty, and the ability and perseverance he displayed on this occasion induced Her Majesty to appoint him to the Governorship of Victoria in succession to La Trobe. The Imperial Government had intended to despatch a ship of war with the new Governor, but the Russian dispute interfered with this arrangement, and he was under the necessity of taking his passage in the *Queen of the South*. This vessel, with Sir Charles and Lady Hotham on board entered Hobson's Bay on 21st June 1854, accompanied by Captain Kaye as private secretary to His Excellency. The moment the vessel was signalled the Mayor of Melbourne proceeded on board and informed His Excellency of the preparations made to receive him. The following morning Sir Charles landed on the Sandridge pier, where he was received by the principal officials, and welcomed by the whole of the public bodies of the colony, which had turned out for the occasion. The procession extended from Sandridge nearly to Prince's bridge; the road was lined with spectators who cheered the newly-arrived Governor and his Lady most heartily. A triumphal arch erected on the bridge bore the words, "Victoria welcomes Victoria's choice!" worked in blue letters on a white ground. On reaching the Government offices Sir Charles was officially installed; the proclamation and letters patent of Her Majesty, signed by the Duke

of Newcastle, were read, and His Excellency made the official proclamation of having assumed the government of the colony. Acting apparently on the impulse of the moment, the Governor addressed a few words to the people, stating "that in his administration of the government of Victoria he would look neither to the right hand nor to the left." From the Government offices Sir Charles and Lady Hotham proceeded to the vice-regal residence at Toorak, a beautiful villa on the south bank of the Yarra which had belonged to James Jackson, a deceased merchant, but rented by the Executive and fitted up for his Excellency's reception at an extravagant cost. On the following day he visited some of the public offices, and finding some of the officials idle about eleven o'clock in the forenoon he expressed his dissatisfaction. The people began to regard their new Governor as a rigid disciplinarian, while the public officials were rather uneasy and discontented. The first official levee, held on 1st July, the third anniversary of Separation, was numerously attended by gentlemen from all parts of the colony, and the greetings exchanged between the Governor and the Victorians were very cordial. It was evident that Hotham had determined on making himself extremely popular. His arrival marked a new and brighter era in the history of the colony. La Trobe had belonged to the "olden times" and had never occupied the position nor acquired the weight in the eyes of the people which the representative of the Crown ought to possess. He had risen from an humble position and had merely by accident been placed in the important office he occupied. Hotham had distinguished himself and was connected with the best families in the parent state; he was thus enabled to commence his career under very favourable circumstances, and the good feeling towards him was unbounded and was exhibited by every class of the people. He visited the diggings and the more important townships throughout the colony, and everywhere his progress partook of the character of an ovation. The old colonists were under the impression that Hotham was an experienced and cautious man who would exhibit profound sagacity in administering the business of the colony. They were much surprised when he commenced his career in V. by a public profession of democratic principles, and distrust of him soon became general amongst that class. The truth is even an experienced Governor would have had a task of no ordinary difficulty to encounter on assuming the reins of power at this time, and it is not to be wondered at that Hotham, who was utterly inexperienced in conducting a responsible administration, should have failed. His want of experience might have been supplied by his Executive Council, but they were not his cordial supporters and rendered him but little assistance. He found the whole of the affairs of the Government in a state of fearful disorder. He endeavoured to introduce some necessary reforms, and the

officials were all afraid of his stumbling on abuses which might get them into trouble. In this juncture he visited the country districts, where he replied to the popular sympathy which was so generally expressed by warm and generous responses, not anticipating that these would be reported and read in their literal sense. At a public dinner held on 16th August at Geelong His Excellency in the course of a speech said :—"The people of this colony have adopted one of the most liberal constitutions compatible with monarchy that the people could have ; it is a constitution of your own choosing, formed by your own representatives, lauded by the press and admired by many enlightened statesmen. When you adopted that constitution you adopted with it the principle from which it springs, that all power proceeds from the people. It is on that principle I intend to conduct my administration. In the present day a Government cannot be conducted with satisfaction to the people without the fullest and freest communication with the people." This language naturally alarmed the holders of property and deepened their distrust. From his responsible advisers the Governor received neither advice nor sympathy. They saw he was a martinet in discipline, and they dreaded his inquisition into the gross abuses which were rife in all the public departments, especially the Treasury. A strong feeling of mutual dislike at once sprung up between him and Foster the Chief Secretary, which prevented any friendly mutual consultation between them. There was an enormous deficit in the revenue, and the Treasurer could give no satisfactory account of how it had arisen. Hotham set to work like a man who feared neither risk nor toil. He discovered that he had been called to a sphere where much difficulty and trouble was inevitable if he did his duty, and he resolved on doing what was right both to the people of the colony and to his Sovereign, and to reform existing abuses regardless of his own ease and comfort. But wanting experience, and destitute of efficient aid and counsel, it was impossible for him to govern wisely. The crisis came at length in the revolt of the gold diggers at Ballarat, the narrative of which event is given under the article "BALLARAT RIOTS." Hotham's conduct throughout the whole course of this episode in Victorian history was marked by an extraordinary mixture of rashness and indecision, of arbitrary rule and weak concession. Having mixed but little with general society he formed too low an estimate of the character, attainments and respectability of those who formed the community. His position prevented him from appreciating the feelings of the great body of the colonists ; for notwithstanding his popular professions he was distant in his manners and inaccessible to the public. He was besides very badly advised. Nothing could be more impolitic than his attempt to suppress the Ballarat revolt by force of arms, excepting his subsequent futile attempt to convict some of the rioters of the capital offence of high treason.

These most foolish and unconsidered official acts ruined Hotham's reputation as a Governor—gained him the dislike, rising to hatred, of the mass of the people : destroyed his peace and ultimately cost him his life. It was in vain that, when he at length discovered what fatal blunders he had made, he fell back on constitutional expedients and endeavoured to remedy the mischief that had been done. It was too late. Even the forced resignation of Foster and the appointment of a Royal Commission to inquire into the grievances of the miners with a view to their extinction were ineffectual to restore public confidence. His selection of Haines as a successor to Foster was a judicious step. From this time till his death Hotham endeavoured to govern on constitutional principles, and the colony once more became tranquil and prosperous. On 18th December 1855 Nicholson carried in the Legislative Assembly against the Haines Government his resolution for establishing vote by ballot ; and the difficulties which then ensued in the formation of a new Administration preyed deeply on Hotham's mind. On the morning of the 22nd December he was seized with a choleraic affection which intensified by mental disquietude terminated fatally on the last day of the year. McCombie's estimate of Hotham's character is judicially impartial : "His Excellency's demise was sudden and unexpected ; indeed the people had not heard of his illness before his death was announced. Mental anxiety and disappointment accelerated his death. He was a high-spirited officer who had been accustomed to success, and who had he been sent to the Crimea as had been intended would most probably have nobly distinguished himself ; but who unfortunately misunderstood his position as Governor of Victoria. He desired to follow the example of Lord Metcalf, but he had neither his long experience nor his great abilities ; like him he treated his ministers with spirit and determined to stand out for prerogative, but he had not his steady temper and unflinching self-reliance. His manner also was unfortunately stiff, formal and distant with such public men as came into contact with him ; unlike Lord Metcalf who was gifted with so sweet a temper that he was beloved by his greatest political opponents. As he had neither sufficient experience nor ability to govern the colony and would not submit to the misgovernment which he found in operation, he wasted his health and spirits in vain attempts to grapple with what was beyond his reach, yet had he lived to see constitutional government fairly introduced and been practically convinced of the worthlessness of some of his opinions he would have made a very good Governor. No one can deny to him the credit of having been thoroughly honest and anxious to discharge all his duties with activity and zeal. There was no intentional error which could be laid to his charge. He went down to the grave with his fame unsullied ; the mistake was clearly to be laid at the door of the imperial authorities who

sent a first-rate naval officer, not to Sebastopol where he was required, but to Victoria where he was not wanted, and where a thoroughly-trained and experienced statesman was really urgently needed to bring into operation responsible Government and to nip incipient rebellion in the bud. The Legislative Council voted £1500 towards defraying the expense of his burial and erecting a monument to his memory. The funeral was attended by all the officials and public bodies belonging to the colony who were able to attend; indeed nothing was wanting on the part of the colonists in performing the last sad rites to their deceased Governor who was regarded by not a few as a martyr in the cause of the colony."

HOUTMAN'S ABROLHOS, a group of islands situated on the N.W. coast of the continent. They form three groups, Pelsart group being separated from Easter group by a channel four miles wide, and the passage between the latter and the northern group is six miles wide. The Abrolhos extend forty-eight miles, the greatest width of Easter and Pelsart groups being twelve miles. They derived their name from Frederick Houtman of Alkmaar, who commanded a fleet of Dutch East Indiamen in 1618. On the 4th of June 1629 Francis Pelsart a Dutch commodore was wrecked upon the Abrolhos. He appears to have been the first Dutchman who ever set foot upon the continent of Australia.

HOVELL, WILLIAM HILTON (1786-1876) explorer, a native of Varmouth in England, was brought up to maritime pursuits, and in 1813 arrived in Sydney with his family. For six years he employed himself in trading along the coast and to N.Z. and in 1819 settled down on a farm at Narellan, N.S.W. Thence he made several excursions, and on one occasion travelled from Ulladulla to Shoalhaven. In 1824 he accompanied Hamilton Hume in his overland journey of exploration to Port Phillip. In 1826 he was one of the party who formed a settlement at Western Port, V., and in 1829 he took up his residence at Goulburn N.S.W. He died in Sydney in 1876.

HOWE, GEORGE, journalist. One of the first acts of Governor Hunter after assuming the Government of N.S.W. was establishing a small printing office. The press and types had been brought out originally by Governor Phillip, but had never been used for want of a printer. A printer was at last found in a young man named Howe, a native of the West Indies, who arrived in the colony in 1800. He was the father of the Australian press. He published the first number of the *Sydney Gazette* and *N.S.W. Advertiser* on 5th May 1803, receiving for it a salary of £60 per annum from the Government. Howe died in May 1821.

HOWE, MICHAEL, a notorious leader of a gang of bushrangers in V.D.L. in 1817. After surrendering to the Lieutenant-Governor on an assurance of present safety and a recommendation

in his favour to Governor Macquarie, suspecting he had been entrapped, Howe made his escape from the gaol at Hobart Town and attempted to leave in a ship for America. Foiled in this effort he returned to his former desperate courses and was apprehended a second time and secured; but by means of a knife which he had managed to conceal he stabbed both the men who were guarding him, and again took to the bush, where he subsisted for some time with much difficulty on account of the loss of his fire arms and the detestation with which he had come to be regarded in consequence of his atrocious crimes. Driven at length to enter a hut with the hope of obtaining arms and ammunition, he encountered a soldier and another man who were lying in wait for him. They fell upon him at once, and after a desperate struggle killed him on the spot.

HOWICK'S GROUP consists of ten or eleven islands off the N.E. coast of the continent, and were named by King in honour of Lord Howick, eldest son of Earl Grey.

HOWITT, ALFRED WILLIAM, explorer, a son of William Howitt, the distinguished English author, came to V. while still a youth and engaged in squatting pursuits. He gained a reputation as a fearless and energetic bushman; and when the relief party to send in quest of the Burke and Wills expedition was projected in 1861 Howitt was chosen leader. Near Swan Hill he met Brahe returning with the intelligence that Burke had not returned to the dépôt. Howitt was re-inforced and sent forward. This party consisted of E. J. Welch, surveyor, Wheeler, Brahe, Atkins, and two others. He crossed the Darling near Wilcannia, and directing his course towards the Stokes Ranges (reached and named by Sturt in 1845) passed M'Adam Range, Wilkie's Creek, Mount Shillinglaw, M'Leay's Plains and finally the dépôt at Fort Wills on Cooper's Creek on 8th September. On the 16th the party found King the survivor; two days after they buried the remains of Wills, and on the 21st those of Burke. Carrier pigeons brought from Menindie were despatched with intelligence, but they never reached home. The relief party with King returned to Melbourne on 28th November 1861. It having been determined that the remains of Burke and Wills should be brought to Melbourne, Howitt was again sent to Cooper's Creek. His party consisted of E. J. Welch, Dr. J. P. Murray, Phillips, Aitken, Burrell, Galbraith, Williams, Short and four others. They left Melbourne on 9th December 1861; reached Port Wills on 18th February 1862 after making several excursions in various directions, and discovering Bateman's, Burrell's, Phillips, O'Donnell's, and Williams' Creeks and Lake Short. Howitt finally left Cooper's Creek in October 1862 for Adelaide. The remains of Burke and Wills arrived in Adelaide on 11th December, and in Melbourne on 28th December 1862. Howitt, for these and other services, was appointed Police Magistrate of V., and stationed in Gippsland.

He has made a profound study of the ethnology and characteristics of the natives of Australia; and in 1880 published a work, in conjunction with the Rev. L. Fison, on the marriage customs of two noted tribes.

HUME, HAMILTON (1797-1873) explorer, deserves to be ranked amongst the great explorers of the continent. He was a native of N.S.W., born in 1797 at Parramatta. He was a young man of great daring and energy and an excellent bushman. In 1817 when only twenty years of age he discovered Lake Bathurst. Seven years later in conjunction with Captain Hovell, a man of great intelligence and enterprise, he planned an expedition to the south for the purpose of discovering if any large rivers fell into the sea in that direction. The outfit of the explorers was of a very cheap and unpretending description. The Government supplied six pack-saddles, some slops and blankets, six muskets, a tent and a tarpaulin, to be returned at the termination of the journey. The provisions and all other appliances were provided by the leaders and their friends. The party, inclusive of Hume and Hovell, consisted of eight persons. They set out from Hume's farm near Appin, on 2nd October 1824, and in eleven days reached the then most distant out-station towards the south-west, about 165 miles from Sydney. On the 19th having passed Yass Plains they reached the banks of the Murrumbidgee River and encountered their first difficulty in attempting to cross it. The timber growing on its banks was too heavy to float, and they were thus prevented from using it to make a raft. They therefore determined to attempt to make a boat of the body of one of their carts, which they stripped of its axle, wheels, and shafts, and securely covered with a tarpaulin; it was thus readily converted into a tolerably good boat. Hume with one of the men undertook the dangerous enterprise of swimming across the river, taking with them a small line which they carried between their teeth, and to the middle of which was attached a line of sufficient length to reach across the stream. One of the ends of the tow-rope was conveyed across the river by means of the line. The roughness of the weather made this undertaking hazardous. Leaving the banks of this fine river they crossed high limestone ranges, and on 24th their course was obstructed by a mountain barrier. On 6th November they came in sight of the mountains afterwards designated the Australian Alps. Hume and Hovell having ascended the side of a range were surprised by the height and grandeur of the mountains. They perceived that their progress in the direction of the Alps would be impracticable, or attended with considerable danger, and they at once decided on proceeding fifty or sixty miles west. Continuing their journey through a difficult but richly grassed country, on 16th November they arrived suddenly on the banks of a beautiful river 240 feet in breadth, with a current of about three miles an hour and the water clear. They named it the

Hume. Although this river is now called the Murray throughout its whole course, the proper name of the portion above the junction of the Murrumbidgee is the Hume. Near the spot where the explorers first struck the stream Hovell carved his name in the solid wood of a large tree; "Hovell, Novr. 17, 1824." Eleven years afterwards this tree was found by the first party taking cattle overland to Port Phillip; and the tree still stands in a sound condition. It is situated near the crossing place at Albury. It has been fenced round in order to preserve it as a historical landmark; and a monument to Hume with a suitable inscription is placed near it. On the 21st they arrived at another river, probably a branch of the Hume. On the 24th they reached another river, the eighth which they had discovered and crossed. This river was named the Ovens in compliment to the Governor's private secretary, Major Ovens. After crossing many small streams they arrived on 3rd December at another fine river. This was named the Goulburn, after the Secretary of State for the colonies. The party were now beginning to suffer from want of food. Uncertain of their route it at length became impossible to proceed, after having penetrated four miles into a dreadful scrub. They named the place from which they were driven back Mount Disappointment. On 14th December, from the summit of a hill which they named Mount Bland, they obtained a view of extensive plains which they named Bland Plains, after Dr. Bland of Sydney. On 6th January they fell in with an interesting tribe of natives. Their journey homewards was rather slow in consequence of the exhausted condition of both men and beasts. They were rewarded by grants of land, twelve hundred acres each. Subsequently Hovell effected a settlement at Western Port. Hume accompanied Sturt in his expedition of 1828. Hume and his brother in 1814 had made their way through the mountains and discovered the country around their residence—Bong-bong and Berrima. Two or three years afterwards, in company with Mr. Meehan one of the Government surveyors, Hume opened up the Goulburn Plains and the country adjacent. Some difference of opinion having occurred as to the precedence of Hume or Hovell in the exploration of 1826, he published in 1855 "A Brief Statement of Facts in connection with an Overland Expedition from Lake George to Port Phillip in 1824." A township, a river and an electoral district were named after him, also a beautiful bridge erected over the Yass. He was elected Fellow of the Royal Geographical Society on the recommendation of two of its council. He died at Yass on 19th April 1873, aged seventy-six.

HUME RIVER, that portion of the Murray River above the junction of the Murrumbidgee River, named after Hume its discoverer in 1824. It is now called the Murray.

HUNTER, CAPTAIN JOHN, navigator and second Governor of N.S.W., arrived in Sydney on 7th September 1795. He had originally come out

as captain of the *Sirius* frigate in the first fleet and had gone to England in 1791 with despatches to the Home Government. In 1793 he published in London "An Historical Account of Transactions at Port Jackson." On Phillips relinquishing the charge of the settlement Hunter had been chosen to succeed him, and probably no better choice could have been made than that of a man who had taken a prominent part in founding the colony, and who felt a personal interest in its success. His arrival was hailed with joy by all the inhabitants of the settlement, excepting the military officers and their friends, whose iron rule and crushing monopoly had made them exceedingly unpopular with the rest of the community. One of the first acts of Hunter after assuming the Government was establishing a small printing office. A printer was at last found in George Howe. The press was at first employed in printing official notices only, but in course of time the office was extended and about eight years afterwards the *Sydney Gazette* was established. In 1796 Hunter made an expedition along the course of the Nepean River and discovered Mount Hunter and the country adjoining. In 1797 there was great distress in the colony. This sad condition of things appears to have acquired its greatest intensity under Hunter, who although a man of the greatest kindness of heart and of the highest honour and integrity, seems to have been thwarted or very easily hoodwinked by the adroit schemers by whom he was surrounded. His unsuspicious nature and easiness of disposition were frequently taken advantage of by designing persons. He issued repeated orders and used all his influence to suppress the gross impositions practised on the mass of the community by the privileged few, but his efforts were generally fruitless, and things went from bad to worse until they became almost intolerable. Hunter embarked for England on 28th September 1800. His departure was attended with every mark of respect and regret. The road to the wharf was lined with troops, and he was accompanied by the officers of the civil and military departments, with a concourse of inhabitants who showed by their deportment the high sense they entertained of the regard he had ever paid to their interests, and the justice and humanity of his government. Lang, speaking of Hunter's conduct as a ruler and his character as a man, says:—"The second Governor of N.S.W. was John Hunter, post-captain in the Royal Navy. Hunter was a native of Scotland and had been appointed in virtue of a special order in Council second captain of the *Sirius* frigate in 1787; Captain Phillip having the temporary command of that vessel during the voyage to N.S.W. as well as the general command of the expedition for the establishment of the colony. In this capacity Hunter had made great exertions and undergone great privations; and the experience he had thus acquired was calculated to qualify him for the more important duty with which he was afterwards

entrusted. During his government the first free settlers who emigrated to N.S.W. in pursuance of Governor Phillip's recommendations arrived in the territory; and one of their number, a Scotchman from the neighbourhood of Edinburgh, whose sons are now substantial landholders in different parts of the territory, has told me that the Governor went with him in person to superintend the measurement of his land, and to ascertain in what way he could promote his settlement and render it as comfortable as possible. Indeed Governor Hunter appears to have been a man of sound judgment, of strictly virtuous principles, and of warm benevolence; and had he not been counteracted by the influences and the practices I have already described the colony would have prospered greatly under his administration, and profligacy would have hidden her head and been ashamed."

HUNTER RIVER, in N.S.W. (called by the natives Coquon) was discovered and named in honour of Governor Hunter by Shortland in September 1797. It is situated about seventy miles to the northward of Port Jackson, and disembogues into Port Hunter at the harbour of Newcastle, so called on the account of the coal mines in its neighbourhood. It has its rise from several streams on the Liverpool Range, and runs in a southerly and easterly direction for upwards of 200 miles from the ranges of the interior to the Pacific Ocean. It is navigable only for about twenty-five miles in a direct line, or about thirty-five miles by water from the coast. At the distance of about twenty miles by water from Newcastle it receives another river of considerable magnitude from the northward called the Williams River, and at the head of navigation, or about thirty-five miles by water from Newcastle, it receives a second river, the Patterson, each of which is navigable for a considerable distance greater than the principal stream or main river. In consequence of the fertility of the soil along these rivers, and the extent of water communication which exists, these districts are the finest in the colony.

HUNTER ISLAND (or **BARREN ISLAND**;) This island well deserves its second name, for it is perfectly treeless. A green kind of scrub overruns its surface, and its highest point is 300 feet above the level of the sea. It is in form like a closed hand with the forefinger extended, and is situated in Bass Straits, near the N.W. point of T.

HUON RIVER, a river of T. falling into D'Entrecasteaux Channel about thirty miles below Hobart Town. It was named by D'Entrecasteaux after its discoverer Huon Kermadec his companion in 1792. A road from Hobart Town leads to the village of Victoria on the Huon amidst beautiful scenery. There is some agricultural settlements along the banks on both sides. A local guide book thus describes the scenery—"If our excursion be made in summer pleasant is it to dip again under the mighty colonnade of lofty trees and enjoy the

coolness and indescribable beauty of the uncleared forest. Looking down from the road the eye luxuriates in a wide expanse of loveliest verdure. Countless fern trees form an undulating mass of graceful feathery crowns with here and there an unusually lofty stem rising above the rest lifting its dome of foliage as if in pride of pre-eminent beauty, whilst spires of shining sassafras shoot up in exquisite groups and the towering eucalypti overtop the whole. In the spring the Clematis often enfolds old trees as with a bridal robe of snowy flowers, the Comesperma clusters and tangles over the brake ferns looking at a distance as though a mantle of azure silk had been dropped upon them; pyramidal daisy trees gleam forth in a constellation of stars, the yellow Goodenia, the ever-lovely tea-tree, Epacridæ of every tint from white to crimson, Pimeleas, Correas and countless other flowering shrubs fringe the path by turns, whilst ferns, mosses and lichens of wondrous beauty lurk in every dim green dell to delight the explorer. Suddenly at a turn in the winding terrace-road a grand cascade bursts on the view, pouring down a gorge of black craggy rocks in one impetuous foaming torrent which passes beneath the road and plunges into the depths of a ravine beyond. The ebony-hued rocks, the volume of gleaming water flinging off here and there sprays and threads of burnished silver as it rushes and roars down the almost precipitous chasm, and the grand sombre forest scene around, ought to tempt some worthy pencil to portray their glories. The low flats beside the river are almost wholly covered with orchards which form a rich varied scene when in full blossom with here and there a roof or chimney peering out amidst great pear trees veiled in flower snow; apple bloom pink-blushing and profuse as Devon or Herefordshire could display; gigantic weeping willows and hedges of hawthorn dipping fragrant wreaths into the running river—reviving recollections of English paradises—would be succeeded by hanging gardens of native shrubs. The Tasmanian laurel in its peerless beauty of pearly cluster and emerald leaf; the singular and striking white grass tree; acacias whose name is legion lavish of golden fringe and dainteous perfume; glowing epacridæ with all the countless crowd of treasures that love to dwell by the river's rim,—add a multitude of exquisite touches to the loveliness of the scene. One real Huon pine after long keen search amongst the varied foliage rewarded our perseverance by appearing, and was the only specimen we saw. The growth and bright green foliage resemble those of the Oyster Bay pine more than any other indigenous tree. The forests whence the grand trunks come which are so important in commerce are far away among the steep mountain gorges, a *terra incognita* to the ordinary traveller." The Huon pine is of great value as a timber for ornamental furniture, and immense quantities of it are cut and exported. Finetimber for shipbuilding purposes also abounds. The forest-trees are of gigantic size, some of them

measuring ninety feet in circumference. At the mouth of the Huon is a pretty island of about 300 acres called Huon Island, and on the northern side of the river five miles from the entrance there is a beautiful bay named by the French discoverers the Port of Swans.

HURDSPIC, a station in the district of Wellington N.S.W., was named by Oxley after Captain Hurd, Hydrographer to the Admiralty.

HUTT, a river in W.A., situated in Victoria Land. This river rises in the Victoria Range and flows into the sea near Mount Naturaliste. It was named after Governor Hutt, and discovered by Grey in 1839.

I.

ILLAWARRA, a beautiful fertile and romantic district in N.S.W., commencing at the Coal Cliff about thirty miles N. of Sydney, and consisting of a belt of land lying between the coast ranges and the ocean and extending southwards for a distance of about sixty miles to Shoalhaven. It is of exuberant fertility and thickly populated, being the principal district for supplying Sydney with dairy produce of about £600,000 sterling yearly value. The geological formation is that of the coal measures with several areas of intrusive sub-aqueous volcanic rocks, many seams of coal of commercial value, all above water-level from five to twenty-five feet in thickness, are seen cropping out of the mountain sides; the top one only is at present worked at Wollongong, Bulli, and Coal Cliff by adits driven in on the seam of coal, which is of very superior quality for use of steam shipping and smelting purposes. At Mount Kembla about five miles from Wollongong, a seam of kerosene shale is also worked. Lime-stone, fire-clays and rich iron ores are abundant. The chief towns and seaports are Wollongong, Kiama, Cliff-town and Bulli. There is a beautiful and picturesque lake of the same name in the district.

IMLAY, GEORGE, ALEXANDER & PETER, three brothers who explored and took up country in the Twofold Bay district, N.S.W., about the year 1825. They gradually erected stations for their cattle at Pambula, Candelo and Bega. In December 1846 one of the brothers, Dr. George Imlay R.N., accidentally shot himself dead when hunting in the neighbourhood of the station. The second brother, Dr. Alexander Imlay of the Army Medical Staff in Sydney, died in March 1847 in his forty-seventh year. Peter Imlay is the sole surviving brother.

IMLAY, MOUNT, a mountain of N.S.W. near Twofold Bay, was named after the Imlays, who first explored the adjacent country. It is about 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and can be seen in clear weather twenty leagues out at sea. It affords a good land-mark, more especially as a guide to Twofold Bay.

INDENTED HEAD, the Eastern corner of Corio Bay in V., was discovered and named by Flinders in 1802.

INDIAN HEAD, on the E. coast of the continent, was named by Cook from his having perceived upon this black bluff a great number of natives assembled.

INNES, FREDERICK MAITLAND (1816—) came to V.D.L. in 1833 and first entered the Tasmanian Parliament at the inauguration of free institutions in the end of 1856. The following year the first Ministry was displaced and Innes took office as Colonial Treasurer, and also for a short period filled the position of Colonial Secretary in the administration of Sir Francis Smith until 1862. On becoming Colonial Secretary Innes entered the Legislative Council where he sat until November 1871, when he was called upon to form an administration. Taking the office of Treasurer he returned to the Assembly. Whilst a member of the Council he was for some years Chairman of Committees and for the last five years President of that branch of the Legislature. He was instrumental in passing several measures of importance. The chief of these was the giving to municipal and local bodies an extended franchise, control of police and the extension of the principle of local self-government generally. Innes had to contend with the depression of commercial, agricultural and other interests in T. He took office and held it during a period of very serious difficulty.

INNES, JOSEPH GEORGE LONG (1834—) a native of Sydney, was called to the English Bar in 1859 and admitted to the Bar of N.S.W. in 1862. In 1865 he was appointed District Judge in Q. but resigned in 1869 to return to practice in Sydney. He was elected to the Assembly in 1872; made Solicitor-General the same year, and in 1873 Attorney-General, which office he held until 1875. He was called to the Upper House in 1872. In 1874 he accompanied Sir Hercules Robinson on his special mission to Fiji and was knighted for his services on that occasion. Since 1875 he has been Chairman of Committees of the Legislative Council.

INSPECTION HILL, a mountain situated at the southern extremity of Sweers Island in the Gulf of Carpentaria; it is 104 feet above the level of the sea, and is the most remarkable feature hereabouts. From Mount Inspection, the highest land in the neighbourhood, a glimpse can be obtained of the mainland bearing S. 17° W. above eighteen miles. This hill is a mass of calcareous rock similar to the high parts of Bountiful Island.

INVERCARGILL, the capital of the province of Southland N.Z., is situated at the mouth of the New River about twenty miles N.W. of the Bluff, with which it is connected by railway. It is about 150 miles S.W. from Port Chalmers by sea. The population is about 4000. Large quantities of wool and grain are produced, and are shipped

direct from the Bluff to London and Melbourne. The extensive forests around the town give an immense trade in shipping timber to less-favoured localities. Nearly twelve million feet are sawn annually. Another feature of the trade is the export of preserved meats from the works at Woodlands. The district is principally taken up for pastoral purposes; but within a radius of thirty miles of the coast agricultural operations are successfully carried on by a large number of settlers. The soil generally is very productive, the climate equable and suitable for the growth of all products common to Britain.

INVESTIGATOR GROUP is a group of islands lying off the S.E. head of Anxious Bay S.A., on the W. part of the coast. It was so called by Flinders from the *Investigator* having anchored to the N. of it in 1802. It comprises Flinders Island, Topgallant Isles (3,) Ward Islands (2,) Pearson Islands (6,) and Waldegrave Islands (2.)

INVESTIGATOR STRAIT, formed by Kangaroo Island with the southern part of Yorke's Peninsula S.A., is upwards of seventeen leagues in length, and averages about twenty-three miles in breadth, with the exception of Althorpe Isles, and a shoal flat that extends four or five miles off a very low point to the westward of Troubridge Hill. This strait is free from dangers, and of an ample depth of water. "From forty-five fathoms in the middle of the western entrance the depth diminishes quickly to twenty-five, then more slowly to twenty; after which it is irregular between twelve and twenty fathoms, as far as the mouth of the Gulf of St. Vincent. Of the two sides that of Kangaroo Island is much the deepest, but there is no danger in any part to prevent a ship passing through the strait with perfect confidence. The bottom is mostly broken shells, mixed with sand, gravel, or coral, and appears to hold well." Since Flinders wrote thus in 1802, the safe navigation of the strait has been much facilitated by the establishment of lights on Cape Borda and on Troubridge Shoals. This strait is so called after the ship in which Flinders performed his voyage of discovery on the S. coast.

INVESTIGATOR ROAD lies between Sweer's and Bentinck's Islands, in the Gulf of Carpentaria N.A. It is the only anchorage for vessels at the head of the Gulf in the monsoons. This road is four miles in length by one in breadth, with a depth of from four to six fathoms.

IPSWICH, the second town of importance in Q., situated on the Bremer River, twenty-three miles W. from Brisbane, with which it is connected by a railway, opened for traffic in June 1875. Ipswich was settled at an early date in the history of the Moreton Bay district, and was incorporated into a municipality on 2nd March 1860. The surrounding district is agricultural. The population is about 8000. There are some rich seams of coals on the banks of the Brisbane and Bremer which have been worked for some time with profitable

results; the coal crops out from the surface and needs little labour in the obtaining. A woollen manufactory is in full work, and a clothing factory has been established recently for the purpose of making up the Ipswich tweeds.

IRELAND, RICHARD DAVIS (1816—1877) jurist, was a native of Dublin, and was admitted to the Irish bar in 1838. He came to V. in 1852, and at once rose into celebrity as an advocate in criminal cases. He successfully defended the Balarat rioters, and gained immense popularity by his readiness and skill in forensic oratory. He was elected to the Assembly in 1859, and joined the Haines Ministry as Solicitor-General. In 1861 he was Attorney-General in the O'Shanassy Administration, and, with Duffy, obtained a pension of £1000 a-year under the pension clause in the Constitution Act, subsequently repealed. His subsequent political career was of an intermittent kind; but he retained his celebrity at the bar till the last. Ireland was a man of very great powers as an advocate, a brilliant speaker, and an able debater; in short, an Irish barrister of the days of O'Connell and Whiteside.

IRWIN RIVER, in W.A., named after Governor Irwin. Between it and the Murchison there are thousands of square miles in which valuable minerals have been proved to exist.

IRWIN, LIEUTENANT-COLONEL, Acting Lieutenant-Governor of W.A. from September 1832 to September 1833, and again from February 1847 to July 1848. The only fact recorded of his early administration is that he discovered a certain description of soft bark excellent for cooking fish in, and it was thought that it might prove a valuable export which "would be competed for by the *élite* of the English gastronomes of the London clubs."

J.

JACKSON, WILLIAM, one of Fawcner's party in V. He landed at Point Ormond and led a party through the bush to the banks of the Yarra which they crossed above the Falls and camped, waiting for the *Enterprise* to get up the river. This was done on 29th August 1835.

JACKSON, PORT. See Port Jackson.

JACOBSZ, FRANCIS, carpenter to Tasman's voyage in 1642, performed the ceremony of planting a standard and taking possession of V.D.L. in the Prince's name, at Frederik Hendrik's Bay on 3rd December 1642.

JACKY JACKY, a faithful native black, who accompanied Kennedy till the explorer was killed by the blacks in 1848. Jacky escaped them by going into the creek and keeping his head only above water till he was picked up by the *Albion*.

JAFFA CAPE in S.A.—(CAPE BERNOULLI of the last edition of the Admiralty *coast-sheets*) is a piece of sandy land, but rising from the beach to a

moderate elevation and well wooded. West four miles from the cape lies a small islet on which a beacon has been erected. This islet is 300 yards in circumference and is visible three miles off. There are several other rocky patches in the neighbourhood. From the cape northwards the land trends to the E.N.E., forming a shallow bay with good anchorage called Lapepede Bay.

JAMIESON'S VALLEY, a valley of N.S.W. on the Great Western-road fifty-nine miles from Sydney. The water which rises in this valley, so named by Governor Macquarie after Sir John Jamieson, is considerable; but the wild scenery of the inaccessible valley into which it vanishes is worthy of attention.

JARDINE, F. L. AND A., explorers, two brothers, sons of the Police Magistrate at Cape York, explored the country from Rockhampton to the Cape in 1864. It was the first time that the territory lying between the Gulf of Carpentaria and the sea had ever been traversed by any European. The journey was to the last degree toilsome and hazardous, but the youthful explorers never lost heart for a moment and finished their heroic task in the most gallant style. They arrived safe and well at their father's house on 13th March 1865.

JASON MOUNT, a mountain of N.S.W. situated in the district of Wellington, is the northernmost point of Croker's range. This is the Mount Hawkins of Oxley, but was classically named Jason by Mitchell at the request of Cunningham.

JEFFCOTT, WILLIAM, succeeded Judge Willis as Resident Judge of Port Phillip in 1843, but he did not retain the situation more than two years. He resigned, and was afterwards appointed Recorder of Singapore, which office he held till his death a few years afterwards.

JERVIS CAPE, is a high bold projection of the mainland, forming the E. point of entrance to the Gulf of St. Vincent S.A. The high land which forms this cape is much intersected by gullies, and projects occasionally in bold cliffy extremes, the northernmost of which, marked on the chart N.W. of High Bluff, is seven miles N.N.E. from the western extremity of the cape, and round its N. side forms a bight open to the westward. The S.W. or most projecting extremity of this prominent headland does not present so steep a face to the sea as in other parts of it, but slopes gradually from the hills, about two miles inland. A ledge of rocks runs off the northern part of Cape Jervis, about twelve cables length. Inside the rocks is found a convenient little boat-harbour. The soundings off the reef increase very rapidly from four to eleven fathoms. This cape is separated from Kangaroo Island by Backstairs Passage.

JERVIS BAY, a beautiful bay and harbour of N.S.W. The entrance is two miles wide and inside there is a bay or harbour from three to four leagues in length and two in width. It is considered a safe port for ships of all sizes and is eighty miles from Sydney. It is large and

commodious, easy of access and affording shelter from all winds and having room for upwards of 200 sail of ships, with plenty of wood and water. It was discovered by Lieutenant Bowen in August 1791 and named after Admiral Sir John Jervis.

JERVOIS, WILLIAM FRANCIS D., C.B., C.C.M.G. (1821—) is the eldest son of General Jervois, Colonel of the 76th Regiment, Commander of the forces in Hongkong and for some time Governor of that island. At the age of eighteen having passed at Woolwich he entered the Royal Engineers, and after completing the usual course at Chatham was sent in 1841 to the Cape of Good Hope. In 1842 he was Brigade-Major in an expedition against the Boers. During the next three years he was employed at various frontier stations superintending the formation of roads, the erection of bridges and the establishment of military posts. In 1845 he was appointed Acting Adjutant to the Royal Engineers and accompanied the Chief Engineer over the whole frontier of Cape Colony and Natal. In 1846 he was appointed Major of Brigade to the garrison at Cape Town until the arrival of Sir H. Pottinger as Governor. He then accompanied Sir G. Berkeley the new Commander-in-Chief on an expedition against the Kaffirs, and served under him throughout the Kaffir war in 1846-7. During that war he surveyed 1000 miles of Kaffir Land and executed a map of 2000 miles of that country. For this service he received a medal. Returning to England after the conclusion of that war he commanded a company of Sappers at Woolwich and Chatham from 1848 to 1852. In 1852 he was ordered to the island of Alderney for the purpose of designing plans for fortifications and superintending their execution. In 1854 he was made a Major. In 1855 he was transferred to the London District as Commander of the Royal Engineers. He was nominated by Lord Panmure to the Committee on Barrack Accommodation whose labours contributed much to the sanitary improvement and comfort of the barrack life of the troops. In 1856 he was appointed Assistant Inspector-General of Fortifications under Sir John Burgoyne. He was shortly afterwards appointed by the Government as Secretary to the Royal Commission on the Defences of the country. He was also a member of the special Committee on the application of iron to ships of war and fortifications. In 1861 he was made Lieutenant-Colonel. The next year he was appointed Deputy Director of Fortifications under Sir John Burgoyne. In 1863 he was made a Companion of the Bath. During that year he was sent to British North America to examine and report upon the fortifications of Canada, Nova Scotia, New Brunswick, and Prince Edward's Island. Whilst on that side of the Atlantic he visited all the principal ports of the United States and surveyed their fortifications. In 1864 he was again sent to Canada to report on the defences. His report was laid before Parliament, and his recommendations were carried out by the Imperial

Government. New defence works at the naval arsenals of England have also been carried out under his directions, and he was appointed Secretary to the Permanent Defence Committee under the presidency of the Duke of Cambridge. After his return from Canada he was sent to report on the defences of Bermuda, Malta and Gibraltar. In 1871 he was intrusted by the Government of India with the work of examining the defences of the harbours of that part of the British dominions. In 1874 he was gazetted a Companion of the Bath. In 1875 he was appointed Governor of the Straits Settlements. In 1877 he was in compliance with the request of the Governments of some of the Australian colonies sent by the Imperial Government to give advice on the best means of defence of the Australian coast. Whilst performing these duties he was in the same year appointed Governor of S.A.

JOHNSON, RICHARD (1760-1814) first colonial chaplain, came out in the "First Fleet" in 1788. He was educated at Cambridge where in 1784 he took the degree of B.A. and was Senior Optime of that year. In July 1793 the erection of the first place of worship built in the colony was commenced. The undertaking was carried out entirely by voluntary effort. Johnson had been zealous in his endeavours to induce the Government to build a church, but the urgent need for public stores and dwelling-places had prevented his request being acceded to. Seeing no near prospect of the erection of a church by the Government, he at length resolved to make a commencement himself. The site selected was on the east side of the Cove; the design was cruciform, the dimensions of the central portion or nave were seventy-three feet by fifteen with a transept of forty feet by fifteen. The materials used were posts with wattles and plaster the roof being of thatch. The cost of the building when completed was £40. Divine service was performed in it for the first time on Sunday 25th August 1793. "On the first Sunday after Governor Hunter's arrival," says Palmer, "the Rev. Mr. Johnson in his sermon exposed the last Government, their extortion, their despotism, their debauchery and ruin of the colony, driving it almost to famine by the sale of goods at 1200 per cent. profit. He congratulated the colony on the abolition of the military Government and the restoration of a civil one and of the laws; and orders are this day given out that no officer shall sell any more liquor." The promulgation of such an address at such a time is a proof of his faithfulness and courage. He had embraced the peculiar views of the Moravian Methodists; he was an excellent and zealous pastor, but of too retiring, quiet and meek a character to exercise much personal influence on the men who had control of affairs at the period in question. He devoted considerable attention to horticulture and was the first to introduce the orange into the colony. His orchard was at Kissing Point, and his trees were grown from seeds which he had

procured at Rio Janeiro on the voyage; it is said they produced abundance of fruit, and that the oranges frequently brought as much as a shilling each. His horticultural operations were after a time carried out on a somewhat extensive scale, and were so remarkably successful in a money-making point of view, that when he left the colony in 1802 after a residence of fourteen years he took with him a fortune. From his quiet and inoffensive character very little is said respecting him in the early accounts of the colony.

JOHNSTON, GEORGE, Commander of the N.S.W. Corps, came to the colony with Phillip in the "First Fleet," and volunteered to serve in the corps with the rank of major on its formation in 1790. When the Castle Hill insurrection broke out in 1804 Johnston, with twenty-four soldiers of the corps, pursued the insurgents; they halted and turned round to fight, but he charged with so much determination into their midst that they were quickly routed, and fled in all directions, leaving several of their number dead on the spot. In the revolt against Bligh, Johnston played a leading part. He took part with Macarthur and the six officers, who urged their commander to usurp the government and depose Bligh. Johnston resolved at all events to liberate Macarthur, and sent an order to the gaol for his release. This order, signed "George Johnston J.P. Lieut.-Governor and Major commanding the N.S.W. Corps," was obeyed. Macarthur thus freed returned to the barracks, drew up a requisition desiring Johnston to place Bligh under arrest, signed his own name first at the foot of it, and procured seven or eight more signatures. Thus fortified with something which might serve as an expression of the will of the people, Johnston got his regiment under arms, formed them in the barrack-square, and marched down to Government House, with bayonets fixed, band playing and colours displayed. It was then about half-past six in the evening and quite light. Lieutenant Bell, who commanded the Governor's guard, ordered his men to prime and load. They did so but immediately afterwards joined their comrades. The Governor's daughter, the widow of Lieutenant Putland of the navy, alone attempted to resist the entrance of the officers, and in a few minutes Johnston was in possession of the building. All who were in the house were arrested—the provost-marshal, the Governor's secretary, the chaplain, and several magistrates. After some time Bligh himself was found in his bedroom, whither he had gone to fetch papers of importance, intending to evade his pursuers and take horse for the Hawkesbury, believing that the settlers there would remain loyal to his person. He was brought down into the drawing-room, presented with a letter announcing the fact of his arrest, and confronted with Johnston himself. Johnston confirmed the letter, proclaimed martial law, locked up Bligh's papers and the great seal of the colony, and stationed a guard round the house to prevent escape. The deposition of Bligh occurred on 26th

January 1808, the twentieth anniversary of the founding of the colony. The next morning a proclamation announced the change of government, Bligh was kept under close arrest, Atkins was suspended from his office as judge-advocate, and Captain Abbot appointed in his stead. The magistrates were replaced by gentlemen known to be unfriendly to the deposed Governor; the provost-marshal and others who had assisted Atkins in his proceedings were punished by imprisonment; and bonfires and illuminations were made by a large number of the townspeople. On 2nd February Macarthur was tried before a tribunal composed of his own friends, Grimes the Surveyor-General acting as Judge-Advocate, was unanimously acquitted, and ten days afterwards made a magistrate and Secretary of the colony. In July Lieutenant-Colonel Foveaux, who had been absent on leave, returned from England and superseded Johnston. Foveaux, upon being informed of the rebellion, determined to take no steps until he should hear from the British Government, to whom he transmitted full accounts of the proceedings of all concerned. Bligh was still kept under arrest, but next year Colonel Paterson returned from Port Dalrymple in T. and superseded Foveaux. Johnston proceeded by order to undergo an inquiry into the Bligh affair. The inquiry was held in 1811, and Johnston was cashiered. He returned to the colony, where he continued to reside until his death, which took place at Annandale, his estate near Sydney, on 5th January 1826.

JOHNSTON, R., a Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, was in 1820 despatched from Sydney on an expedition along the east coast in the cutter *Snapper*. He was also to make inquiries about the fate of Captain Stewart and his party, who had been sent out by the Government in a small vessel a few months before to make an examination in the neighbourhood of Twofold Bay. Stewart's party had never been heard of after leaving Sydney, and were believed to have perished in the sea. Johnston discovered a river called by the natives Bundoo, but which he named the Clyde, and up which he sailed nearly thirty miles and learned the fate of Stewart from the aborigines on its banks; he also learned the fate of a man named Briggs and his companions, runaways from Sydney, who were supposed to have left Port Jackson in a whaleboat and had never afterwards been heard of. Johnston met some natives who told him that Stewart, having lost his boat near Twofold Bay, was endeavouring to make his way back by land to Sydney, when he and his crew were cut off by the natives of Twofold Bay. Briggs and his companions were upset in Bateman's Bay, and being at a considerable distance from the land were not able to reach the shore. "But" adds Johnston, "as I saw knives, tomahawks, and part of the boat's gear in their huts, I believe that these runaways suffered the same fate as the unfortunate Stewart, and that this very tribe were probably their murderers."

JONES, RICHARD (1816—) journalist, came to N.S.W. in 1838, and worked four years on the *Monitor* and on the *Australasian Chronicle*. In connection with Tucker, he established the *Maitland Mercury* in 1842. Both carried on the newspaper until 1846, when Jones bought the interest of his partner, and conducted the *Mercury* until 1854, when he sold it again to Tucker, Cracknell and Falls. Jones returned to Sydney in March 1855, and during that year offered himself for the representation of the New England district in Parliament but was defeated. In 1856 when the first Parliament under Responsible Government was being formed he was returned for Durham, with the late W. M. Arnold and S. D. Gordon. Jones continued to represent that electorate until the new Electoral Act came into force in 1859. In 1857 on the retirement of Parkes, Jones joined the Cowper administration as Colonial Treasurer, and in January following on personal grounds retired from the Government, but still supported them. In 1859 he was returned under the new Electoral Act for the Hunter district. He was entrusted by Governor Denison to form a Government to replace the Foster administration, but declined, and advised the Governor to send for Sir J. Robertson. He retired from Parliament in 1860.

JORDAN RIVER, a beautiful river of T. which rises near Oatlands, and running through that town falls into the Derwent below Brighton. It is fancifully named after the Scriptural river.

JORGENSEN, JORGEN. Amongst the persons employed in the V.D.L. Company in 1826 was Jorgen Jorgenson, whose adventurous life made him remarkable even among vagabonds. He was a Dane born in Copenhagen in 1780. After some employment in the coal trade he accompanied the expedition of Flinders, and afterwards as mate on board the *Lady Nelson* attended the first party to Risdon Cove. Having returned to Europe he became commander of a privateer in the service of his own country, but was captured after a smart resistance by the British ships *Sappho* and *Clio*. He obtained while out on his parole the merchant ship *Margaret and Anne* to carry provisions to Iceland, where the people were suffering extreme privation. On a second voyage Count Tramp the Governor prohibited the intercourse. Jorgenson landed when the people were at church, and aided by his seamen took the Governor prisoner. He then issued a proclamation stating that he had been called by an oppressed people to take the reins of government. He proceeded to reform its various departments; he lightened the taxes; augmented the pay of the clergy; improved the system of education; established trial by jury; formed an army consisting of eight soldiers and fortified the harbour with six guns. Having performed these exploits he returned to London in a prize taken from the island. His proceedings were already known to the Ministry and he was

arrested as an alien at large. Jorgenson made no small stir by his appearance among legislators and conquerors. After a variety of adventures he pawned some linen taken from his lodgings and was convicted and sentenced to transportation. In Newgate he was employed as a dispenser of medicine. After four years detention he was released, but was retaken, having neglected to quit Great Britain, and was transported for life. Here he was employed as a constable, detected many crimes and brought several men to the scaffold. He at length closed his singular career in the hospital in Hobart Town. Sir William J. Hooker the celebrated botanist, who when a young naturalist met with Jorgenson in Iceland, said that his talents were of the highest order but his moral and religious character was of the lowest. "He was seaman, explorer, traveller, adventurer, gambler, spy, man of letters, man of fortune, political prisoner, dispensing chemist, and king of Iceland—and was transported for illegally pawning the property of his lodging-house keeper."

K

KANGAROO. Some account of this well-known animal is given under the article "FAUNA." A few additional particulars may be inserted here, taken from the latest (ninth) edition of the *Encyclopædia Britannica*:—"The kangaroo and most of its congeners show an extraordinary disproportion of the hind limbs to the fore part of the body. The rock wallabies again have short tarsi of the hind legs with a long pliable tail for climbing, like that of the tree kangaroo of New Guinea or that of the jerboa. Of the larger kangaroos, which attain the weight of 200lbs. and more, eight species are named, only one of which is found in W.A. There are some twenty smaller species in A. and T. besides the rock wallabies and the hare kangaroos; these last are wonderfully swift, making clear jumps eight or ten feet high. To this agility they owe their preservation from the prairie fires which are so destructive in the interior during seasons of drought. In the rat kangaroo there is not the same disproportion of the limbs; it approaches more nearly to the bandicoot, of which seven species exist, from the size of a rat to that of a rabbit. The carnivorous tribe of marsupials, the larger species at any rate, belong more to T., which has its 'tiger' and its 'devil.' But the native cat or dasyurus is common to every part of A. Several different species of pouched rats and mice, one or two living in trees, are reckoned among the flesh-eaters. Fossil bones of extinct kangaroo species are met with which must have been of enormous size, twice or thrice that of any species now living." The great kangaroo was first seen by Cook on 22nd April 1770, up till which time these animals were almost unknown to Europeans, although a New Guinea species had been described by

Le Brun in 1711. When driven to bay the great kangaroo will sometimes kill a dog by a single stroke of its hind leg, the great nail ripping him open at once. At other times he will close with his pursuer whether man or dog, drag him to the nearest waterhole and deliberately attempt to drown him. This remarkable trait in the character of the animal has not attracted from naturalists the attention it deserves as a curious fact in natural history.

KANGAROO GRASS is the most esteemed fodder grass of A. It grows to a height much above that of the fodder grasses of Great Britain, affords abundant herbage and is much relished by cattle. Its botanical name is *Anthistiria Australis*.

KANGAROO ISLAND, a large island off the coast of S.A. lying about twelve miles S.W. from Cape Jervis. It measures seventy-five miles from E. to W. and thirty miles from N. to S., comprising an area of 2,500,000 acres. This island lies to the S. of the Gulf of St. Vincent and Investigator Strait, the latter separating it from Yorke's Peninsula. Between the N.E. end of the island and Cape Jervis, the E. head of the Gulf of St. Vincent, is a narrow passage known as the Backstairs and used by vessels making Adelaide from the E. Flinders the discoverer landed upon this island on 22nd May 1802, and found the beach grassy and the country further inland covered with thick scrub; he gave it the name it bears in consequence of finding large numbers of kangaroos upon it, thirty-one of which were shot by his crew the first day. These animals were found to be large and fat, and differing only from those of N.S.W. by their being darker in colour. The island is in form something like a Malay creese, the E. end which is nearly detached from the main body forming the handle and the remainder the blade. Its E. point is Cape Willoughby, and a lighthouse (known as the Sturt Light) showing a revolving white light every one and a-half minutes is erected there upon the edge of the cliffs. The W. extremity is Cape Borda which has also a lighthouse (called the Flinders Light) showing a revolving white and red light every half-minute. The island is for the most part covered with dense scrub and affords pasture only for a few sheep and cattle. The land is of tolerable elevation and well wooded, presenting on its N. side a steep cliffy shore with sandy beaches and ranges of sand-hills with white perpendicular stripes. The harbour of Nepean Bay in the N.E. part is scarcely to be surpassed and will accommodate hundreds of vessels. The entrance is protected by a sandspit or shoal, which leaving a deep passage to the S. forms a complete breakwater. The spit is dry at low water and can always be avoided by the soundings which are very regular. Ships of 700 tons burthen can anchor within half-a-mile of the landing place. Kingscote the principal post is situated on the slope of some hills looking down a

steep precipice into the sea. On the beach stands a storehouse and a few huts built of bushes. The soil of this island in the vicinity of Kingscote is composed of sand left by the retiring sea mixed with a small portion of vegetable mould. The want of rain upon so dry a soil renders it impossible to produce vegetables except during the rainy season. About 200 or 300 yards from the sea good soil is found where young potatoes, plants and peas will thrive, but no sooner is the rain over than the earth is heated to such a degree that every vegetable perishes. Nine miles in the interior there are belts of iron and limestone running through the island in the interstices of which good soil is frequently found. The animals found in this island are kangaroos, wallabies, bandicoots, opossums and iguanas. Snakes from the circumstance of the island being one matted bush are most abundant and are seen winding along in all directions. Tarantulas, scorpions and mosquitoes are also numerous. There is an abundance of eagles, pelicans, cormorants, crows, magpies, robin red-breasts, swallows and small birds remarkable for the brilliancy and variety of their plumage. A bituminous substance resembling tar in appearance is found largely scattered upon some parts of the beach of this island and points to the possible discovery of petroleum springs. The first settlement of S.A. was made on this island by Colonel Light in 1836 but the site was subsequently abandoned.

KAPUNDA MINES, in S.A., lie fifty miles N.N.E. of Adelaide and twenty-four miles from Gawler. It is the oldest copper mine in the colony, having been discovered in 1843 by F. S. Dutton and C. S. Bagot, youngest son of Captain Bagot, then a sheep farmer and member of the Legislative Council. The mine workings are on hilly ground of moderate elevation, which was originally lightly timbered with peppermint gum, but the settlement of the adjoining township, the working of the mine, and above all the carrying on of smelting operations, have denuded the country of almost every stick of timber for miles round; abundance however remains for the requirements of the mine for some years to come, and within a moderate distance for cartage. The first ore was raised at the Kapunda mine on 8th January 1844, and on the 23rd of the same month five dray loads were despatched to Adelaide. The ore was good, the mine promised well, and search soon began to be made for copper ore in other directions, and it was not long before further discoveries were announced. With reference to the statistics of the Kapunda mine, *An Account of the Colony of South Australia*, prepared for distribution at the International Exhibition of 1862, states:—"On 4th March 1845 the first horse-whim commenced work drawing water, and kept the mine dry to the fifteen-fathom level for some time; but as the works were extended it was soon found that it would be indispensable to procure engine-power, and during 1847 a thirty-inch cylinder double-action engine, with a supply of pumps, was

obtained from England and erected on the mine, commencing work on 1st July 1848. Shortly afterwards machinery was added for crushing ore, and for drawing or hauling; and this engine, with a brief interruption caused by the breaking of the main shaft in June 1850, has been at work ever since. As the extent of working increased so did the water, and in 1850 a larger engine was purchased and erected, commencing work in January 1851. Both engines were employed in pumping for some years, but latterly all the water has been brought to one shaft, now sunk a depth of sixty fathoms, to which level the mine is kept in fork by the last-mentioned engine, which is of thirty-six-inch cylinder, single-direct action. The other engine is used in hauling and crushing. In December 1849 the first smelting furnace commenced work, and was shortly followed by a second; and for some time a large portion of the ores was reduced to regulus before shipment. The great attractions presented by the gold-fields of V. during the year 1852 induced most of the men to leave. The smelting works ceased altogether on 17th March, and were not resumed till March 1855. Nearly all the miners also left, and it was with considerable difficulty the engine was kept going, and the mine kept dry; at one time there were but four miners. During 1854 however, and especially in the early part of 1855, large numbers returned or came to work, and since then there has not been any material interruption."

KEERWEER CAPE (OR TURNAGAIN;) a cape or headland of York's Peninsula N.A., running into the Gulf of Carpentaria a little to the northward of the mouth of the River Vereenigde. It was named by the crew of the *Duyffhen* in 1606 and was the place where they left Australia for Bantam.

KELLY GANG, a gang of bushrangers, whose career forms one of the most remarkable incidents in the criminal annals of V. The gang consisted of four men—Edward Kelly, Daniel Kelly, Joseph Byrne, and Stephen Hart—who were known to the police as notorious cattle-stealers. The two Kellys had undergone terms of imprisonment for that crime before they were sixteen years of age, but the punishment did not deter them from resuming their career of crime as soon as they were liberated. In April 1878 an attempt was made by Constable Fitzpatrick to arrest Daniel Kelly for horse-stealing, when that officer was overpowered at the house of the Kellys by the outlaws, their mother, and two men named Williams and Skillion. The constable was shot at and wounded, and the criminals escaped. Mrs. Kelly, Williams, and Skillion were however subsequently captured and sentenced to long terms of imprisonment. But the two Kellys, one of whom had been an active confederate of the bushranger Power, eluded the vigilance of the police, and found hiding-places utterly unknown to the authorities, and almost inaccessible to all but those who were familiar with them. After a search of some months' duration, the police ascertained that the

gang was hiding in the Wombat Ranges, near Mansfield. Four officers—Sergeant Kennedy, with Constables Scanlan, Lonergan, and M'Intyre, closed in upon the haunt of the criminals in October 1878, but so far from taking the gang unawares as they had anticipated, the police were taken by surprise; the outlaws rushed upon them, and demanded instant surrender. Almost before the officers had time to realise their position, Constables Lonergan and Scanlan were murdered in the most cold-blooded manner, and Sergeant Kennedy—as it subsequently transpired—was carried off by the gang, and also murdered. Constable M'Intyre alone survived to tell the narrative of a tragedy that sent a thrill through the colony. From many centres of population in the district search parties, joined by volunteers from every class and rank, went out to assist in the capture of the perpetrators of the dastardly outrage. The Government despatched reinforcements of police in charge of Superintendent Nicolson to the spot, and a reward of £200 per head was offered for the capture of the murderers. The reward was afterwards increased to a lump sum of £4000, and the Government of N.S.W. also offered a reward of £4000. A measure passed by the Parliament of V. declared the marauders outlaws, and rendered all who sympathised with them liable to imprisonment, and other means of encouraging the pursuers of the outlaws and of putting a check upon their sympathisers were adopted. That all these means should have failed to produce any effect for months and months excited no little surprise. But those acquainted with the locality in which the outlaws had established themselves knew that they were afforded extraordinary facilities for the perpetration of their crimes with impunity. The ranges in which they hid abounded in secret fastnesses known only to a few, and to which it was all but impossible and extremely dangerous for the police to obtain access. Moreover, the neighbourhood swarmed with friends and sympathisers of the outlaws. In such a locality and with such surroundings, the Kellys could conceal themselves for months when their pursuers displayed any unusual activity and vigilance. Hence it was that after the Mansfield tragedy as little was known of the outlaws as if they had left the colony, which indeed was believed to have been the case. But no sooner did a sense of security again take possession of them than they descended upon a station almost under the shadow of the ranges in which they had been established, occupied the station for a whole day and night, and having bailed up all those engaged about the place, robbed it of all that they could lay hands on. The outlaws next proceeded to the township of Euroa, confined the two local policemen in their own watchhouse, rushed the telegraph office, cut the telegraph wires, plundered the bank in broad daylight, and finally departed, taking with them not only all the money on the premises (upwards of £2000,) but all the men, women and children in the establishment. The cool daring of this latest

exploit showed that all the towns in the district were in imminent peril, and detachments of the permanent military force were sent to the various townships to aid the police. Returning to their secure hiding-places, the outlaws were again lost sight of for a month or two. In February 1879 they made their appearance at Jerilderie, N.S.W., to the amazement of those who had watched their movements. They had travelled 120 miles from their haunts in the Strathbogie Ranges, traversed a vast extent of level country, and crossed the Murray. The raid on Jerilderie was attended by the astounding spectacle of a handful of armed men taking possession for the second time of a town, reducing the population to a state of helpless terror, plundering at will, and escaping with impunity, without a hand being raised or a shot fired against them. Localities that had previously deemed themselves safe began to feel that they were at any time liable to attack by a gang which had appeared in such widely separated spots. More than twelve months elapsed without any fresh outbreak. It was confidently asserted that they had left Australia, and the rumour gained credence in the absence of any further outbreaks. From July 1879 until within a short period of the annihilation of the gang the police were directed by Assistant-Commissioner Nicolson, whose plan of procedure was characterised by the utmost caution. Months passed by without the slightest information being given with regard to the police, who were at this time aided by a body of black trackers from the Q. native police under the direction of Sub-inspector O'Connor. Nicolson avoided inviting a recurrence of the Mansfield tragedy and endeavoured to gradually surround the outlaws, to cut them off from their sources of supplies, to discover their haunts, detect and defeat their intended exploits, alienate their sympathisers, and convert some of them into spies, the movements of the police being meanwhile kept concealed from all persons likely to convey information to the outlaws. Nicolson felt confident that these means could not fail to bring the outlaws into his hands at an early date. After being kept at bay for upwards of a year the Kellys commenced what was probably intended to be a series of reprisals by a desperate and dastardly act of revenge, the murder of Aaron Sherritt. In Sherritt the Kellys had up to a recent date a friend and accomplice. He was the owner of a selection on which he at one time received and kept horses stolen by the gang. A feud arose between him and his former friends, and Sherritt placed himself in communication with the police and was employed by them for some time. All this was known to the outlaws, who made no secret of their intention to have revenge on Sherritt. On 27th June 1880 they proceeded to his hut at Sebastopol, half way between Beechworth and Eldorado. At six o'clock in the evening the gang reached the spot. The hut was found to be occupied, as the Kellys had anticipated, by a small body of police besides the object of their search.

Keeping in the background at a safe distance the gang sent a man whom they had forced to accompany them to call Sherritt out. On the latter's appearing at the door he was shot dead by Byrne. The gang then called upon the police to surrender, threatening to burn the hut, and fired a volley into it. The police however kept within, as to have left the hut would have been certain death to them all. Intelligence of the murder of Sherritt was at once communicated to the police authorities at Beechworth and at Melbourne. The news created great excitement and fired the authorities with a determination to leave no stone unturned to prevent the outlaws from again escaping. The Chief Secretary (R. Ramsay) sent a special train to the district with reinforcements of police and the black trackers. At Benalla Superintendent Hare, who had taken the place of Nicolson, joined the train along with seven policemen. The passengers by the train were soon startled by the intelligence that the line of rails had been torn up beyond Glenrowan and that the outlaws were waiting in ambush. Hare ordered his men to be in readiness and all the lights in the train extinguished and went into the Glenrowan station. The schoolmaster at Glenrowan—Thomas Curnow—had heard of and frustrated the attempt of the gang. Knowing that the line had been pulled up, he kindled a light behind a red handkerchief, which attracted the attention of the driver of the pilot-engine and he in turn stopped the train coming behind. Curnow then informed the police of the presence of the outlaws in the neighbourhood. When the train reached the station Constable Bracken rushed to the platform stating that he had just escaped from the Kellys and that they were in possession of Jones's public-house, a hundred yards from the station. Hare with his men and Sub-Inspector O'Connor with his black trackers at once advanced on the hotel, a small wooden building of one story containing four rooms and a kitchen. As they approached a volley was fired on them by the gang from the front verandah, and for some time there was an unceasing succession of flashes and reports. In the first lull it was ascertained that Hare had been shot through the wrist and was compelled to retire to have his wounds dressed. He endeavoured to return to his post, but became too weak from loss of blood. Inspector O'Connor and Senior-Constable Kelly directed the police, and kept up a constant fire on the bushrangers in the hotel. The first victim of the affray was a son of the landlady, Mrs. Jones, who was shot in the back and afterwards died from the wound. The attacking party maintained the siege until daybreak, when reinforcements arrived. Superintendent Sadler came from Benalla with nine men and Sergeant Steele from Wangaratta with six, augmenting the besieging force to about thirty men. Before daylight Senior-constable Kelly found a rifle and a cap lying in the bush, 100 yards from the hotel. The rifle was covered with blood, and a pool of blood lay near it. The weapon proved

to have been that of Edward Kelly, who had escaped from the hotel. He soon attracted the attention of the police by firing at them. They turned on their assailant, and fired a succession of shots at him, but Kelly walked about receiving their fire with cool indifference. He seemed bullet-proof, and it occurred to Sergeant Steele that the fellow was encased in mail; directing his aim at the outlaw's legs, he brought him to the ground with the cry, "I am done—I am done." Steele rushed up with Senior-constable Kelly and others. Kelly howled like a wild beast brought to bay, and swore at the police. He was seized by Steele, and as that officer grappled with him he fired off another charge from his revolver, but the sergeant escaped. Kelly became quiet, and it was found that he had been shot in the left foot, left leg, right hand, left arm, and twice in the region of the groin. But no bullet had penetrated his armour. Divested of this he was carried to the railway station, and placed in a guard's van. Having captured the leader of the gang, the police again turned their attention to the hotel. The siege having been continued for twelve hours without effect, Superintendent Sadleir directed his men to set fire to the building. A final warning was given to the gang and all others within it. Instantly a white handkerchief was seen to wave from the doorway, and twenty-five persons rushed out towards the police with their hands held up above their heads, crying out, "For God's sake don't shoot us!" They were ordered to lie down, and the police passed them one by one, in case any of the outlaws should be amongst the crowd. At ten minutes to three the final volley was fired into the hotel, and under its cover Senior-constable Johnson ran up to the house with a burning bundle of straw, and applied it to the floor. All eyes were for a time fixed on the building; the circle of besiegers closed in and watched anxiously for the result of the exploit. Mrs. Skillion, sister to the Kellys, had arrived on the scene, and rushed to the hotel with the intention of urging the outlaws to avert the terrible fate that was in store for them, but the police stopped her. The hotel was soon a mass of flames; still the gang made no signs either of surrendering or attempting to escape. While the house was burning a Roman Catholic priest, the Rev. M. Gibney of Perth, W.A., walked up and at great risk entered the building. In one of the rooms he saw two dead bodies lying side by side. They were those of Daniel Kelly and Stephen Hart. Whether the two outlaws killed one another or committed suicide or whether they were mortally wounded and fell side by side was the subject of conflicting conjectures. All that is certain is that they died before the flames reached them. The priest had barely time to examine the bodies before the fire forced him to leave the house, and the building became a heap of ruins. Edward Kelly, despite his wounds, survived to be taken to Melbourne Gaol and to stand his trial for murder. The trial was held before Judge Barry, and Kelly was

convicted and sentenced to death on 27th October 1880. He displayed great coolness to the last. His execution took place on the 11th November. So ended this unparalleled episode in the romance of Australian bushranging.

KEMPT, J. H., Major of the 13th Regiment, administered the Government of N.S.W. from the departure of Sir W. T. Denison on 23rd January 1861 till the arrival of Sir J. Young on 21st March 1861.

KENNEDY, EDMUND B., explorer, a young government surveyor and second in command of Mitchell's expedition in 1845, was instructed to trace the course of the Barcoo River. Scarcely any water and no food for the horses could be found, the river bed having taken a permanently southern direction, and as a road to the north was valueless. Having satisfied himself therefore that the Victoria was the Cooper's Creek of which Sturt had just brought intelligence to Adelaide, Kennedy returned to Sydney. In this expedition he discovered a fine river which he named the Thomson. After his return he was sent to explore Cape York. In 1848 Kennedy and his party of twelve men including a native named Jacky Jacky were landed at Rockingham Bay, and the colonial sloop *Albion* took up its post at Cape York to provide them with provisions. Month after month the *Albion* lay off Cape York but the man on the look-out reported no signal from the shore. At the end of six months the signalman called the officers to witness a strange appearance on the sea beach. A native, naked, emaciated and apparently dying, was seen to crawl from the dense woods which overhang Cape York. He held a bough in his hand. A boat was immediately lowered and the native brought on board. He proved to be Jacky Jacky at death's door from wounds and hunger. For fourteen days he had tasted nothing but water. His clothes which he had received from the government store he had used to bury Kennedy. While he greedily devoured the food placed before him the officers and men of the *Albion* listened to his tale. When the party landed at Rockingham Bay for four months they cut their way towards Cape York with saws and hatchets, seldom making more than a mile or two a day. Their provisions became exhausted and they ate their horses. Most of the men from sickness could not proceed further. In this strait Kennedy placed eight of the men in camp and taking Jacky Jacky and three of the strongest men with him set forward to the *Albion*. A savage tribe appeared on their track, Kennedy was showered with spears at Escape River, and three spears entered his side. Jacky carried him to a stream through a belt of the scrub. He asked Jacky to give him paper, which he did, but Kennedy suddenly died. His story of the fate of Kennedy is one of the most affecting incidents in the romance of Australian exploration. "Mr. Kennedy," said the faithful fellow, "said to me, 'Don't carry me too far.' Then he looked this way (imitating him,) very bad. I said to him, 'Don't look far away,' as I

thought he would be frightened. I asked him often, 'Are you well now?' and he said, 'I don't care for the spear wound in my leg, but for the other two spear wounds in my side and back,' and he said, 'I am bad inside, Jacky.' I told him, 'Blackfellow always die when he gets spear in there!' He said, 'I am out of wind, Jacky!' I asked him, 'Mr. Kennedy, are you going to leave me?' and he said, 'Yes, my boy, I am going to leave you!' He said, 'I am very bad, Jacky; you take the books to the captain of the sloop; but not the big ones. The Governor of N.S.W. will give anything for them.' I then tied up the papers. He then said, 'Jacky, give me paper and I will write.' I gave him paper and pencil and he tried to write, and he then fell back and died. And I caught him as he fell, and held him; and I then turned round myself and cried. I was crying a good while until I got well. That was about an hour, and then I buried him. I dugged up the ground with a tomahawk and covered him over with logs, then grass and my shirt and trousers." Jacky kept watch until dark. Then he slipped silently into the stream and waded up its channel, keeping his head above water, until he was far enough to escape detection. From Escape River he crept on through the woods, exhausted by wounds and hunger and falling asleep for whole days beside ponds and waterholes, until at length he reached Cape York. On hearing his story, the sloop was got under weigh, and haste made to relieve the remainder of the party. Jacky pointed out where the wounded man and his two companions had been left along the coast. Captain Dobson landed, but could find none of them. Nor has their fate ever been discovered; though portions of European clothing were found among the savages in the neighbourhood, which left little doubt that they had been murdered. From this the sloop sailed to Weymouth Bay, where the remainder of the men had been left in camp. On landing, the ship's officers discovered a European at a well side, sitting on his pitcher. They hastened to him, but he was quite dead. They proceeded to the camp. Five bodies were lying in their beds, and had lain for some weeks. Two beds showed signs of having been occupied within some hours. Their owners were looking for shellfish on the beach. They had seen the sloop, and now staggered back to camp, mere skin and bone, and so weak that they had been unable to drag their dead companions out of their beds to bury them. Search was next made for the body of Kennedy, but his grave had been opened and the body removed. No trace of it or of his papers has ever been discovered. Jacky said he hid the papers in the hollow of a tree, but they could not be found.

KENNEDY, SIR ARTHUR EDWARD (1809—) Governor of Q., is son of Hugh Kennedy Esq., of Culha, County Down, Ireland, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. In 1827 he entered the Army as ensign in the 11th Regiment; was Lieutenant in 1832; Captain in the 68th Light Infantry

in 1840. He retired from the Army in 1848 to accept civil employment; but had been selected whilst serving in the Army in 1846 to fill the office of County Inspector under the Board of Works, and also served as Inspector under Sir John Burgoyne. He was Relief Commissioner and subsequently Inspector of Poor Laws until the office was abolished in 1851. His reputation secured him the position of Governor and Commander-in-Chief of Vancouver's Island and its dependencies in British North America. He was Governor of W.A. from 1854 to 1862. His administration was commended by the Imperial Government, and he received the honour of knighthood in August 1867. In January 1868 he was appointed Governor and Commander-in-Chief of the West African possessions. After having held this position for some time, he was appointed Judge at Sierra Leone, in the Courts of Mixed Commission with Foreign Powers for the suppression of the Slave Trade. He was afterwards made Governor of Hongkong from 1872 to 1877, when he was transferred to the Government of Q.

KENT'S GROUP, a cluster of islands situated at the eastern entrance of Bass Straits. The principal are Deal and Erith; they occupy a square of four miles and are separated by Murray Pass, a channel half a mile wide.

KERFERD, GEORGE BRISCOE (1831—) came to V. in 1852. Having settled in Beechworth he was elected a Councillor for that borough and was four times mayor. He was elected to the Assembly in 1864 and was called to the Bar in 1867. In 1869 he was returned member for the Ovens District and has since been re-elected unopposed on six occasions. He first accepted office under the Sladen Government as Minister for Railways and Mines after having refused to act as one of the Law Officers. He was also offered high legal distinction but declined, and did not become Solicitor-General until Francis took the reins of Government. Shortly afterwards when Stephen retired from the political arena to assume a seat on the Supreme Court Bench, Kerferd became Attorney-General. A few months later his chief, Francis, determining to retire, a reconstruction of the Cabinet became unavoidable. Kerferd was appointed Chief Secretary in July 1874. He held this office until, his Treasurer's budget being disapproved of by the Assembly, he was in August 1875 obliged to retire in favour of Graham Berry, a dissolution of Parliament having been refused him by Sir W. F. Stawell, then Acting-Governor. In the following October Berry's financial proposals also failed in pleasing the Assembly, and as he too was refused a dissolution by the Acting-Governor, Kerferd once more became Attorney-General, this time under Sir James McCulloch as Treasurer and J. A. Macpherson as Chief Secretary. He continued to act in that capacity until the general election in May 1877, when his party was defeated and the chief Secretaryship was resumed by Graham Berry. In

conjunction with Mr. Box, Kerferd has published a digest of all the decisions in the Supreme Court since its foundation in 1846 to 1871. The volume is regarded as a standard work by the profession.

KERMADEC, HUON DE, navigator, commanded the *Esperance* in company with D'Entrecasteaux, who was sent out to find relics of La Perouse, and made a survey of V.D.L. in 1792. The river Huon is named after him.

KING, PHILIP GIDLEY (1758-1808) third Governor of N.S.W., was a native of Launceston, Cornwall, England. At the age of twelve he entered the Royal Navy and was for several years engaged in active service in various parts of the world. In 1783 he went to the East Indies as Lieutenant in the *Europe*, with Captain Arthur Phillip, and remained there until the restoration of peace the following year. In October 1786 he was appointed to the *Sirius*, when the expedition to N.S.W. was projected, and accompanied the "First Fleet" to Botany Bay in 1788. In February of that year he was despatched by Governor Phillip to form a settlement at Norfolk Island, with the post of Commandant. The party under his command consisted of a subaltern officer and six marines, a surgeon, two men who understood the cultivation and dressing of flax—which it was proposed to cultivate on the island—and fifteen prisoners. King and his party sailed for their destination in an armed tender, with provisions for six months. It was the intention of Governor Phillip to use the island both as a store-house and a place of banishment for refractory prisoners. King landed, and at once commenced to grow cotton, corn and flax. The island was most fertile, and King's report was so favourable that Phillip sent him a reinforcement of sixty-nine people, commanded by Lieutenant Ball. The first settlers had little trouble in raising ample crops, and were now in the midst of plenty, which their less fortunate companions came to share. But the *Sirius*, in which they had been carried over, was wrecked on a coral reef near the island before she could return, and with her was lost a considerable quantity of provisions. King in his despatches to the Governor gave a glowing description of the island. It was, he said, a garden overrun with the finest pines; the soil was not to be surpassed in fertility; there was an abundance of water; the climate was bland and salubrious, and of so mild a temperature that vegetation was never checked throughout the whole year; and the flax plant grew wild in great luxuriance. In 1789 the prisoners formed a plot to rise against their officers, imprison them, seize possession of a vessel, and taking all the provisions on the island sail away for Otaheite. The fidelity of a female prisoner defeated the plot, and saved the lives of the commandant and officers. In March 1790 King left Norfolk Island, and sailed for England in the *Supply*, the vessel sent by Governor Phillip to Batavia for a stock of provisions. In September 1791 he returned in the *Gorgon* with

the rank of Commander in the Navy, and a commission as Lieutenant-Governor of Norfolk Island. He continued in charge of the island till September 1800, when Governor Hunter, on returning to England, transferred to him the Government of N.S.W. The appointment was subsequently confirmed by the Imperial Government. In 1804 occurred an insurrection of the prisoners at Castle Hill, when 233 men rose in revolt against their officers. King on this occasion displayed great courage and judgment, and succeeded in quelling the insurrection without loss of life to the troops, although sixty-seven of the insurgents fell in the strife, and several of the ringleaders were subsequently executed. King governed the colony till 13th August 1806, on which day he handed over the charge to his successor and embarked for England. He had ruled for a longer period than any of his predecessors. His departure was much regretted by the colonists, and every mark of public respect attended it. Under King the Female Orphan School was founded, and the first issue of copper coin took place. The *Sydney Gazette and New South Wales Advertiser*, the first Australian paper, was founded by a prisoner, George Howe, and published by authority in 1803. The year 1806 was signalised by the great flood on the River Hawkesbury, on the banks of which the principal grain cultivation of the colony was carried on. The Hawkesbury in ordinary periods winds in a strangely tortuous course through a deep valley, between the precipitous banks above which, on the occurrence of heavy rains, it rises as much as thirty feet in a very few hours. These floods are not periodical. Until 1806 none of importance had occurred, and people had settled down on the rich intervening land, the deposit of former overflows. Crops, houses, and many colonists, were all swept away in one night. Famine was the immediate result. The two-pound loaf rose to five shillings, wheat fetched eighty shillings a bushel, and every vegetable in proportion. A serious flood had occurred in 1801, but this far exceeded it. This great flood caused eventually a complete re-arrangement of the cultivation and occupation of that district. On the same day in that year the clock-tower fell, and Governor Bligh arrived. King was undoubtedly desirous of promoting the welfare of all ranks in the colony, but the task before him was one of almost insurmountable difficulty, and the human materials he had to deal with were of the most perverse nature. He was not supported in his efforts to maintain discipline by his subordinate officers, and he lost heart at length, and allowed many gross abuses to run wild unchecked. Under better circumstances he would have doubtless been an efficient Governor.

KING, PHILIP PARKER (1791-1855) navigator, was the son of Captain Philip Gidley King, first Lieutenant Governor of Norfolk Island. King was the first European child born there, on 13th December 1791. He was educated in England and entered the Royal Navy in 1807.

At the beginning of 1817 the whole of the northern and north-western shores of A. yet remained to be explored. The vessels of the Royal Navy were not occupied in warfare, and a good deal might be effected by sending some of them on surveying expeditions. The Imperial Government taking this into account ordered the fitting out of an expedition for surveying the northern part of the continent, and gave the command to King. He purchased a small vessel the *Mermaid* of eighty-four tons burthen. The crew consisted of twelve men and two boys, with Bedwell and Roas assistants. On 17th September 1817 the expedition arrived at Sydney, and there King took on board Allan Cunningham as botanist. On the 22nd the expedition set sail from Port Jackson taking the route by Bass Straits and Cape Leeuwin. It was the end of March when Dampier's Archipelago was reached. Here the navigator suffered many disasters, such as the breaking of his best anchors, becalming, and the prostration of his crew from the excessive heat. Having made some minor discoveries in Rowley's Shoals, King continued his course from Cape Van Diemen to the Goulburn Islands which were discovered and named. Proceeding westward Port Essington was discovered and surveyed, Van Diemens Gulf explored, and the Alligator River entered and ascended for thirty-six miles. The expedition returned to Sydney on 29th July 1818. In July 1819 King again proceeded to the north-west cape. He went this time by Torres Straits and the Gulf of Carpentaria. He now examined the north-western coast from Clarence Strait to Cambridge Gulf and from thence to Cape London-derry and Cassini Island, from which point he proceeded to Coepang in Timor and from thence to Sydney. In 1820 a third expedition was undertaken. The *Mermaid* better fitted out than on either of the previous occasions sailed from Sydney on 14th July. The most southerly point reached in this voyage was Prince Regent's River in Brunswick Bay. In 1821 he undertook his last exploring voyage in the *Bathurst*. On reaching the north-west coast he sailed up the Prince Regent's River for fifty miles. After quitting this river he sailed to Cape Latouche Treville and from thence sailed for Mauritius. He then returned to King George's Sound and from thence going northward commenced the survey of Swan River, and after proceeding to Buccaneer's Archipelago returned to Sydney on 25th March 1822. He was subsequently a member of the N.S.W. Council and attained the rank of Rear-Admiral. He died in 1855.

KING, PHILIP GIDLEY (1817—) is grandson of Governor King, and a native of N.S.W. His early years were spent in the Royal Navy under the command of his father and Captain Robert Fitzroy, in the voyages of the ships *Adventure* and *Beagle*, which were employed in and about the Straits of Magellan, and up and down both sides of the South American continent—voyages which in the annals of the Surveying Service have no

mean celebrity, arising from the ability and energy displayed in their prosecution, and from the dangerous nature of the coasts which were examined. In 1836, the Royal Navy holding out but little inducements to young men who had other opportunities of earning an honourable livelihood, King left the service, and took to the occupation of a pastoral life in Australia. Soon after leaving the Navy he became attached to the staff of the Australian Agricultural Company at Port Stephens; and subsequently, on the formation of the Peel River Company, was selected by the Board of Directors in England to manage its affairs. This post he has filled since 1854. As Mayor of Tamworth he received Sir Hercules Robinson on his arrival at the opening of the extension of the railway to Tamworth in 1878.

KING, JOHN (1838—1872) served in India in the 70th Regiment, and was engaged by G. T. Landells who had been sent to India from Victoria to purchase camels for the expedition of Burke and Wills in 1860. He was the only survivor of that ill-fated expedition, being rescued by Alfred Howitt; and on 21st January 1863 he followed the bones of his leaders to the Melbourne Cemetery at the public funeral given to them. The Government gave him a pension of £180 per annum.

KING GEORGE'S SOUND, on the west coast of the continent, was discovered by Vancouver in 1791, and named after King George the Third. It possesses all the qualities which constitute a good harbour. Its position however being to eastward and to leeward of Cape Leeuwin, in the vicinity of which strong westerly gales prevail, this circumstance detracts from the value of its other qualifications. Between King George's Sound and Swan River there are not less than ten estuaries or inlets of the sea, having narrow and shallow entrances. The town of Albany is situated on the shores of the Sound. It was first occupied in 1826, in consequence of some apprehension that the magnificent harbour might fall into the hands of some of the maritime Powers. An order was sent from the Imperial Government to the then Governor of N.S.W. to see to its occupation, and a party was sent from Sydney which landed on Christmas Day 1826. It was under the command of Major Lockyer of H.M. 39th Regiment, and consisted of a detachment of that regiment and a party of prisoners from Botany Bay. It was simply a party of occupation, and was subsequently withdrawn. No immigrants were imported nor lands sold, nor was any attempt made to colonise the locality until it became in after years connected with the Swan River Settlement.

KING GEORGE'S SOUND (2) comprises that portion of Bass Straits lying between the S. Cape of Wilson's Promontory as far as Cape Liptrap, and was named by its discoverer Grant after King George the Third.

KINGOWER, a mining township in V. on the creek of the same name, 129 miles N.N.W. of Melbourne. In 1857 the Blanche Barkly nugget weighing 1740 ounces was found here. There are numbers of gold-bearing reefs round the township which require capital to work them to advantage. In the neighbourhood are granite hills with intervening flats which yield good crops. The climate is warm and dry, the average annual rainfall being twenty-two inches.

KING'S ISLAND, situated at the western entrance of Bass Straits, was discovered and named by Commander Black of the Harbinger in 1801. It forms a portion of the Tasmanian territory. King's Island is about thirty-five miles long from north to south with a varying breadth of from five to fifteen miles. The eastern coast generally consists of low sandy hummocks topped with a thick scrub. This continues from Cape Wickham until Sea Elephant Island is reached, but after passing that point the coast-line alters, the hills rise to a height of 200 to 300 feet and they are thickly wooded. The coast is of a rocky nature and there is no safe anchorage until the south portion of the island is reached. Stokes Point is the southernmost promontory, but as there are a number of outlying rocks, and the tides and currents run with varying force and in different directions consequent upon the prevailing winds, mariners generally give the south end of the island as wide a berth as possible. After rounding the Stokes Point the rocky coast continues to Fitzmaurice Bay where there is an anchorage for small craft as long as the wind keeps to the southward or eastward, but it is quite open to the N. and W. From Carrie Harbour to Cape Wickham—the north point of the island—the coast is generally of a sandy nature with occasional patches of rock. Along the whole of the western coast there are numerous outlying rocks which render it very dangerous to mariners with the wind at all from the westward, as there is no anchorage for large vessels. The hunters living on the island state that on the southern portion quartz is frequently found, but it has never been ascertained whether the reefs contain gold. The soil generally appears to be good, consisting mainly of a black sandy loam in which English grasses and vegetables grow luxuriantly, but near the sea coast the plants are likely to be blighted by the westerly gales. In some parts of the island the scrub is very thick, but there are large areas of open, rolling, grassy downs, the look of which would gladden the eye of the grazier. There are several fresh water streams running into the sea both on the east and west sides, and there are also some large swampy lagoons where are to be found plenty of black swans and wild ducks. Kangaroos and wallabies are numerous, while snakes are far from uncommon. The area of the island is estimated at 27,000 acres, and it is rented from the Tasmanian Government for £270, being at the rate of £1 per 100 acres. The island however swarms with a small plant like a tare called by some

the Darling pea, and according to the hunters this proves poisonous to stock, animals eating it gradually getting thin and dying off. The population of the island does not exceed twenty-five persons, about one-half of whom are in the employ of the Tasmanian Government at the Cape Wickham lighthouse. The remainder are men who make a living by hunting kangaroos for their skins. Since 1835 there have been no less than twenty-three ships wrecked and 805 lives lost on King's Island.

KING'S TABLE LAND is situated in N.S.W., 2727 feet above the level of the sea. The view is magnificent. For eighteen miles from the commencement of the ascent of the Blue Mountains at Emu Plains the slope is gradual; from thence to the twenty-sixth mile is a succession of steep and rugged hills, some almost so abrupt as to deny a passage across them to King's Table Land; on the S.W. of which the mountain terminates in lofty precipices at whose base is seen the beautiful Prince Regent's Glen, about twenty-four miles in length.

KNOPWOOD, ROBERT, A.M. (1761-1838) chaplain to Collins's expedition in 1803. He was domestic chaplain to Earl Spencer when he received the appointment. He kept a diary of the voyage and of the first incidents of the settlements at Port Phillip and Hobart Town, containing many curious particulars, which was first published in its complete form by Mr. J. J. Shillinglaw in his *Historical Records of Port Phillip* (1879.) Knopwood held the office of chaplain till 1822, when he was replaced by the Rev. W. Bedford. West gives a rather sarcastic account of his character:—"In addition to his clerical functions he regularly sat as a magistrate. He had not much time to care for the spiritual interests of his flock, and of his success in their reformation nothing is recorded. His convivial friends are the chief eulogists of his character. His little white pony was not less celebrated. Knopwood received a pension, and was subsequently appointed chaplain to a country district. The gaiety of his disposition made him a pleasant companion and general favourite, and conciliated whatever esteem may be due to a non-professional reputation. He was not however unwilling to tolerate the assistance of a sect whose zeal wore a different aspect from his own. The Wesleyan ministers found a kindly welcome and an open field."

KORANGAMITE LAKE, a remarkable lake in the western district of V. fifty miles west of Geelong. It is about eighteen miles in length from north to south and eight miles across in its widest part, covering an area of seventy-two square miles. It is estimated, with lake Gnarpurt or Little Korangamite which makes its area up to eighty square miles, to have an average depth of five feet and to contain 413,000,000 cubic yards of water. It is fed by the Perrin Yaloak Creek, the Woody Yaloak and its tributaries and the Gnarkeet Ponds. It has no visible means of outlet

and is supplied by freshwater creeks only. It is extremely salt; the reason of this is supposed by F. Acheson, C.E., author of a prize essay on the collection and storage of water in V., to be due to the accumulation of salt in solution passed into them by drainage from out of the basalt rock, and not to any inherent saline matter, and to the fact of its having no outlet whereby the inappreciable amount received yearly remains therein and continually accumulates, whilst the amount of water being kept down by vaporisation remains approximately the same and thus contains a constantly increasing percentage of salt. He contends that if this and the other salt lakes in the neighbourhood, which lie in the centre of a gentle depression in the midst of basalt plains, could be drained of their present contents and their saline accumulations thus removed, the smaller lakes having been first drained into Korangamite, this series of lakes now comparatively useless could be made into a vast reservoir of fresh water. In the summer the lake falls from evaporation considerably below its winter level, leaving on the banks large quantities of native salt in crystals. The gathering of this salt forms a remunerative occupation during the summer months for many persons residing upon its banks. The country round is agricultural and pastoral, the geological formation being basaltic lava on tertiary rocks. When first discovered the lake was supposed to be an arm of the sea, but its true character was determined by Dr. Thomson of Geelong.

KOSCIUSKO, MOUNT, a mountain of V., is the most prominent of the Australian Alps at the head of the river Murray, dividing the district of Murray from the district of Monaroo. Its height is 6500 feet above the level of the sea. It was named by Strzelecki after the celebrated Polish patriot.

KREFFT, JOHANN LOUIS GERHARD (1830—) naturalist, is a native of Brunswick in North Germany. He was first clerk in a business house in Halberstadt where he remained till 1850 and shortly afterwards went to the United States where he was engaged as clerk and draughtsman. Having perused the magnificently illustrated work of Audubon in the New York Mercantile Library he asked and obtained permission to copy some of the plates, his copies selling at prices that enabled him to save sufficient money for a passage to A. where he imagined that he would find a wide field open to him as a painter and naturalist. He landed in Melbourne in November 1852 and went to the diggings where he worked with much success till 1857, and after a stay in Melbourne to recover from previous hardships Krefft was selected to accompany the collecting expedition fitted out by the V. Government in 1858. Having succeeded the leader in command of the party he returned to Melbourne with a large collection of specimens and a well-filled portfolio, and was engaged by Professor M'Coy as assistant in the Museum. He gave a report upon the animals obtained and an account

of the manners and habits of the aboriginals, illustrated by numerous sketches. He then resigned his position and returned to Germany. In 1859 he again left home for foreign lands and after a two months sojourn in South Africa he took up his quarters in Sydney, being appointed Secretary to the Australian Museum and assistant to Dr. Pittard its curator. On the death of that gentleman Krefft succeeded to the vacant curatorship in 1861. During the latter years of his appointment he had a series of disagreements with the Trustees of the Museum which eventuated in his leaving that institution in September 1874, and in an appeal to the law, which upheld him in the views taken by him throughout the dispute. Krefft holds the honorary degree of Doctor of Philosophy, and has published numerous papers in the pages of English and Colonial scientific journals. He was for many years a regular contributor to some of the leading newspapers. Krefft was the first man who thoroughly studied the reptiles of Australia. *The Snakes of Australia* (now out of print) was the first book of the kind ever published here. It is written in a clear and comprehensive style; as are also his subsequent work *Mammals of Australia*, and another on the fossil remains unearthed by him at the celebrated Wellington caves. A mountain has been named in his honour: on account of the services Krefft has rendered to geographical science, Count Von Henglin the Austrian explorer has named that grand rocky prominence of Barento Island, Spitzbergen, some sixty miles wide at its base, Mount Krefft. He has an extensive correspondence with eminent scientists in every part of the world. Krefft made a very extraordinary scientific discovery of the fish which he named the *Ceratodus Forsteri* after William Forster, at that time a member of the Ministry of N.S.W. With unerring exactitude Krefft gave in a leading journal a preliminary description of the fish, assigned its proper position in the system, and had the satisfaction to find his description confirmed by the best naturalists of the day including Professor Agassiz, who wrote to him a very candid acknowledgment of his own previous errors on the subject, remarking in his letter "My fossil sharks are sharks no longer."

L.

LACEPEDE ISLANDS, a group of islands in W.A. lying off the coast about five miles west of Beagle Bay in Dampier Land. There are large deposits of guano on the islands, which have been worked for some years with profitable results.

LACHLAN RIVER (or **CALARE**;) a river of N.S.W. having its origin in the Collarlin range of mountains. After running a north-westerly course it loses itself in a marsh like the Macquarie, but passing through this marsh it joins the Murrumbidgee. In the parallel of 148° the Lachlan, at 200

yards above the level of the sea, is forty yards wide and navigable for large boats; it divides the district of Lachlan from the district of Wellington. It was discovered by Evans, and named after Governor Lachlan Macquarie.

LACKEY, JOHN (1830—) is a native of Sydney. In 1858 he contested unsuccessfully the Electorate of Central Cumberland. Two years afterwards he was returned for Parramatta, and remained in Parliament until 1865. In June 1867 the retirement of Hay caused a vacancy for Central Cumberland, and Lackey was elected and has ever since then continued to represent that electorate. He was twice elected Chairman of Committees. He was Minister for Works in the Robertson Ministry from February 1875 to March 1877, and again Minister for Works in the Parkes-Robertson Administration of December 1878.

LADY JULIA PERCY ISLAND, an island of V., about two miles long by one mile broad, lying eight miles from the mainland E. of Portland Bay, and twenty-two miles E. of Portland. It was discovered by Grant, and named by him in honour of Lady Julia Percy, one of the Northumberland family. The island consists of a mass of precipitous rock, and rises to the height of about 300 feet above the sea level.

LALOR, PETER (1827—) is son of Patrick Lalor, who represented Queen's County in Ireland in the House of Commons. He was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, and became a civil engineer. He arrived in Melbourne in 1852 and went to the Ovens, where he remained until the outbreak of the miners took place at Ballarat in 1854. It having been determined not to take out any more licenses to mine, the miners publicly burned those official documents at a meeting held at Bakery Hill on 29th November 1854. On the Sunday morning, 3rd December 1854, the attack was made by a party of troops and police. The miners in the Stockade made a vigorous resistance, and Lalor who had been chosen leader received a ball near the shoulder of the left arm, and ultimately lost his limb. Although large rewards were offered for his apprehension, his friends proved true, and preserved him till all trouble was past. Subsequent to the outbreak, representation was given to the gold-fields under the old Constitution, and Lalor was without opposition elected one of the representatives for Ballarat in the Legislative Council. Shortly after taking his seat the Government appointed him Inspector of Railways, a position which he occupied until the passage of the Officials in Parliament Act. At the next election he was returned for South Grant, which he continuously represented until 1871, when he suffered defeat by about twenty votes, and was also unsuccessful in contesting North Melbourne at the same election. When first elected for South Grant, in 1856, he was appointed Chairman of Committees by the Legislative Assembly, and it is generally admitted that he evinced much

firmness, decision of character, and an intimate acquaintance with constitutional law whilst he filled that position, which he did until 1868. In 1875 he was again returned for South Grant, and in August of that year accepted office as Commissioner of Customs in Berry's first administration. After the general election in May 1877 Berry again became Chief Secretary, bringing back Lalor to his former position. He was always more or less connected with mining in the New North Clunes and the Australasian Mines. He was chairman of the Clunes Water Commission, and a director of the New North Clunes Company. In 1880 he was elected Speaker of the Assembly.

LANDSBOROUGH, WILLIAM, explorer, is a native of Scotland, and was engaged in squatting pursuits in Q. in 1856, when he undertook exploring expeditions in search of new country. He discovered Mount Nebo and Fort Cooper, and in 1859 explored Peak Downs and Nagoa. In 1860 he discovered the head of the Thomson; in 1861 he traced the Gregory and the Herbert Rivers to their sources. He was chosen by the Royal Society of V. in 1861 to lead an expedition from the Albert River in search of Burke and Wills. The party consisted of Landsborough, commander, H. M. Campbell, G. Bourne, W. Allison, W. Leeson two native police troopers and two Australian blacks. They started from Brisbane in the transport *Firefly*, which was wrecked in Torres Straits, but by great exertion Captain Norman towed her round with the *Victoria* to the Albert River and landed twenty-five horses. A dépôt having been formed the party started on 16th November in the direction of Central Mount Stuart and made some 200 miles, and then returned to the dépôt where news of Burke's tracks had been brought by Walker from Rockhampton. They arrived on the 19th January 1862, and on 10th February a second start was made from the dépôt. They journeyed southward and discovered a well grassed and watered country, composed for the most part of rich pastoral land extending along the waters of the Flinders to the Dividing Range; thence along the Thomson from its source to the Victoria River (or Barcoo) and thence to the Warrego, where on the 21st May they stopped at the station of the Messrs. Williams and were hospitably received. They travelled by way of the Darling and Menindie to Melbourne, which they reached in June. For his services on this occasion Landsborough was presented by the Victorian people with a service of plate valued at £500. A diary of the expedition was published by Bourne, second in command. He then went on a voyage to Europe and was presented with a gold watch by the Royal Geographical Society of London. After two years absence he returned to Q. and was elected member of the Assembly. But finding the demands on his time too onerous he obtained the situation of Government Resident in Burke district at the end of 1865. At the Belyando, in conjunction with G. Phillips, he discovered the Western River,

and traced the Diamantina to its source. He found at Burketown the whole population prostrated by fever, and removed them to Sweers Island. There he continued actively to explore the Gulf. In 1868 he was removed from his situation, but accepted the office of Inspector of Brands for East Moreton, which he now holds. A river in N.A. discovered in the course of his search for Burke is named after him.

LANG, JOHN DUNMORE (1799-1878) was a native of Scotland, graduate of Glasgow University and D.D. in 1825. His attention being early directed to Australia, then almost a *terra incognita*, he determined to leave Scotland, and in September 1822 was ordained by the Irvine Presbytery minister for the Scots National Church in Sydney. He arrived in Sydney in 1823 and met with a warm welcome from his fellow-countrymen. The court-house was placed at his disposal to hold service in, and the energy and ability displayed in his preaching attracted what in those days might be styled large congregations. Subscriptions were liberally promised towards the erection of a church, the Governor Sir Thomas Brisbane heading the list. But in consequence of a quarrel the Governor declined to assent to a request for endowment and withdrew his name from the list of subscribers. Dr. Lang undaunted by the want of official patronage proceeded to build his church, and went to England to lay his complaint before the Secretary of State for the Colonies. He was successful, and in 1826 returned to Sydney with a direction from Earl Bathurst to the authorities in N.S.W. that one-third of the cost of the Presbyterian Church should be paid by the State, and a salary of £300 a year paid to Dr. Lang out of colonial funds. To him belongs the real honour of introducing the Presbyterian system of church and schools into Australia. He was instrumental in establishing the Australian College in 1832 and to effect this object made considerable personal sacrifices. Shortly after a visit to England in 1841 he joined the Presbyterian Synod of Australia, but in the following year pursued a course adverse to the views of the majority of the synod, and was censured for disregard of the authority of the church by refusing to appear when cited to answer charges made against him. He was deposed from his ministerial office, and the deposition was confirmed by the church courts in Scotland. He applied for relief to the Court of Session and the Lord Ordinary held that the decision was illegal. The Sydney Presbytery endeavoured to oust him from the possession of church property, but after a long course of litigation the matter was finally decided in the year 1862 in his favour. He held the ministry of the Scots Church Sydney from 1823 until his death. On 17th December 1872 he celebrated the jubilee of his ministry, and on that occasion received an address from the Presbytery of Sydney and testimonials from a number of subscribers. He likewise received from members of different religious denominations

expressions of their esteem and goodwill. The position of Dr. Lang as a politician in a great measure overshadowed his calling as a minister of religion. From his arrival in the colony he took an active interest in social and public questions, while his representative career lasted with a brief interval from 1843 until 1869. In 1835 dissatisfied with the colonial press which then existed he started the *Colonist*, a weekly journal, in which he advocated the discontinuance of the system of granting waste lands to settlers, and urged the adoption of the Wakefield principle of selling the lands at an upset price and devoting the proceeds to immigration. He maintained that the waste lands were not the property of the inhabitants, but of the people of the British Empire, and ought to be administered in that spirit. His proposal met with some acceptance, was recommended by a select committee of the Legislative Council and received the approval of Lord Glenelg, then Secretary of State for the Colonies; but a land system on a different basis was afterwards established by Wentworth. Dr. Lang was an ardent supporter of immigration. In 1830 he addressed a letter to Viscount Goderich, pointing out the means of conveying thousands of the distressed agricultural population of Great Britain to the plenty of N.S.W. without expense to the mother country. His idea was to obtain the necessary funds by sales of building allotments in Sydney, and by resuming and selling land granted on conditions unfulfilled to the Church and School Corporation of N.S.W. He published this letter in the colony and his proposal gave offence to the possessors of the land he proposed to resume. A wordy warfare followed lasting for years, and the struggle entailed on him much expense and annoyance. He was censured by Lord Goderich for the indiscreet publication of the letter, and the Legislative Council also punished him by a vote of censure. In 1836 he brought out from England a supply of suitable ministers for the church, a number of schoolmasters and others, numbering with their families about 300 persons. He lectured on immigration during his frequent visits to England and used his influence to promote the settlement of Protestant people in the colony. The bounty system he condemned as calculated to unduly encourage the introduction of Roman Catholics at the expense of the State. In 1843 Dr. Lang was elected one of the representatives of the first Legislative Council under the constitution of 1842. He was returned for the district of Port Phillip, now the colony of V. His principal aims in entering political life were to put a stop to the preponderance of Irish Roman Catholic immigrants and to secure for the colony a general system of education adapted to its wants. On the latter question he had been opposed to the Irish National system, but after a visit to Ireland he changed his views and advocated its adoption. A select committee of the Legislative Council of which Robert Lowe

was chairman recommended the system. He was a foremost actor in the movement for the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. He broached the idea to the residents of Port Phillip, who were labouring under a sense of dissatisfaction at the neglect they experienced from the Central Government, and he received such encouragement that in 1844 he proposed in the Council the separation of Port Phillip and its erection into a distinct and separate colony. The six Port Phillip representatives voted for the motion, but the only member among the thirty representatives of N.S.W. who gave in his adhesion was Lowe. Not discouraged Dr. Lang drew up a petition which was numerously signed and sent home to Her Majesty. Lord Stanley gave a favourable reply, but separation was not consummated until the year 1851. The services rendered by Dr. Lang were recognised by the Victorian Parliament, who in 1872 voted him a sum of £1000. He was also a warm advocate of the separation of Q. from N.S.W. His interest in the Moreton Bay district dated back to the years 1848 and 1849, when he introduced there at considerable personal expense about 600 immigrants. His services in the cause of separation were acknowledged by the Q. Legislature. He was also the promoter of the land order system established in that colony. He was always strongly opposed to the transportation system. The agitation lasted from 1846 to 1851, Earl Grey, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, persisting in his determination to force the system on the colony. Ultimately however the Order in Council declaring N.S.W. a place where convicts might be sent was revoked. Lang was elected member for Sydney in 1850, defeating the transportation candidate. He presented a petition to the Legislature against transportation signed by 36,589 persons. In 1849 he addressed a letter to Earl Grey on the subject of his misgovernment of the Australian Colonies during the three years he held office, couched in language which gave great offence. In September 1851 he was elected at the head of the poll for Sydney, John Lamb and W. C. Wentworth being his colleagues, but he resigned almost immediately and went to England. During his absence a new Constitution Act was passed containing a clause rendering ministers of religion ineligible for Parliament, and he was thus precluded from entering the Legislature for a time. This clause was repealed in 1857, and at the general election in 1859 he was again returned for Sydney. After the introduction of responsible government he was elected three times for Sydney West—twice at the head of the poll. He retired from the Parliamentary arena in November 1869. Among other measures advocated by him during his political career were the extension and equalising of the representation (in 1843,) the establishment of a uniform postage rate of 2d. (in 1844,) triennial Parliaments, a single Chamber Legislature, cheap and efficient railway communication, and permanent discontinuance of

State aid to religion. In 1839 he visited N.Z. and wrote to Lord Durham urging the Government to take possession of those islands. During his long connection with Australia he visited England nine times. In 1846 he was examined before a committee of the House of Commons on the question of transportation. Dr. Lang was a voluminous writer. He is the author of a history of N.S.W. which ran through four editions, the first issued in 1834, the latest in 1875. His other works are *Origin and Migration of the Polynesian Natives*, 1834; *Transportation and Colonisation*, 1837; *New Zealand in 1839, Position and Prospects of its inhabitants; Religion and Education in America*, 1840; *Cook's Land, Australia*, 1847; *Phillip's Land*, 1847; *Freedom and Independence for Australia*, 1852; *The Coming Event*, 1870; *Aurora Australis*, a series of poems, 1826. He was also a ready pamphleteer and wrote on a variety of subjects. He was an honorary member of the African Institute of France, of the American Oriental Society, and of the Literary Institute of the University of Olinda in Brazil. The career of Dr. Lang embraces a period of very great interest to Australians. He saw the foundations of a nation laid and was an instrument in the work. He was a witness of the wonderful progress and prosperity of the colonies, and did not pass away until he had seen the handful of settlers ripen into a community numbering nearly two millions and the continent explored and settled throughout the eastern half. He lived through the vice-royalties of nine Governors of N.S.W., commencing with Sir Thomas Brisbane and ending with Sir Hercules Robinson. He was a man of indomitable energy, of liberal views, of considerable ability, of great public spirit, and utterly careless about pecuniary advantage. He achieved a position among the early colonists of A. which will not readily be forgotten.

LANGTON, EDWARD (1828—) came to V. in 1852. In January 1866 he was elected to represent East Melbourne in the Assembly. He sat for that constituency for one Parliament and at the general election in 1868 contested West Melbourne, for which constituency he was elected. He represented this constituency from 1868 until 1877, when at the general election he was defeated. Langton has been twice in office; in 1868 he was Treasurer of the short-lived Sladen administration, and in 1872 he filled the same office in the Francis government, retiring from it when Francis resigned, and declining to be a member of the succeeding government under Kerferd. In 1874 Langton was elected an honorary member of the Cobden Club. He was for some time connected with the Press, having been on the literary staff of the *Argus*, and was proprietor and editor of the weekly journal, the *Spectator*, originated in 1865 as the organ of the Free-trade party in Melbourne. He was the first Secretary of the Free-trade League of Victoria, a position which he resigned on being elected to Parliament in 1866.

LANIGAN, WILLIAM (1820—) Roman Catholic Bishop of Goulburn N.S.W., is a native of Tipperary in Ireland. He received his education at Thurles College, and completed his ecclesiastical studies at the College of Maynooth. He was ordained priest at Maynooth in 1848, and came to Sydney 1859. After seven years of missionary labour in Goulburn and Berrima he was consecrated Bishop of Goulburn on 9th June 1867.

LANNES CAPE (CAPE DOMBEY of the Admiralty charts) is the S. head of Guichen Bay, S.A., and has a reef of rocks running out one-and-a-quarter miles. There is an obelisk on its extremity forty feet high, visible twelve miles in clear weather. The coast to the S. is composed of sandy hillocks lightly timbered, and breakers extend off the coast for fully two miles. In a small inlet at the S. side of this cape the rocks are seen in bold section, the cliffs being nearly 100 feet high. The little bay is very deep so that the water washes the cliffs nearly all round. In some places the action of the surf has undermined them and caused them to fall, and the spray has eaten into its soft friable texture, giving parts a wild and jagged outline.

LA PEROUSE, JEAN FRANCOIS DE GALAUP, COUNT DE, French navigator. An expedition was fitted out in 1785 and put under his direction, consisting of two frigates, the *Boussole* and the *Astrolabe*, with full complements of men. The ships sailed from the harbour of Brest in August. After passing through many adventures and making some valuable discoveries, the fleet reached N.S.W. and cast anchor in Botany Bay in February 1788. The astonishment of Governor Phillip on finding the ships there was very great, and the kindest interchanges of friendship passed between the commanders. On 10th March 1788, having supplied his ship with water and wood, La Perouse sailed away from the shores of Australia. He had lost several officers and seamen in an encounter with the savages at Navigators Islands, and it was for the purpose of refitting that he put into Botany Bay. At this point occurs a sad blank in the story of the brave and gallant but unfortunate La Perouse. No tidings of the expedition arrived in France for three years. No European eye had ever seen any of the voyagers in the *Boussole* and *Astrolabe* after their departure from Australia. The King and the people of France began to grow uneasy, and at length another expedition was fitted out in 1792 under the command of Admiral D'Entrecasteaux, to go in search of the lost navigators. It was unsuccessful. For thirty-five years no traces of La Perouse's fleet were discovered in any quarter. At last Captain Dillon, an English seaman in the service of the East India Company, accidentally found the key of the dread secret which the ocean had held for forty years. He was cruising about the New Hebrides in 1827, when he came upon traces of the wrecks of two large French ships

strewn about the reef that surrounds the Island of Manicolo. These were fragments of La Perouse's frigates. By converse with the natives Captain Dillon got the main incidents of the melancholy story. One stormy night the ships struck upon the treacherous reef and went to pieces. Some of the seamen managed to escape the billows and reach the shore. One or two had chosen to remain amongst the savages, but the others perished in an unsuccessful attempt to reach some civilised land. Captain Dillon brought back in the *Research* the fragments of the shipwrecked vessels, and the sad story of the lost expedition became classic in the history of maritime adventures. A monument to the memory of La Perouse and his crew, with an inscription in French, stands on the shores of Botany Bay. It was erected by the French Government in 1825.

LARCOM, MOUNT, a mountain on the N.E. coast of the continent near Port Curtis, named in honour of Sir Thomas Larcom, director of the Ordnance Survey of Ireland and Under-Secretary for Ireland.

"**LARRIKIN**," a name given to young vagabonds in Victoria. The term was first applied in the Melbourne Police Court by an Irish police officer (Dalton,) who, in reply to the magistrates, said the youths before the Court were "larrikin," meaning larking.

LA TROBE, CHARLES JOSEPH, first governor of V., was the son of a Moravian clergyman and a native of Yorkshire in England. He was descended from a Swiss family which emigrated from the south of France at the Revocation of the Edict of Nantes, and first settled in Ireland. He was educated amongst the Moravians and intended for the ministry. He spent some years in travelling in America and on the continent of Europe. In 1837 he was appointed to make a tour of the West India Islands, to report on the application of the funds voted by the British Parliament for the education of the emancipated negroes. He accompanied Washington Irving in his tour on the prairies, so graphically narrated by the celebrated American writer. He was chosen by Lord Glenelg as first superintendent of Port Phillip in 1839, and arrived at Melbourne on 30th September. His first public reception was held at the Australian Auction Company's rooms in Collins-street on 2nd October. His salary was only £800 a year, but was subsequently increased to £1500. At the outset of his rule there was a disposition on the part of the colonists to think highly of La Trobe; but his popularity was very short-lived. He threw all his influence into the agitation against transportation to Port Phillip; and when certain residents in the Western District clamoured for convict labour he firmly refused to sustain their demand to the Imperial Government. But on all other public questions of importance to the colony the Superintendent was uniformly adverse to the

popular wishes. He impeded the advancement of the colony both materially and politically to the full extent of his power ; his steadfast conviction apparently being that Port Phillip was destined to remain for ever the outlying dependency of a penal settlement. In October 1846 La Trobe was commissioned to proceed to V.D.L. in consequence of the suspension of Sir Eardley Wilmot, the Governor. He was directed to inquire minutely into the state of that colony and to report to the Home Government. During his absence the government of Port Phillip was placed under the direction of Captain Lonsdale, Sub-Treasurer of the district, whose place was supplied by James Simpson, formerly Police Magistrate of Melbourne. Meantime the breach between the Superintendent and the colonists was daily growing wider, aggravated by what was deemed his treacherous conduct towards them in the matter of separation from N.S.W. At length things came to a climax. An imperial Parliamentary paper reached the colony which contained a copy of a private dispatch, dated 10th August 1848, written by La Trobe for the Secretary of State, and in which were the following observations :—"No doubt the erection of the Port Phillip District into a distinct colony will at once remedy much that is anomalous in the present state of things ; but one fact, if not clear before, seems to be demonstrated beyond dispute by the past proceedings in the district—that any form of constitution which may be proposed for the colony, for some years to come at least, which takes the government out of the hands of a governor, executive and nominee council, and substitutes for the latter a representative body, will be ill-suited to its real state and position, and will render the administration of its government as a distinct colony, upon whomsoever it may devolve, a task of exceedingly great difficulty and responsibility." The publication of this dispatch excited feelings of the warmest indignation in the breasts of all classes. The Melbourne City Council, as the only representative institution existing in the colony, unanimously passed a resolution denouncing the representations made by the Superintendent as utterly unfounded. The Council had previously placed themselves in an attitude of hostility towards La Trobe, in consequence of his endeavour privately to contravene their request to the Sydney Government that the unused funds granted for Port Phillip should be entrusted to their care for purposes of public improvements. In June 1848, on the motion of T. McCombie, they agreed to the following resolution :—"That the Legislative Committee be instructed to prepare an humble petition to Her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen, praying for the removal of His Honor Charles Joseph La Trobe, Esq., from the office of Superintendent of the District of Port Phillip on account of his systematic mismanagement of the money voted for the service of the province, his neglect of public works of paramount consequence,

and his repeated breaches of faith in his official transactions with this Council in matters of high public importance." In order to back up this resolution a public meeting was held opposite the Court House, attended by 3000 persons, and presided over by McCombie, and a petition for the recall of the Superintendent was carried by acclamation. The Secretary of State acknowledged both memorials, but refused the request of the colonists. When separation was granted La Trobe was sworn in first Lieutenant-Governor—the fiction of the supremacy of N.S.W. being still maintained. At length the gold discoveries broke out, and the capacity of La Trobe for governing was put to the severest test. He failed signally, and his failure was the cause of the saddest consequences to the colony and of irreparable disgrace to himself. From the first the sole policy he adopted was to prevent, if possible, the influx of gold seekers. Failing in this he attempted to drive them away from the gold fields by the imposition of an oppressive license fee, fixed at first at £3 per man per month. Again failing he most unwisely called in the aid of the military to dragoon the diggers into submission. Then, frightened at the alarming and dangerous condition of things this perverse policy had created, he forwarded his resignation to the Secretary of State. For many months previously to his departure the *Argus* had daily inserted among its advertisements the announcement : "Wanted a Governor !" Nothing could exceed in bitter severity the opposition which that journal maintained against La Trobe all through his career. But it must be added that any journal which held it to be its first duty to maintain the rights and privileges of the colonists could not have honestly taken any other course. La Trobe left Melbourne on 5th May 1854, and returned to England. He died in London on 2nd December 1875. McCombie's estimate of La Trobe's character and career is, of course, extremely unfavourable, but its substantial justice cannot be controverted. He describes him as a gentleman of prepossessing manners, amiable and conciliating disposition and cultivated taste. "He was gifted with considerable literary ability, and many of his public documents displayed no little power ; but it was unfortunate that he was not endowed with greater firmness and more independence of character. He cannot be accused of having ever acted in a tyrannical manner, and he did his best to conciliate all classes ; the charge that may with justice be brought forward against him is that of insincerity. He was too free with his professions, and too tardy in fulfilling them ; he avowed too eagerly his desire to satisfy such suitors as were compelled to wait upon him, without having the slightest wish or intention of granting their requests. Many of the colonists were plain men of business, unused to courtly modes of address, who, considering his sedulous attention and insinuating manner equivalent to a direct promise, left his presence in full expectation of having their requests granted.

It is more than probable that La Trobe forgot they were in existence an hour after they had left his room of audience. And the neglect or opposition of the head of the Government to what suitors deemed their fair demands was no doubt in many instances contrasted with his specious and insinuating manner, which had led them to regard him as their friend. The disappointed were more deeply irritated than if he had refused their requests and plainly informed them of the reasons which prevented him from granting them. The great cause of La Trobe's unpopularity however was the line of conduct he followed during the period he held office as Superintendent. In the first phase of its political existence Port Phillip was a dependency of a dependency, the form of government being an irresponsible despotism. Whatever was done amiss was unwillingly borne by the colonists, because the blame could not be placed at the door of any officer of the Government. La Trobe disavowed all responsibility, declaring that he was only the nominee of the Governor and Executive Council of N.S.W. There is little doubt however that he was allowed to govern Port Phillip according to the dictates of his own judgment; for whatever faults may have been attributed to Sir George Gipps he has never been accused of duplicity, and he stated that he was glad when La Trobe arrived, and since then the administration of the affairs of Port Phillip might be truly said to be the administration of La Trobe; the Governor had acceded to all his wishes as far as he could, and on no occasion had he found it necessary to interfere with or censure any of his proceedings. This assurance was given by the Governor in the Legislative Council in the most solemn manner. The line of policy which La Trobe thought proper to pursue was calculated to stop the progress and injure the prosperity of the district. During the extended period that he administered the Government as Superintendent he never assisted the struggling colonists to obtain that justice to which they were entitled and for which they were earnestly fighting. While public meetings and agitations of momentous importance to the district were being held in Melbourne, the Superintendent either kept aloof or assumed an attitude of direct hostility. The public documents connected with Port Phillip, which by the oversight or rashness of the Imperial Government were permitted to see the light, exhibited to the colonists the sad spectacle of the head of the local government arrayed against them. In no fewer than three instances was he thus found using his position to misrepresent the feelings and wishes of the colonists. He never during his extended term of Government, except in one instance—the landing of the convicts by the *Randolph*—incurred any responsibility or did one solitary act deserving of commendation; even after his elevation to the rank of Lieutenant-Governor, at the era of separation, he displayed few qualities likely to inspire confidence. His administration was notoriously

vacillating and pusillanimous. His proclamations were treated with derision by the people; rash and bold up to the very point when resistance seemed probable, he succumbed to the dictation of the diggers when they assumed an attitude of hostility or defiance towards his Government. Overbearing towards the people when he ought to have been conciliating, no sooner did symptoms of insurrection appear and it was necessary for him to exhibit firmness than he sank into a state half-way between timidity and imbecility. To his conduct in weakening the authority of the Government may be attributed the outrages which burst forth during the administration of his successor, and which helped to hurry that gentleman to an untimely grave. To his maladministration of the public lands may in a great measure be traced the terrible financial crisis of 1853-4, in which so many persons had their hopes blasted and their fortunes ruined. He shut up the whole of the lands during the first years of the gold diggings, not alone in the country but also in the suburbs of Melbourne, and the inevitable consequence was that there being no legitimate outlet for surplus capital in Crown lands it went into other investments, such as lands already alienated—which were thus raised to an exorbitant price—and merchandise and other property. Private landowners occupied themselves in subdividing their suburban lots into very small pieces, and enormous speculation went on in them. In the very midst of this the Government began a new line of conduct, and threw great quantities of suburban land into the market, thus reducing it again to its legitimate price. But those who had been speculating at the fictitious rates were ruined, and they involved many others; then came the scarcity of money, which was increased by the drain from the enormous Government land sales. Many of the old colonists of standing had at one period a portion of their capital embarked in squatting pursuits, and La Trobe went as far as he possibly could in favour of this powerful body, who uniformly adhered to him. He supported all religious and charitable institutions, not only from the public funds, but also as his friends asserted from his private purse. There was moreover a particular clique who had received many favours from him, and who were constantly sounding his praise; but however La Trobe was lauded or tolerated by many in the colony there were few reflecting minds who had not long earnestly desired his recall. This was so long deferred upon one frivolous pretence after another that the public mind became quiescent; and the people began to consider him as a fixture. When his departure was at length announced he was deeply sympathised with in consequence of a severe family bereavement which he had just experienced. Those who condemned the Governor could not help feeling for the man who had grown grey amongst them and who was now quitting their shores in trouble and distress. The Press had moreover commented

pretty freely upon his public conduct, and not a few who did not enter very deeply into the great public question which had been at issue between the Governor and the people looked upon the former as a martyr to editorial vindictiveness. There can be no doubt that with his fair abilities and unimpeachable private character, he might have acquired very great popularity had he been unequivocally honest and straightforward in his public capacity, and even if he had not joined the people in obtaining justice, had only acted an impartial part in the struggle. It must be admitted that Port Phillip was at this time in a very peculiar position; and perhaps, had La Trobe been in the first instance sent out as Governor he would have given much more general satisfaction, and the historian might have been spared the disagreeable task of severely censuring his public actions. He was not perhaps worse than the majority of officials who in former days, previous to the era of responsible government, held an almost irresponsible power from Downing street; indeed he was not so haughty and overbearing as many of the order who were to be met with in the colonies. He was accessible and generally courteous, as has already been stated. That he sacrificed the dearest interests of V. to please his superiors in Sydney can be too easily demonstrated. It is probable that had the interests of his people and those of the authorities in N.S.W. been identical, he would have been pleased, but the contrary being the case he devoted himself heart and mind to gratify the hostile view of the latter without any compunction of conscience. The Governor of N.S.W. at an early period in his career was not so inimical to the interests of Port Phillip as the other members of the Executive Council who wished to plunder its revenues, in order that they might use them in improving the middle district, and they found La Trobe willing to aid them in this system of national spoliation. It will thus be evident that any impartial historian must condemn La Trobe and his system of government. He displayed an almost undisguised antagonism to free institutions and social progress—he retarded the separation of the southern district from N.S.W. as long as possible, he prevented money actually voted by the Legislature of N.S.W. for public works urgently required from being expended; and this moreover at a period of great distress, when many families were out of employment and had to seek for it in other countries." On the other hand the colonists owe to La Trobe the reservation of the fine parks and gardens around Melbourne, and the initiation of the Yan Yean Water Supply Scheme. In early life he published two books of travel entitled, *The Alpenstock* and the *Rambler in Mexico*.

LA TROBE RIVER, in the district of Gipps Land, V., rises near Mount Baw Baw and, dividing the Australian Alps from Strzelecki's range falls into Lake Wellington. It was named after Governor La Trobe.

LAUGHING JACKASS, the Australian kingfisher, a bird well-known in the forests by its peculiar harsh and mocking note. The name it vulgarly bears is a corruption of the French word *Jacasser*, "to chatter," and the correct form is the "Laughing Jacasse." In works on natural history it is described as the Great Brown Kingfisher. It agrees very nearly with the kingfishers in its form and character, but differs from them in its habits, not frequenting waters nor feeding on fish, but preying on beetles, reptiles and small mammalia. It is about eighteen inches long and mostly of a brown colour. The natives call it *Gogobera*, apparently in imitation of its cry. It is of great use in preventing the excessive multiplication of reptiles and other pests. Its bill is powerful enough to crush the heads of snakes. It is easily tamed and is sometimes kept in gardens, from which it does not seek to escape.

LAUNCESTON, the second town in T. and the principal one on the northern coast, is situated on the River Tamar, about forty miles from its mouth, at the conflux of the North and South Esk Rivers, here about fifty yards across. It lies in a valley enclosed by hills. It is distant 120 miles N. from Hobart Town, with which there is communication by railway. The first settlement on the northern side of the island was formed in the year 1804 by Colonel Paterson, who when in charge of a small party of prisoners took up his abode at York Town on the western arm of the River Tamar. In 1806 he removed to the country above the North Esk which flows into the Tamar, where he found extensive plains suitable for pasturage and tillage, now known as Patterson's Plains or St. Leonards. The northern settlement was at first called Port Dalrymple, but it being deemed advisable to form a seaport town for the convenience of the northern portion of the island, the valley on which Launceston now stands was chosen as a site. The name of Launceston was given to the place from a town of that name in Cornwall in England, and that of Tamar to the river on which it is situated from the English river of that name which divides Cornwall from Devonshire; both names being given no doubt as a compliment to Captain King, Governor of N.S.W., whose father was a native of Launceston in England. The appearance of the town as seen on entering it riverwards, with its profusely wooded background, its hills studded with pretty villa residences, and the majestic mountains in the far distance, is picturesque in the extreme. The principal streets run E. and W. or N. and S., and are intersected by cross streets. The population is about 10,000. The streets are well lighted with gas by a local company, and water is laid on to every house in the town proper. For the simple mode which has been adopted to convey the water to Launceston, the inhabitants are indebted to the late John Lamont, who knowing the country and having great power of observation saw that at a particular point on the St. Patrick River there was a natural fall to Launceston. Although not an

engineer he convinced the authorities; a simple diversion was made, a small tunnel formed, when a continuous stream flowed to within a couple of miles of the town. From this point, the elevation being still higher than the town, it is conveyed by pipes to the several reservoirs; and that which at one time appeared so difficult was ultimately effected with the greatest ease. The town was incorporated on 1st November 1858 and is governed by a Mayor and eight Aldermen. There are many fine public buildings, public gardens and a public library. The principal ecclesiastical building is St. John's Episcopal Church, the foundation of which was laid on 28th December 1824. Launceston is noted for its salubrity as well as its picturesque situation, and the scenery of the Esk River in the neighbourhood is extremely fine, there being a deep gorge and a fine cataract.

LAURENCE ISLANDS are situated off Cape Sir William Grant, in V., near the town of Portland. They were discovered by Grant and named after Captain Laurence, one of the elder brethren of the Trinity House. These islands bear from Cape Sir William Grant S.E. twelve miles distant.

LAWSON, LIEUTENANT, in 1813, with Blaxland and Wentworth, led an expedition into the Blue Mountains in N.S.W. which was very successful, for the long-sought pass was discovered. Crossing the Nepean River at Emu Plains they ascended the first range of mountains and speedily got entangled in its deep ravines; but continuing their search they at length found a spur trending westward, which they climbed, and from the summit of it looked down upon a valley of beautiful richness, well grassed and well watered. Descending into the valley down the slopes of Mount York they found the country improving as they went on, and after a toilsome march of eight or ten miles they found that the worst difficulties had all been surmounted; but as their provisions were expended they were obliged to return to Sydney after an absence of little more than a month.

LEARY, JOSEPH (1831—) an attorney of the Supreme Court N.S.W., entered the Assembly as representative for Narellan in 1861, and with the exception of three years has sat in the house ever since. He was elected for the Murrumbidgee in 1874, and in December 1877 accepted office as Minister of Justice in the Farnell Government, retiring with his party in December 1878.

LEEUWIN CAPE, the south westernmost point of the continent, was discovered in 1622 and named Landt de Leeuwin, or the Land of Lions, after the ship of the Dutch discoverer. It lies 136 miles from Swan River, the distance to King George's Sound being 150 miles.

LEFROY, SIR J. H. (1817) Acting-Governor of T., is a lieutenant-general in the British army. He entered the Royal Artillery in 1834; was director of the magnetical and meteorological observatory at St. Helena in 1840-1; made a

magnetic survey of the continent of North America, from Montreal to the Arctic Circle in 1843-4; was appointed to the War Office as scientific adviser to the Duke of Newcastle on subjects of artillery and inventions in December 1854; and was sent on a special mission to the seat of war in the Crimea in 1855, and to the Mediterranean fortresses in 1859. He has also filled the position of Inspector-general of Army Schools, and Secretary to the Ordnance Select Committee. He was afterwards president of the same committee, and Director-general of Ordnance, as well as a member of the Royal Commission on National Defences and on military education. General Lefroy was Governor of Bermuda from 1870 to 1877.

LEFROY, H. M., explorer, superintendent of convicts, and Robinson, with a party of four men equipped by the W.A. Government in May 1863, penetrated eastward from York district to long. 122° 40' to the lake which bears the leader's name. They were three months in the field, and much valuable pastoral and agricultural land was found. The distance traversed was about 400 miles.

LEIGH, SAMUEL (1785-1851) first Wesleyan Methodist missionary in Australia, was a native of England, and came to N.S.W. in 1815. On his arrival the Governor discouraged him, but he enlisted the patronage of the Rev. Samuel Marsden. On 16th March 1816 he held his first service, and had a total congregation of forty-four members; his first sermon was preached in a private house in Sydney. Leigh visited England in 1818 and returned to the colonies in 1820, settling in N.Z., where he founded the mission of the Wesleyan body. When Marsden visited N.Z. in 1823 he found Leigh at Wangaroa very ill, and he invited him to accompany him in a voyage to Sydney for the benefit of his health. They embarked on 6th September. On the following day their vessel was wrecked in Kororarika Bay, but the missionaries escaped with their lives, and Leigh reached the station in safety. In consequence of failing health he left N.Z. for N.S.W., but after a few years in Sydney he retired in 1831, and for a time resumed circuit employment in England, where he died in 1851.

LE GRAND'S BAY, on the south coast of the continent, was named after the seaman who discovered it in D'Entrecasteaux's expedition.

LEICHHARDT, LUDWIG (1814 - 1848) explorer, a native of Prussia, was educated in Paris, and came to N.S.W. in 1840. He passed some time in the Moreton Bay District making exploratory journeys, which eventually laid the foundation of Q. In 1844 Sir Thomas Mitchell invited Leichhardt to accompany him in an expedition to the shores of Carpentaria. As Mitchell was unable to leave Sydney that year Leichhardt accepted the command of the expedition, and started from Sydney on 13th August 1844. The party consisted of, besides Leichhardt as leader, J. S. Calvert, J. Gilbert naturalist, J. Murphy a lad of sixteen,

Pemberton, Hodgson, an American negro and two aboriginals. The journey was entirely a coast route. The eastern slope of the coast range consists of extensive terraces of pastoral land. Along these slopes Leichhardt led his party with abundance of water for the cattle, but the party suffered much from the natives, and on one occasion the naturalist Gilbert was killed and two others were dangerously wounded. The sufferings of the party also from want of provisions and water were very great. In a letter addressed to Professor Owen, read at the annual meeting of the British Association in July 1845, and which accompanied a box of fossil bones from Darling Downs, Leichhardt describes his life in terms which sound sadly and strangely affecting now that after succeeding in his first he perished in his second enterprise:—"Living here as the bird who lives from tree to tree—living on the kindness of a friend fond of my science, or on the hospitality of the settler and squatter, with a little mare I travelled more than 2500 miles zigzag from Newcastle to Wide Bay, being often my own groom, cook, washerwoman, geologist and botanist at the same time; and I delighted in this life. When next you hear of me it will be either that I am lost and dead or that I have succeeded in penetrating through the interior to Port Essington." More than once the bronze-winged pigeon flying to water saved them from dying of thirst. After a journey of fifteen months the expedition reached Port Essington on 17th December 1845, nearly famished and naked, and with no stores left nor any animals except the horses which they rode upon. After a month's stay at the settlement the party returned by sea to Port Jackson. The people of Sydney were overjoyed to see them again, as it was thought they had perished in the wilderness. To the parties engaged in this expedition the Legislative Council voted £1000, and £1500 was raised by private subscription for the same purpose. Of these two sums £1450 were presented to Leichhardt. He lost no time in preparing a second expedition for the purpose of "exploring the interior of A., the extent of Sturt's desert, and the character of the western and north-western coast, and to observe the gradual change in vegetation and animal life from one side of the continent to the other." This expedition set out in December 1846. On this occasion however he was not so successful. He had taken with him great flocks of sheep and goats and they impeded his progress so much that, after wandering over the Fitzroy Downs for about seven months, he was forced to return. In 1848 he organised a third expedition to cross the whole continent from E. to W. He proposed to start from Moreton Bay and to take two years in traversing the centre of the continent and reaching the Swan River settlement. He started with a large party and soon reached the Cogoon River, a tributary of the Condamine. From this point he sent to a friend in Sydney the following letter:—"I take the last

opportunity of giving you an account of my progress. For eleven days we travelled from Mr. Birell's station on the Condamine to Mr. Macpherson's on the Fitzroy Downs. Though the country was occasionally very difficult yet everything went on well. My mules are in excellent order, my companions in excellent spirits. Three of my cattle are footsore, but I shall kill one of them to-night to lay in our necessary stock of dried beef. The Fitzroy Downs over which we travelled, or about twenty-two miles from east to west, is indeed a splendid region, and Sir Thomas Mitchell has not exaggerated their beauty in his account. The soil is pebbly and sound, richly grassed, and to judge from the myall, of most fattening quality. I came right on Mount Abundance and passed over a gap of it with my whole train. My latitude agreed well with Mitchell's. I fear that the absence of water on Fitzroy Downs will render this fine country to a great degree unavailable. I observe the thermometer daily at six a.m. and p.m., which are the only convenient hours. I have tried the wet thermometer, but I am afraid my observations will be very deficient. I shall however improve on them as I proceed. The only serious accident that has happened was the loss of a spade; but we are fortunate enough to make it up on this station, where the superintendent is going to spare us one of his. Though the days are still very hot the beautiful clear nights are cool, and benumb the mosquitoes, which have ceased to trouble us. Myriads of flies are the only annoyance we have. Seeing how much I have been favoured in my present progress, I am full of hope that our Almighty Protector will allow me to bring my darling scheme to a successful termination.—Your most sincere friend, LUDWIG LEICHHARDT. Mr. Macpherson's Station, Cogoon, 3rd April 1848." Of the fate of himself and his party nothing is certainly known. It is certain that he made direct for the banks of the Barcoo. Gregory some ten years afterwards started from Sydney to discover if possible some traces of the lost expedition. So far into the interior as the 146th meridian Gregory found a tree marked L., after which no further trace could be found on the Barcoo, and he arrived at the conclusion that the expedition had at this point abandoned the Barcoo and passed up the Thomson. Shortly after Leichhardt left the settled districts a rumour gained currency that he had been murdered by the blacks at Cooper's Creek. Many believed this rumour, as from the time he left the Darling Downs no tidings were ever heard of him, but there were others who held a contrary opinion. For eighteen years he was never heard of, and it was not until the year 1866 or thereabouts that it was discovered that Leichhardt had penetrated the country as far as the upper waters of the Flinders River. In this neighbourhood several trees marked with the letter "L" were found and also a number of horses. The discovery induced the ladies of Victoria to send McIntyre and a party in search of Leichhardt, but the

expedition failed through the death of the leader. It was a strange fact that McIntyre reached Leichhardt's marked trees on the Upper Flinders, and then through the drought succumbed to fever and died. From that time to the present nothing had been heard of the celebrated explorer, until an explorer named Hume made a doubtful statement to the Sydney authorities. It will be interesting to read the last letter written by Leichhardt previous to his leaving the settled districts. It is dated from Darling Downs on the 22nd February 1848, and is addressed to his brother-in-law C. Schmalfuss, Cobüis, Prussia. It is written in German and the translation is from the pen of Leichhardt's old companion and friend, Baron Von Mueller, who has never ceased to hope against hope and to preserve with an affectionate reverence every record of the expedition:—"Darling Downs, 22nd February, 1848.—Four months have passed since I announced to you my return from the Peak Ranges. I have used this time to prepare the outfit for a new expedition, and shall be ready in a few days to penetrate once more into the interior of Australia, and—if Providence grants me strength—to cross the whole continent. I have endeavoured to find good and able followers, and believe that Classen will be adapted for my enterprise, although a land journey is very essentially different from the most difficult sea voyage. Another friend, Mr. Hentig, has joined my party. I have engaged three working men and take with me also two aborigines, one of whom accompanied me in my last expedition. The whole party (of my companions) consists therefore of seven and these I hope will be completely sufficient. I have at present twenty mules, seven horses and fifty oxen; twenty of the latter are a present from Mr. Robinson and thirty are presented to me by the government of New South Wales. I informed you that Mr. Kennedy had been sent out by the government to trace the Victoria River of Sir Thomas Mitchell, which had not yet been fully explored. Mr. Kennedy has returned and found that this river trends to the south and is lost in the desert, and that it is probably identical with Cooper's Creek of Captain Sturt. I am therefore again alone in the field and believe to be able to solve many interesting problems if I succeed in skirting the northern limits of the desert. The change (after the season of drought and returning rains) from almost a cessation of vegetable life and a desolate, joyless state of nature to a fresh and luxuriant growth of plants, and to an everywhere active insect life, reminds of Humboldt's description of the Savannahs on the commencement of the rainy season. I was rejoiced to learn that the Royal Geographical Society of London honoured me with the bestowal of one of its medals, and that the Geographic Society of Paris has distinguished me in a similar manner. I am of course grateful that gentlemen so learned have deemed me worthy of such an honour, but I have

striven not for reward but for science, and for science only, and shall do so also in future, even if no one cared about me. I should fear to lose the blessing of Providence were I to yield to vanity, and should the pure, unostentatious and toilsome search for truth become mixed with strivings for acknowledgments or renown. Although I feel strong enough for this new long journey yet I cannot suppress the fact that my constitution has suffered much, particularly during my last explorings, and that I possess far less muscular strength than four years ago, when I commenced my first extensive wanderings. I suffer particularly from palpitations of the heart, which render me frequently not a little uneasy." The Legislative Council of N.S.W. voted a pension of £100 per annum to Madame Leichhardt, the mother of the explorer; and the sum of £2000 was voted to fit out an expedition for the search. An expedition under Hovenden Hely was undertaken in January 1852. The party consisted of seven white men and three blacks, was provided with sixteen horses and fifteen mules, and supplied with provisions for nine months. But very little information of the fate of the explorer was obtained.

LIDDELL, JAMES (1807-76) a native of Scotland, arrived when nineteen years of age in Sydney as chief officer of a brig. In 1830 he had charge of the brig *Admiral Gifford* bound on a trading voyage to N.Z. She was one of the first vessels sent on such an expedition from Sydney, and from his kindly disposition he succeeded so well with the natives that he was induced to undertake several other voyages thither in the *Hannah*. In 1832 he arrived in Launceston as sailing master of the *Jolly Rambler*, and there first made the acquaintance of the Messrs. Henty, who gave him charge of their schooner *Thistle* engaged in the trade to Swan River. Whilst prosecuting one of these voyages he put into Portland Bay, and was so much struck with the beauty and fertility of the soil that he recommended the place to his owners as a desirable locality for settlement. After making other voyages to Portland the *Thistle* was sent on a trading voyage to N.Z. Just prior to starting, news came to hand that Captain McLean and the crew of the *John Dunscombe* were in the hands of the natives there, and Captain Liddell had orders from the Messrs. Henty to rescue them at all cost. He succeeded in relieving the crew and supplying them with articles for trade. About this time he purchased the schooner *Industry*, and amongst other ventures she was chartered by J. P. Fawcner to bring stock to Melbourne. In 1838 Captain Liddell was whaling out of Hobart Town, and in one voyage he filled his vessel up in less than six weeks with whales killed between Cape Schank and Wilson's Promontory. Being much impressed with N.Z. he in 1842 settled at Kawhia where he cultivated a tract of land purchased from the natives, with whom he soon established friendly relations, and built himself a small vessel to convey produce to Taranaki, Auckland and other ports.

After some time his homestead was destroyed by fire, and that event induced him to break up his N.Z. home and returned to Melbourne, where he eventually joined the Victorian pilot service.

LIGHT, COLONEL WILLIAM (1784-1838) first Surveyor-General of S.A., was of mixed European and Malayan race. His father, a captain of a trader to India, married the daughter of the sovereign of the Malacca Territory, King Tnedah, who gave as his daughter's dowry the Island of Penang, afterwards called Prince of Wales Island, when the sovereignty of the island was made over to the British Crown, at the instance of Captain Light. William Light received a good education and made many distinguished friends, being occasionally a guest at Carlton House. He entered the military service as a cavalry officer, and served in the Peninsular war as lieutenant of the Fourth Light Dragoons. He spoke several languages fluently, amongst others French and Spanish, and was employed in the intelligence department of the army, mixing with Spanish families, and obtaining valuable information of the movements of the French, which on several occasions was of signal service to Lord Wellesley. After the peace Light returned to England, and when news arrived of the escape of Napoleon from Elba, he was appointed brigademajor to the Heavy Brigade. Shortly after he was promoted to the rank of captain, but subsequently left the army. He accompanied Sir Robert Wilton however to Spain, to aid in the Spanish revolutionary war, and received the rank of colonel in the Spanish forces. After this he accepted service in the navy of the Pasha of Egypt, when he became acquainted with Captain Hindmarsh, who was also in the Pasha's service, and negotiating to obtain the command of the Egyptian fleet. Hindmarsh then accepted the Governorship of S.A., and Light was appointed Surveyor-General. He was entrusted with full authority to select and survey the site for the City of Adelaide. Early in 1837 these duties were completed, and the first selection and sale of lands took place in March of that year. Shortly after this, owing to a disagreement with the then ruling Commissioners, Light resigned his appointment as Surveyor-General and became the head of the firm of Light, Finnis and Co., undertaking the survey of Port Adelaide, the brig *Rapid* being placed at his disposal for that purpose. In the following year his health, which had been for some time failing, broke down, and he died shortly after the arrival in the colony of Governor Gawler. His remains lie interred in a vault under an obelisk, erected to his memory by a few of his friends, the earliest colonists of S.A.

LIGHT RIVER, a river of S.A. flowing into St. Vincent's Gulf. It receives the Gilbert and Wakefield, and was named after Colonel Light the first Surveyor of S.A.

LILLEY, CHARLES, jurist, is a native of Newcastle-on-Tyne in England, and was educated at University College, London. He arrived in

N.S.W. in 1856; after a short stay in Sydney he proceeded to Moreton Bay the same year and was articulated to Robert Little, Crown Solicitor. He took an active part as a writer and speaker in the agitation for the separation of Moreton Bay from N.S.W.; became editor (and joint lessee with W. C. Belbridge) of the *Moreton Bay Courier*; was elected in 1860, on the foundation of the colony, to the first Parliament of Q. as member for Fortitude Valley, which electorate he continued to represent until 1874, having been nine times elected. He was called to the Bar of Q. in 1861; and accepted office in 1865 as Attorney-General in the Administration of Herbert then Premier of the colony and now permanent Under-Secretary for the colonies. He was also Attorney-General in the Macalister Administration in 1866; Premier and Attorney-General on the defeat of the Mackenzie-Palmer Administration in November 1868; and Colonial Secretary in November 1869. He established free education in all the Primary Schools of Q., commencing from 1st January 1870; a reform which has from that time continued. This was the first establishment of free education as a public right in Australia, and the example was followed by V. in 1872. In consequence of the A. S. N. Company's demanding a high subsidy with privileges for carrying the Q. mails, Lilley ordered in 1869 from Mort and Co. three ocean steamers; the *Governor Blackall*, one of the three, being the first ocean steamer completely built and fitted in the colonies. The Company then accepted a subsidy of one-third of their previous demand. Lilley was also mainly instrumental in establishing the Brisbane Grammar School. He is Chairman of the Trustees, and has founded gold and silver medals for competition. He obtained from the University of London consent to hold matriculation examination in Brisbane. He had previously obtained from Parliament a statute to promote this object in connection with the London and Colonial Universities. Whilst in office he insisted on retrenchment and economy, refusing to borrow until 1870. This policy was of course not popular. In 1870 the Parliament disapproving his action in building the *Governor Blackall* without Parliamentary vote, he resigned office and was succeeded by Palmer. After the general election under the new Act, the Palmer Ministry were defeated on the election of the Speaker and resigned. Lilley refused office in the succeeding Macalister Ministry. In February 1874 he was appointed acting Judge of the Supreme Court. In July he was permanently appointed Judge, a position he still holds. Lilley has always taken an active interest in education and law reform. He was Chairman of the Royal Commission on Education in 1874, which resulted in the free system being embodied in the Statute Law. He was also Chairman of a Royal Commission on Law Reform in 1872, which led to the adoption of the English Judicature Act in Q.

LINCOLN, PORT, in S.A., is a large indentation in the land lying on the S.W. coast of

Spencer's Gulf, and having an entrance five and a-half miles wide between Cape Donnington and Boston Point. It affords shelter from all winds. Port Lincoln consists of three bays or branches—Port Lincoln proper, Spalding Cove and Boston Bay—and has a large island just within its entrance (Boston Island) and forming the entrance into two channels. There are also some small islands called the Bicker Islands lying between Boston Island and Cape Donnington. Its name was given to it by Flinders the discoverer, who called it after his native county, and who spent his time from the latter end of February until the 6th March in surveying and naming the various places in and near it. He describes the land in the neighbourhood as exceedingly rich and the scenery beautiful, an opinion shared by Peron and Freycinet in their account of Baudin's Expedition. They describe it as having "shores of gently rising slopes covered with umbrageous forests," and as bearing certain indications of rivulets and copious springs, comparing it in appearance and capacity with Port Jackson in N.S.W. Notwithstanding this, and although in the words of Eyre, "Port Lincoln possesses a beautiful, secure and spacious harbour, with a convenient and pretty site for a town, and immediately contiguous to which there exists some extent of fine and fertile soil, with several good grassy patches of country beyond," yet from its comparative isolation and the limited nature of its resources it is not likely to become more than a settlement available for grazing, and certainly never important, as both Flinders and the French explorers thought probable. Near the entrance to this port is a small hill, upon the summit of which stands a white obelisk erected by Sir John Franklin in memory of Flinders, under whom Franklin served in the Terra Australis voyages of discovery. It is much weather-worn and is encased in colonial marble in order to preserve it. The following inscription is engraved upon it:—"This place, from which the gulf and its shores were first surveyed, on the 26th Feb. 1802, by Matthew Flinders R.N., commander of H.M.S. *Investigator*, and the discoverer of the country now called South Australia, was, on the 12th January 1841, with the sanction of Lieut.-Colonel Gawler K.H., the governor of the country, set apart for, and in the first year of the government of Captain G. Grey, adorned with this monument to the perpetual memory of the illustrious navigator, by John Franklin, Captain R.N., Lieutenant-Governor of Van Diemen's Land."

LINDESAY, COLONEL SIR PATRICK, was Acting-Governor of N.S.W. after the departure of Sir Ralph Darling, from 22nd October to 2nd December 1831.

LINDESAY, MOUNT, a mountain of N.S.W. in the district of Clarence River. It is at the head of the Tweed River. Its elevation above the level of the sea is 5700 feet. It was named by Oxley after Colonel Lindesay.

LINDESAY RIVER, in N.S.W., flows into the Lower Murray, and was named by Sturt after Colonel Lindesay.

LIVERPOOL, one of the earliest Government settlements in N.S.W., is situated on the George's River, 22 miles S. from Sydney. The population is about 2000. The surrounding district is mainly taken up in dairy farms. Moore College in connection with the Episcopal Church is situated here. There is also an extensive paper mill belonging to Williams and Murray, which was enlarged in 1878 and supplied with the newest machinery, together with water-supply ponds at an outlay which brings the total cost of the works to £80,000. It was started in 1869 and came under the present proprietary in 1874 and is the largest establishment of the kind in Australia. News, printing, writing and the better class of wrappings are manufactured. The firm has an extensive connection in the colonies, and supplies many of the principal newspapers in Australia and N.Z. It is known as the Collingwood paper mill. A smaller paper mill is at work on the opposite bank of the George River. The river is navigable for vessels of 400 tons as far as the paper mills. There are also two large woolwashing establishments, a fellmongery, a saw mill and a tannery. Liverpool was proclaimed a municipality on the 27th June 1872. The district was settled in 1810.

LIVERPOOL PLAINS (native name COBBON COMLEROV) is the name given to a tract of pastoral land containing 10,000,000 of acres in the N.E. part of N.S.W. It was discovered by Oxley in 1818 and named after Lord Liverpool. It is supposed to have been at one time the bed of an immense inland lake. Much of the land is under cultivation, and the district contains the following diggings—Hanging Rock, Nundle, Peel River, Wood's Reef, Ironbarks and Barraba. The estate of the Australian Agricultural Company within the boundaries of this district comprise 562,896 acres, together with 437,102 acres in the county of Gloucester, altogether 1,000,000 acres. This district contains the greatest extent of pastoral country of any in N.S.W., and is bounded by two parallel ranges of mountains, from which narrow belts of forest traverse the plains at irregular intervals and divide them into a series of natural parallelograms. The principal ranges and mountains are the Great Liverpool Range, from which all the rivers run eastward and westward, and the source of nearly all the leading streams to the northward of Sydney; Warrabungle, or the Arbuthnot Range, dividing this district from the district of Bligh; Mount Exmouth whose elevation is 3000 feet. Tamworth is the chief town in this district, situated on the river Peel, in the estate of the Australian Agricultural Company, at the distance of about 254 miles from Sydney.

LLOYD, GEORGE ALFRED, a native of London, came to N.S.W. in 1833 and settled as a farmer on the Williams River; in 1840 he settled

in Sydney and began business as general merchant. He was one of the first buyers of gold-dust in 1851. He first entered into political life in 1869 when he defeated Martin at Newcastle, and took his seat for that constituency in the Assembly. He was several times re-elected; was Postmaster-General and afterwards Colonial Treasurer in the Parkes Ministry, which lasted from May 1872 to February 1875; and Minister for Mines in the Parkes Ministry of 1877, but was defeated for Newcastle at the general election in 1877.

LOCKYER, MAJOR. The alarm caused in 1827 by the reported intention of the French to found a settlement on the Australian shores induced Governor Darling to send from Sydney a detachment of soldiers, under Major Lockyer and Captain Barker of the 39th Regiment, to King George's Sound, where a site for a township was chosen at Albany. This military post was maintained for four years, when in 1830 after the foundation of the colony of W.A., it was transferred to the Government at Swan River. The French Government on hearing of the settlement abandoned all intentions of taking possession of any part of Australia.

LODDON RIVER, a river of V. which rises near Mount Alexander and flows into the Murray near Swan Hill. It was called the Yarrayne by Mitchell, but was afterwards named from an English river which in some respects it resembles.

LOFTUS, VISCOUNT (1817—) Governor of N.S.W., is fourth son of the second Marquis of Ely. He was educated at Cambridge. Entering the Diplomatic Service he became Attaché at Berlin in 1837; paid Attaché at Stuttgart in 1844; served with the special missions at Berlin and Vienna in 1848; was appointed Secretary of the Legation at Stuttgart in 1852; transferred to Berlin in 1853; acted as Chargé d'Affaires there during portions of the years 1853, 1855, 1857; appointed Envoy at Vienna in March 1858; transferred to Berlin in 1860; to Munich in 1862; returned to Berlin in 1865; accredited to the North German Confederation in 1868. In July 1871 he was appointed to replace Sir Andrew Buchanan as Ambassador at St. Petersburg, and during the whole period of the Russo-Turkish war, when the relations between England and Russia were strained to the utmost tension so that much tact and coolness was necessary, Lord Loftus represented England at the Russian Court. Having expressed a wish to retire from this position in order to recruit his health, he was appointed Governor of N.S.W. on 7th February 1879.

LOFTY, MOUNT, a conspicuous mountain in S.A., is the highest peak of that part of the main or Adelaide Ranges known as the Mount Loftly Ranges. It attains an elevation of 2400 feet above the level of the sea. It lies about twelve miles from Adelaide in an E.S.E. direction, there being a good carriage road to the summit, whence a magnificent view over the fertile Adelaide Flat and the intervening

ranges and far out into the Gulf of St. Vincent may be had on a clear day. The drive is one of the prettiest in the colonies, the road being good although steep in one or two places, and the views from the angles and windings of the route are charming.

LOGAN, CAPTAIN, was commandant of the settlement at Moreton Bay in 1830. Towards the close of that year he was killed by the blacks under circumstances which stamped the aborigines of the northern colony with that character of ferocious cruelty which they have since maintained. The commandant had been for some time engaged in surveying and making a chart of the northern part of the territory for the public service. He had nearly completed his labours, and proceeded on the expedition in which he met his death for the purpose of making his final survey. Having proceeded about seventy miles from the coast, in the direction of a height called Mount Irwin, his party consisting of six men, he was encountered by a group of natives, who from the first manifested no friendly feeling. The blacks having gone away and the party having camped for the day, the captain proceeded to take a solitary ride, saying that he would return in time for dinner. The men, who had a great dread of the blacks, remonstrated with their leader against exposing himself alone to the dangers by which they were surrounded. He made light of their fears, remarking that he had frequently put to flight numbers of blacks by merely presenting a bottle instead of a pistol, and went his way. The afternoon passed, the sun set, and night found the party at the camp still vainly straining their eyes in the direction whence they expected their leader to come. A night of anxious gloom passed over and morning came, but the captain came not. The men proceeded to search the surrounding woods, and having spent the whole of that day in fruitless wanderings, they hastened back to the settlement and reported the distressing circumstances under which they had been separated from their leader. Captain Clunie, the next in command, lost no time in adopting measures likely to lead to the recovery of his friend and fellow-officer. A strong party was dispatched in the direction of the camp with instructions to traverse the forest far and near. On the fifth day after the commencement of the search traces of the missing soldier were discovered. Ten miles from the camp a saddle was found hanging on a tree with the stirrup leather cut away, apparently by an aboriginal tomahawk. The men redoubled their efforts and at some distance from the saddle was found, stained with blood, the vest of the captain. Scattered around and broken were a pocket compass and other instruments. Not far off in a creek was the carcase of a horse, and a little further on the lifeless body of Captain Logan, the side pierced with a spear and the head beaten in with waddies. His murderers had covered up the body with leaves. A minute inspection of the indications presented around enabled the men to glean

the circumstances under which the murder took place. It appeared that Captain Logan having tied his horse to a tree at the spot where the saddle was found, slept on some grass in a bark hut close by; subsequently while engaged roasting nuts for a scanty meal he was surprised by the blacks, when flying to his horse he mounted without either saddle or bridle. The horse thus accoutred being unmanageable soon stuck in the creek, and the pursuing blacks coming up despatched the rider, now completely at their mercy. The remains were conveyed to Sydney in the same vessel that bore the wife and two children of the deceased. The Government did honour to the memory of a skilful, active, and faithful officer by giving his remains a public funeral.

LOGAN RIVER, a river of N.S.W. which rises in Mount Lindesay, in the district of Clarence River, and flows through the county of Stanley, emptying itself into the southern passage to Moreton Bay.

Longbottom, William (1799—1849) first Wesleyan Minister in S.A., was sent as a Missionary to India in 1827 and after a few years returned to England. He left England for V.D.L. in 1838 in the barque *Fanny*, which was wrecked near the Murray mouth on the southern shore of S.A., the passengers and crew escaping safe to land. The Wesleyans in the colony having at this time no minister induced Longbottom to settle amongst them, and with the exception of about four years spent in T. he remained there until his death on 30th July 1849.

Lonsdale, William, first Chief Magistrate of the Port Phillip District, was a Captain in the 4th Regiment. He came to N.S.W. and entered the civil service, holding the position of police magistrate for several years. He was selected by Sir Richard Bourke as resident magistrate of the new settlement in September 1836, and held this position until the arrival of La Trobe as superintendent, when he was appointed sub-treasurer. On his elevation to the rank of Governor, La Trobe appointed Lonsdale first Colonial Secretary of the colony of V. He held this post from 16th July 1850 till the arrival of Forster with the appointment from Downing-street on 30th August 1853. "He was allowed," says McCombie, "to have been actuated by the purest motives, and was, notwithstanding his strict attachment to La Trobe, always a favourite with the people."

LORD, GEORGE WILLIAM (1818—) a native of Sydney, was elected to Parliament in 1856 for the Bogan district which he continued to represent until 1877, a period of twenty-one years, when he resigned, and accepted a seat in the Legislative Council which he still holds. He was Treasurer in Martin's Ministry from 1870 to 1872.

LORD HOWE'S ISLAND, an island in the S. Pacific Ocean lying between Port Jackson and Norfolk Island. It is remarkable as a haunt of

birds and for the quantity of turtle upon its shores. It was discovered and named by Lieutenant Ball after Admiral Lord Howe in 1788.

LOTOPHAGIANS COUNTRY (or Valley of Lagoons.) This extensive country was discovered by Leichhardt, and lies between the rivers Burdekin and Lynd. It is well adapted for cattle and sheep stations; the elevation of it from 2000 to 2800 feet above the level of the sea rendering it cool and fit for sheep. The ground is sound and the forest very open. It lies in the centre of York Peninsula equally distant from the E. coast and from the Gulf of Carpentaria.

LOWE, ROBERT, (1811—) is a native of Nottinghamshire in England, where his father was rector of Bingham. He was educated at Winchester Grammar School and University College, Oxford, and was elected a fellow of Magdalen College in 1835. In the summer of 1842, having been admitted a member of Lincoln's Inn, he threw up his Oxford appointment and embarked for N.S.W. On the 18th October on the motion of the Attorney-General, Lowe was admitted a barrister of the Supreme Court of the colony. He lost no time in securing the right to practise, but the briefs came so slowly that it was rumoured he would give up the profession altogether. No public notice was taken of his arrival, and for fourteen months he remained in complete obscurity. Then, to the surprise of everyone, he was nominated by the Governor as a member of the Legislative Council. At this period the struggle for obtaining representative Government was proceeding vigorously under the powerful leadership of Wentworth. Lowe subsequently spoke in high terms of the ability and character of the members of that body, which then contained several remarkable men. His first speech was made on the Monetary Confidence Bill brought in by Windeyer to alleviate the financial depression by circulating land debentures. It was against the measure, and excited universal admiration by its brilliancy and wit. This success was followed up by another speech on the third reading of the same measure, which passed the Council in spite of the vigorous opposition it met with, but never received the assent of the Crown. Lowe's words called up Wentworth the leader of the Opposition, who taunted him with his support of the authority which had given him legislative power. He acknowledged "the efforts of the hon. member from Horbury-terrace, smelling of the lamp as they did, and highly considered as they were, were nevertheless efforts of no small merit." Then he alluded to his antagonist's want of experience:—"All the opposition emanated from persons who were comparative strangers to the land, ignorant of its wants, ignorant of its history, and ignorant, in short, of everything connected with it." Dr. Nicholson said:—"The peroration of the speech of the member from Horbury-terrace was very beautiful;" and the *Morning Herald* the next day wrote:—"Mr. Lowe spoke in a strain of

eloquence to which even the learned member for Sydney was constrained to ascribe no small merit." On 16th December of the same year Lowe brought up the report of a committee on the Insolvency Law, and earnestly and eloquently urged the abolition of imprisonment for debt, a measure which subsequently became law and was the chief distinction of the first session of the Council. He vigorously opposed Wentworth's proposal to increase the duty on flour from 1s. to 2s. 6d., and also the proposal to admit natives as witnesses in criminal cases. His oration in the latter debate was a masterpiece of oratory. Soon afterwards a debate arose which brought Lowe still more prominently but less favourably before the public. Dr. Lang, who had been ejected by the local Presbyterian Synod, brought the temporalities of the Presbyterian Church under review in connection with the recent disruption of the Church of Scotland. In discussing this question of ecclesiastical law Lowe thought proper to give loose to all the personal bitterness pent up in his bosom. In sarcasm and invective his tongue, at all times sufficiently fluent, literally ran riot. In his speech Lowe had jeered at Dr. Lang for announcing his intention of bringing under the notice of the House the Australian Library, which though aided by Government funds had blackballed a certain Alderman Macdermott. This unlucky allusion was the cause of much trouble, for Macdermott after reading the speech sent a friend, Dr. Macfarlane, asking for an explanation. This Lowe refused to give as he considered himself privileged as a member of the Legislature. Next day the same gentleman reappeared at his chambers with Captain Moore, and demanded an apology or satisfaction. He refused to apologise, and declined a duel on three grounds—1. That he was not responsible for his words in the Council except to the Council. 2. He did not consider Macdermott his equal. 3. He was already bound to keep the peace. He at once filed an affidavit detailing these circumstances, and appeared at the police court, where Macdermott, Dr. Macfarlane, and Captain Moore were bound over to keep the peace. These disagreeable incidents were brought before the Council at its next sitting, and a committee was appointed to consider them. This was the first case of privilege, and it was a source of great perplexity. The committee were of opinion that the Council had not power to deal directly with the offender, but recommended that an Act should be passed securing this right. In the present case they proposed that the Attorney-General should prosecute Macdermott and his friends in the courts of law. These recommendations were carried after a long discussion by fifteen votes to thirteen, Lowe voting in the majority, and the prosecution accordingly was commenced, but fell through on technical grounds. Meanwhile public opinion was roused on the subject. At the request of a large number of citizens the Mayor called a public meeting, and resolutions were passed against the appropriation of public

money for the purpose of the prosecution and condemning the proposed legislation as oppressive and unjust. For the time Lowe was the most unpopular man in the colony, and the Council for the action it had taken shared the opprobrium. On the 21st August 1844 Dr. Lang, then one of the members for the Port Phillip district, moved a resolution affirming the desirability of separation. This secured the unanimous adhesion of the six members for the district, but Lowe was the only other member who gave them his support and vote. He sounded the keynote of the policy that the best and wisest of Australians still desire:—"He hoped the time was not remote when Great Britain would give up the idea of treating the dependencies of the Crown as children who were to be cast adrift from their parent as soon as they arrived at manhood, and substitute for it the far truer and nobler policy of knitting herself and her colonies into one mighty confederacy, confident against the world in arts and arms." The most important task before the Council was the assertion of constitutional rights in connection with the lands of the colony. Cowper had obtained a committee on Crown lands grievances of which Lowe was a member. Their report was a most able document, and it is not difficult to see traces of Lowe's logic in the argument against the Governor's right to levy charges upon the squatters and to appropriate the proceeds without the consent of the Council. The Council, ably led by Wentworth, Lowe and Cowper, never rested until it obtained the distinct declaration that the Crown lands should be under the control of the local Legislature. A subject more particularly connected at this time with Lowe's name was popular education. He had obtained a committee and brought up a report recommending the introduction of Lord Stanley's Irish scheme. This report at once raised a storm. The Anglican bishop summoned a meeting of Churchmen, which was adjourned and lasted over two nights. The clergy were opposed to anything but a denominational system, pure and simple. The friends of a general system induced the Mayor to convene a town meeting. Lowe on coming forward to move the first resolution was howled down with cries of "privilege, privilege." The meeting was so disorderly that the Mayor adjourned it until next day. This adjourned meeting was quite as bad, but at length on a third day the opponents of Lowe's views stayed away and able speeches were delivered in support of the recommendations of the committee. The Catholics held a meeting under the presidency of their bishop at which the proposals were temperately discussed, but they were adverse to the new scheme. The Council in spite of the clamour on the part of the denominationalists approved the committee's report. In successive sessions Lowe continued to press forward the subject, and in 1846 he succeeded in passing a resolution authorising the formation of a National Board. After Lowe had completed his education report he

resigned his seat as nominee member of the Council. When he was first appointed he was inexperienced in colonial politics, and his sympathies were with the Colonial Office. He expected that he could give a general support to the Government, though he was in no way pledged to do so. The colonial office had authorised the formation of district councils with powers of taxation for local objects. Sir George Gipps thoroughly approved of this, and in spite of the objection that the population of the colony was then too sparsely scattered for the councils to be anything but an intolerable burden, he endeavoured to force them on an unwilling people. Lowe soon became one of the bitterest opponents of this pet scheme of Sir George Gipps. He also had a personal difference with the Governor respecting the admission to his entertainments by the latter of some one with a very shady reputation. Lowe's opponents subsequently connected the two differences together, but without justification, for his conduct from the first day he took his seat was thoroughly independent, and he voted as often against the Government as with it. Before the commencement of the next session Lowe was again a member, this time as the representative of the district of St. Vincent. His opposition to the unconstitutional actions of the Governor, and his condemnation of the squatting regulations, had won him the support of squatters and settlers alike. His oratorical triumphs in the Assembly had brought him a considerable practice at the bar. In defending the prisoner Knatchbull he made use of an argument which drew upon him the charge of fatalism, and the Press attacked him for this somewhat unfairly. He defended himself with great spirit. In conjunction with William Forster and others he started a weekly paper, the *Atlas*, which waged incessant war against the Government, and particularly against the Governor. Article after article full of constitutional learning, enriched with classical and historical allusions, assailed with relentless logic the unconstitutional position of the Governor and the colonial office. At length Sir George Gipps left the colony. Lowe in opposing him had allied himself with the squatting party; but when the new Governor arrived, the independent party who in the first session of the Council had joined with the squatters in demanding for them fixity of tenure as a protection from the encroachments and impositions of the Crown, were now equally loud in denouncing their threatened monopoly of the land of the colony. In truth, on the land question he altered his views more than once, and thus incurred the charge of inconsistency. But he steadfastly opposed the squatting monopoly. Were the broad lands that could support millions to become a mere sheep-walk for the benefit of the few? This was the question which, supported by a small minority in the House and amid the indifference of the people outside he propounded to his fellow-colonists with a vehemence, a persistency, and an eloquence that have never been surpassed. These

efforts did not by any means absorb all Lowe's energies during the session of 1847. At its commencement he spoke with great effect on a bill for abolishing the division of the legal profession. At the conclusion of the session he called attention to the incipient slave trade with the islands of the Pacific. Already employers of labour had begun the system of importing Polynesians which has since led in some instances to deplorable results, at length calling for the intervention of the Imperial Government. In 1848 he opposed Earl Grey's proposal to constitute the Assembly by the election of local corporations or councils; and supported the plan of two houses of legislature. At the general election he was triumphantly returned for Sydney as colleague to Wentworth and amidst great rejoicings at the success of the popular party, of which he was now the acknowledged leader. In 1849 he strenuously opposed Earl Grey's malign project of renewing transportation, and also the base conduct of Sir Charles Fitzroy in seconding Earl Grey's efforts in spite of the repeated and passionate remonstrances of the people. On 1st August Lowe spoke at great length on the Budget, urging the House to use finance as the lever with which to force the British Parliament to grant them responsible government. A week later he brought the case of a clergyman, who had been suspended by the bishop, before the Council. The bishop's course was open to objection, and Lowe indulged his powers of sarcasm and invective to an unwarrantable extent. In the next month he brought up a report of the committee on the Sydney Corporation. The report proposed its abolition, and the speech in which Lowe moved the adoption of this recommendation manifested hostility not merely to this specimen but to corporate institutions generally. The land committee's report was also drawn up during the session, ably combating the views expressed in Downing-street and pointing out that many of the positions taken up by the advisers of the Government were simply due to their absolute ignorance of all local conditions. During the session Lowe had given his support to Wentworth's proposals to establish a university in Sydney, but on the last day of the session he combated certain proposals and suggested further consideration until the beginning of the next session. This led to a challenge from Dr. Bland, which however ended harmlessly. During the debates on the constitution Lowe had given no indications of any intention to leave his adopted country, but in the spring he determined to return to the old land and to seek power and distinction in the broader fields of English political life. He left N.S.W. in 1850. His subsequent career as an English statesman, till his elevation to the peerage as Lord Sherbrooke in 1880, forms no part of Australian history.

LUCAS, JOHN (1818—) is a native of Sydney. He entered Parliament for Canterbury in 1859, and in 1863 was elected for Hartley. He was Minister

for Mines in the Robertson Ministry in 1875-77. He again represents Canterbury in the Legislative Assembly.

LUSHINGTON VALLEY, in N.S.W. at the head of the York River in the District of Liverpool Plains. It was named by Oxley after the Secretary to His Majesty's Treasury.

LUTWYCHE, ALFRED JAMES PETER (1810—) Jurist, was called to the English Bar in 1840, and came to N.S.W. in 1853. In 1855 he was appointed Solicitor-General, and in 1858 became Attorney-General. In October 1859 he was appointed Judge resident in Moreton Bay district. In December he became sole Judge of Q., and so continued until the arrival in February 1863 of the Chief Justice Sir James Cockle.

LYND RIVER, a river of N.A., discovered by Leichhardt and named by him in acknowledgment of the kindness which Mr. Lynd of Sydney bestowed on him. This river works its way in a N.W. course through a very mountainous country. There is plenty of grass along its banks.

LYRE BIRD, the *Menura Superba* of naturalists, is a native of N.S.W., and is also found in the highlands of Gippsland, V. It is about the size of a pheasant, frequenting the brush or sparsely wooded country in the unsettled parts, but retreating from the more inhabited districts. It is extremely shy and difficult to approach. It is by far the largest of the song birds, and possesses the power of imitating the songs of other birds. The tail of the male bird is very remarkable and splendid, the twelve feathers being very long and having very fine and widely separated barbs; whilst beside these there are two long middle feathers, each of which has a vane only on one side and two exterior feathers curved like the sides of an ancient lyre. The Lyre bird makes a domed nest. A second species recently discovered is named in honour of the late Prince Albert. This bird was first found in N.S.W. in February 1798 by three runaway prisoners about 140 miles west of Sydney.

LYTTLETON, a seaport town at the E. side of the provincial district of Canterbury, N.Z., walled in by precipitous hills nearly in the coast centre of the Middle Island. It was formerly known by the name of Port Cooper. It is 174 miles by sea from Wellington and 190 from Otago, and lies in the N.W. of Banks peninsula. The entrance to the harbour is about two miles wide between Godley Head on the N.W.—which is lighted by a fixed white dioptric light of the second order, shown from a white lighthouse 450 feet above sea-level—and Belenue Point on the S.E. It is connected with Christchurch 8 miles E., of which place it is the port, by a railway tunnelled through the hills. There is every facility for the loading of vessels, and ships drawing under 15 feet can lie alongside the jetties and wharves; the deepening of the harbour is still going on, and tenders were called in October 1879 for a graving dock 400 feet in length. The bank of N.Z. and Union Bank of Australia

have branches, so have the principal insurance companies, and there are chapels belonging to the Presbyterian and Wesleyan persuasions, also an Anglican church. The population numbers 3476. The harbour of Lyttleton is being improved at considerable cost by the erection of a breakwater from Officer's Point 2010 feet long; this will afford protection during the S.W. gales. The Naval Point breakwater is 1434 feet long; the two breakwaters when completed will enclose an area of about 112 acres. The water supply is derived from artesian wells on the Christchurch side of the river.

M.

MAATZUYKER ISLANDS, a group of islands situated a few miles to the S.E. of the South West Cape of T. The name was given by Tasman.

MACALISTER, ARTHUR, is a native of Scotland and was educated for the law. After spending some years in N.S.W., in 1850 he went to Q. and took a leading part in advocating separation. He was subsequently returned for Ipswich, for which he sat until Q. became a separate colony. He declined a seat in the Council and was elected member for Ipswich in the Assembly. In 1868 he was Chairman of Committees. Two years afterwards he took office as Secretary for Lands and Works. In 1870 he was elected Speaker, but in 1871 he lost his seat in the House; in 1873 he was returned for Ipswich and immediately afterwards became Premier. He resigned this post and became Agent-General for Q. in London in 1876.

MACANDREW, JAMES, a native of Scotland, came to Otago, N.Z., in 1850. He at once took a prominent position and originated many schemes of public utility. He has been a member of every N.Z. Parliament since the establishment of responsible government, and was four times elected Superintendent of the Otago Province. He is at present Minister for Public Works.

MACARTHUR, EDWARD, MAJOR-GEN. (1789-1872) accompanied his father, John Macarthur in 1790 to N.S.W. His early days were spent at Parramatta. In 1808 at the age of eighteen he entered the Army; in 1809 he became a lieutenant and served with honour in the Peninsular War; was present at the battles of Corunna, Vittoria, the Pyrenees, Nive, Nivelle, Orthes and Toulouse. He received a war medal and seven clasps for these services; was with the 39th Regiment in Sicily, Canada, Spain and France; in 1820 was promoted to the rank of Captain, and in 1826 was made Major. After his return to England he was for several years in charge of the Lord High Chamberlain's department; in 1837 was on the Staff in Ireland; in 1841 was made Lieutenant-Colonel, and then sent to Australia as Deputy Adjutant-General; in 1854 was made a Colonel, and in 1855 he succeeded to the command

of the Forces in Australia. On the death of Sir Charles Hotham he assumed the position, in accordance with Imperial instructions, of Lieutenant-Governor of V., and his administration continued from 1st January 1856 to 31st December 1856. Shortly after he was rewarded with the title of C.B., and in 1862 was made a K.C.B.; in the same year he was appointed Colonel of the 100th Foot, and in 1856 was made Lieutenant-General. He in common with his father and brothers always manifested great interest in the advancement of Australia. He died in England in 1872.

MACARTHUR, JOHN (1767-1834) was a native of Plymouth, in Devonshire, England. He arrived in N.S.W. in 1791 as a captain of the N.S.W. Corps. He appears to have been struck with the great pastoral capabilities of the country almost on his landing, and forthwith determined to be a settler. He soon commenced to improve the breed of sheep with the intention of introducing the growing of fine wool for exportation to England. The first attempts made by him and others who were induced to follow his example consisted in crossing the small Bengal sheep with the larger Cape breed. The success which attended this experiment was so encouraging that specimens of woollen cloth manufactured from the improved staple were sent to England so early as 1798. Macarthur's far-seeing intelligence and enlightened ambition were by no means satisfied with the result. He endeavoured shortly afterwards to procure from England sheep of the best Spanish merino breed, and ultimately succeeded in obtaining from the King's farm at Kew some very choice animals of that description. The immediate success of his experiment exceeded all reasonable expectations; but the full extent and ultimate consequences were neither seen nor expected until many years afterwards. Sheep-farming in 1802 had made great strides and the increase in the quantity of the fleece was as remarkable as the improvement in its quality. "As a proof," says Macarthur, "of the extraordinary and rapid improvement in my flocks, I have exhibited the fleece of a coarse-woolled ewe that has been valued at ninepence a-pound, and the fleece of her lamb begotten by a Spanish ram which is allowed to be worth three shillings a-pound. When I left Port Jackson the heaviest fleece that had then been shorn weighed only three pounds and a-half, but I have received an account of the shearing of 1802, from which I learn that the fleece of my sheep had increased to five pounds each and was softer than the wool of 1801. The beauty of it indeed is such as to cause it to be estimated at six shillings the pound." The number of sheep in Macarthur's flocks amounted in 1802 to upwards of 4000. The Rev. Mr. Marsden had about 2000, Mr. Palmer about 1000, and several colonists flocks of 300 to 800. Agriculture was by no means lost sight of in the desire for extending pastoral pursuits. Palmer had 320 acres in wheat; Macarthur, Marsden and

others had also considerable quantities of land under tillage. Wool to some extent but of a coarse description was sent to England prior to 1806, but the export of the fine merino fleece for which the colony afterwards became so famous had hardly assumed sufficient importance to attract attention. In 1810 the produce of Macarthur's fine-woolled flock was only 167 lbs. The best of the other flocks were largely mixed with the progeny of the Irish, the Southdowns, and the Leicesters, which had been brought in the early ships, while many were principally derived from the yet coarser animals from the Cape and India. Bligh on the first day of his landing is said to have manifested a violent dislike to Macarthur, who was probably regarded by him as the moving spirit of the official incubus by which the settlers complained of being overridden. Macarthur when sworn as a witness on Colonel Johnston's trial by court-martial, at Chelsea Hospital in 1811, gave an extraordinary account of Bligh's conduct towards him on his first arrival. One of the circumstances which brought the disarrangement to a crisis was a dispute about an allotment of land on Church Hill, Sydney. Macarthur and other officers had obtained from Captain King grants of portions of land within limits which had been reserved by previous governors for public use. These grants Bligh determined to cancel, offering the holders land in other parts of the town in lieu of that which he wished them to give up. Most of the leaseholders fell in with this arrangement either through fear of Bligh's displeasure or because it suited their interest to do so. Macarthur offered some opposition and Bligh ordered Nicholas Devine, the superintendent of convicts, to pull down the fence enclosing the land in dispute, but offered Macarthur in lieu of it an allotment which the latter described as "at the end of Pitt's Row, a place where the common galleys stood and which was surrounded by all the vile and infamous characters of the town of Sydney." A short time afterwards other circumstances took place which rendered the relations of Bligh and Macarthur still more complicated. The latter had a vessel called the *Parramatta* in which some prisoners were employed. One of them escaped. The Government always demanded a bond when prisoners were employed on board such ships. In the case of the *Parramatta* a bond for £900 had been given. This security, on the escape of the prisoner in question becoming known, Bligh declared forfeited; and in consequence of proceedings arising out of the alleged forfeiture Macarthur was arrested. Nearly the whole of the civil and military officers of N.S.W. appear to have sided against the Governor in this matter, and Macarthur was liberated from gaol in spite of all that Bligh could do to keep him there. Major Johnston, then commanding the N.S.W. Corps, does not appear up to this time to have had any quarrel with Bligh, or to have been mixed up in any way with the spirit of monopoly or any other of the questionable practices relative to trade in which most of the

others were engaged. On 26th January 1808 the quarrel between Bligh and Macarthur and his friends was brought to a crisis. What then took place, Bligh in his evidence on Major Johnston's trial stated as follows:—"About sunset, soon after the magistrates had dined with me, information was brought that Macarthur had been liberated from gaol; and almost immediately the provost marshal confirmed the account, delivering to me at the same time an order from Major Johnston, as lieutenant-governor and major commanding the troops, to the keeper of the gaol requiring him to give up the body of John Macarthur." Brought before the highest court Macarthur objected to the Judge Advocate, and the officers composing the Court sustained the objection. Bligh summoned the officers before him, and the military combined with the bulk of the civil population in releasing Macarthur and deposing Bligh. Colonel Johnston who reported the event to the Secretary of State availed himself of Macarthur's services as Secretary to the colony. When Johnston was subsequently tried in England by a court-martial for his share in the deposition of Bligh, Macarthur deplored the mode of defence adopted, as it did not answer the purpose he expected. He was not allowed to return to the colony for some years, and he employed part of the time in travelling on the Continent with his sons James and William, studying the culture of the vine, olive, and other industries. Resolutely refusing to confess having done wrong in assisting to depose Bligh, and averring that it was a righteous act essential to the safety of the colony, he declined to purchase by submission the power to return to his family and his possessions. Eventually the Secretary of State withdrew his objections and placed at Macarthur's disposal free of cost considerable space in a vessel, which carried the exile home in 1817 with stores of plants of various kinds. In 1825 he was appointed Member of the Legislative Council, but after the death of his second son John, a rising equity barrister in London in 1831, he passed his time chiefly in retirement on his Camden estate, where he died 10th April 1834. But before his death the expectations that he had formed of the wool-trade of the colony had been crowned with complete success, and the wines from the vineyard which he formed at Camden have since then taken the first rank at International Exhibitions. Memorial windows in honour of his parents John Macarthur and Mrs. Macarthur have been placed in St. Andrew's Cathedral, Sydney, by their son General Sir Edward Macarthur.

MACARTHUR, JAMES (1798-1867) third son of the foregoing, was a native of Parramatta. He was educated by a French refugee (Hyon de Kerillan) until 1809, when he and his brother William accompanied their father to England, where the two boys were placed at school. In 1815 he with his father and brother travelled through France, Italy and Switzerland, acquiring

information about the cultivation of the vine, olive and mulberry, and in 1817 returned with them to N.S.W. For several years he was engaged in assisting his father in managing the Camden Estate; in 1828 he went to England to communicate with the directors of the Australian Agricultural Company and remained for some years in Europe, returning in 1830. Whilst absent he took occasion to examine the wool establishments of Germany and Saxony. With his brother and Mr. Harrington he opened the first Court of Petty Sessions at "The Cowpastures," now Camden. In 1836 he again went to England, taking petitions to the King and Parliament on transportation, immigration and representative institutions. He then published *New South Wales, its Present State and Future Prospects*. He returned to Sydney in 1839, when he became a member of the Legislative Council. In 1843 he was rejected by the electors of Cumberland. He refused to accept a nominee seat which was immediately afterwards offered him. In 1848 he was elected for Camden, and again under the new Constitution in 1851, continuing to serve until 1856; in 1859 he was returned for West Camden, but in the same year declined re-election on account of ill health. At this time he was offered knighthood as the colonist on whom such an honour could most appropriately be conferred, but declined it. Sir W. Denison made the offer in a highly eulogistic letter. In 1860 he again left the colony for England with his family. There he was a member of the International Statistical Congress, and also one of the Commissioners of the Exhibition of 1862. He returned to the colony in 1864, and died 21st April 1867.

MACARTHUR, WILLIAM (1800—) fourth son of John Macarthur, was a native of Parramatta. In 1809 he and his brother James were taken by their father to England for their education; and returned in 1817. Macarthur was elected to the Legislative Council from 1849 to 1855, but principally devoted himself to agricultural pursuits, and took little part in politics. In 1854 he was appointed a Commissioner to represent the colony at the Paris Exhibition of the following year. At the close of the Exhibition he received the honour of knighthood and the decoration of the Legion of Honour. He returned to the colony in November 1857. In 1861 he exerted himself in collecting exhibits in the colony for the London Exhibition of 1862 and proceeded to England, but declined the appointment of Assistant-Commissioner. He returned to the colony in March 1864, and was appointed to a seat in the Legislative Council.

MACARTHUR, REV. A. was ordained a Missionary minister by the United Associate Synod of Scotland and arrived in V.D.L. in 1823. He was the first Presbyterian clergyman established in Australasia.

MACARTHUR'S ISLES, four low bushy islets off the N.E. coast of the continent, encompassed

by a reef of more than three miles long, and separated from the Bird Isles by a channel three and a-half miles wide.

MACARTHUR RIVER, in N.A., flowing into the Gulf of Carpentaria. It was named by Leichhardt its discoverer after James and William Macarthur in acknowledgment of their support of his expedition. The country along this river is well grassed and openly timbered for a half to one and a half miles of its banks. There is another river of the same name in Gippsland, V.

MACARTNEY, HUSSEY BURGH, D.D. (1799—) is the son of Sir John Macartney, a Member of the Irish House of Commons, and was born in Dublin. Educated for the Church he accepted an appointment from Bishop Perry whom he accompanied in his voyage to his diocese, landing in Melbourne in January 1848. His life from that date is the history of the English Church in this colony. Soon after landing he commenced his ministration at Heidelberg, where he held Divine service in the Scotch Church on alternate Sundays, when the Presbyterian minister was absent attending another cure. On the other Sundays he held services under great difficulties at Broadmeadows, at Whittlesea, and the Lower Plenty. In November of the same year he was appointed Archdeacon of Geelong; there he remained till the end of 1851. During this time schools were opened and services begun at many of the surrounding localities. St. Paul's parsonage was built and St. Paul's Church and the enlargement of Christ Church were begun, but these last were stopped for the time by the scarcity of labour and the sudden rise in the price of building materials consequent on the discovery of gold in the colony. In 1852 Dr. Macartney was appointed Dean of Melbourne and Incumbent of St. James' Cathedral Church. The parish of St. James was at that time bounded by Elizabeth-street on the east; but there was no church or minister between it and Kyneton in one direction, Geelong in another, and the ocean in a third. Many congregations were however formed and school-houses built under his active supervision. St. John's Church and St. James parsonage were also built and St. James' schools greatly enlarged. During the absence of the Bishop from January 1855 till his return in April the following year the Dean administered the affairs of the diocese. He was in 1857 appointed to the Archdiocese of Melbourne, which involved the oversight of all the deacons and readers who were not under a clergyman in full orders, and the care as far as possible of all parts of the diocese that had no other minister. In 1860 finding all those offices more than he could properly fill he resigned St. James' and gave himself exclusively to the work of his Archdeaconry, since that time readers have been appointed and services begun in between thirty and forty places in and around Melbourne, in twenty-five of which churches have been built and in all of which congregations continue to

assemble. On the Bishop's second visit to England he was again placed in charge of the diocese from January 1863 to September in the following year, and in November he sailed with his family for a visit to Europe. On going away he was presented with a purse of 300 sovereigns with some valuable presents together with an address from the clergy of the diocese. In August 1866 he returned to Melbourne and to his usual duties. In February 1874 Bishop Perry left Australia and the Dean was again left in charge of the diocese. Subsequently a heavy domestic affliction fell upon him and when the exertion was over he sank into a serious illness, and has never since been equal to the performance as hitherto of the active duties of his office; but assistance has been given him by the Bishop so as to enable him to retain his position. The Dean was chosen as one of the representative clergymen for his diocese in both the General Synods that have been held in Sydney. When the Melbourne Bishopric was vacant he was pressed by some leading members of the Church to allow himself to be named for the office, but being then upwards of seventy years of age he felt he was too old to undertake such a responsibility unless he had been called to it by the unanimous voice of the Church, and consequently refused to allow his name to be mentioned. On the Dean attaining his eightieth year an address from the public of Melbourne and a purse of 1000 guineas were presented to him in the presence of 2000 ladies and gentlemen at the Town Hall. The Bishop of Melbourne presided. On the platform there was a large representation of the clergy not only of the Church of England but of Protestant denominations generally.

MACEDON, MOUNT, in V., about thirty miles to the N.W. of Melbourne, is a fine bold mass, the commencement of a wooded range extending easterly. It is about 3000 feet above the level of the sea, and covered with trees to the summit; it commands a beautiful view of Port Philip. Mount Campbell and Mount Byng are two conspicuous mountains to the northward, which with Mount Macedon form the figure of a triangle—the latter being the apex, the former marking the extreme points of the base line to the N.E. and N.W. It was named by Mitchell after the Greek Macedon, and is a favourite summer resort for the citizens of Melbourne.

MACDONALD MOUNTAINS, a remarkable range of mountains in W.A. near Port George the Fourth, about 400 feet high.

MACDONNELL, PORT, on the S. coast of S.A., was discovered by Lieutenant Grant in 1800 and subsequently named after Governor MacDonnell.

MACKAY, ANGUS (1825—) journalist, a native of Scotland, came to N.S.W. in early life, his father being an early settler in Sydney. Mackay was educated at the Australian College and intended for the Church; but his predilections were of a literary character, and in 1847 he became

editor of the *Atlas*, holding that position during two or three years until the discovery of gold, when he went to Ophir and Turon as special correspondent for the *Empire*. Early in 1853 he arrived in V., settling on the diggings and taking an active part in the endeavour to procure the abolition of the license fees. From his experience on the gold-fields he was invited to give evidence before the Select Committee appointed to inquire into the grievances of the diggers. He next went to Sandhurst as special correspondent for the *Argus*, and assisted the people in getting a voice in the government of the country. Shortly afterwards in conjunction with J. J. Casey and James Henderson, Mackay purchased the *Bendigo Advertiser*, of which he is still proprietor. A little later with Casey and R. R. Haverfield he founded the *Riverine Herald*, and still retains an interest in that journal. He was frequently invited to contest one of the seats for the Sandhurst Boroughs, but always refused until 1868 when he was elected by a large majority. In April 1870 he accepted office as Minister for Mines under Sir James McCulloch, and subsequently acted as Minister for Education. He held his seat for Sandhurst until May 1877, when he was defeated by Blackham; but the election being upset on petition, another contest took place and Mackay gained the seat. In 1878 he went to Sydney and established the *Daily Telegraph*.

MACKENZIE RIVER in N.A., was discovered by Leichhardt. This river comes from the westward and winds through a peculiar country; its valley is deep and narrow. Several layers of fine coal were found by him identical with the formation of the Newcastle coal; bonded pieces of coal were found in its bed. A high level country extends near the river on its left with belts of scrub, and further off with plains and open forest—generally box forest.

MACLEAY, ALEXANDER (1767-1848) naturalist, was a native of Scotland. He was secretary to the Transport Board during the war with France under the first Napoleon, and was also well known and appreciated by the scientific world as honorary secretary to the Linnean Society. He was one of the six gentlemen to whom George IV. granted a charter for the purpose of founding this society. In 1825 he was selected by the Earl of Bathurst to proceed to N.S.W. as Colonial Secretary, an appointment which he filled up to the date of his resignation in 1837. When in his 77th year he was elected Speaker of the first representative Legislative Council, August 1843; of this appointment he fulfilled the duties until May 1846, when he resigned. He was devotedly attached to the pursuit of science, and used every exertion to encourage it in the colonies. He laid the foundation stone of the first Free Library in N.S.W. in February 1843. In this year Moreton Bay was formed into an electorate and Macleay was made its first representative in the Sydney Legislature.

MACLEAY, WILLIAM (1820—) a native of Scotland, came to N.S.W. in 1839 at the invitation of his uncle, Alexander Macleay, and passed some years in squatting pursuits on the Murrumbidgee. He was elected member of the Legislative Council for the Lachlan and Lower Darling in 1854, and then for the Murrumbidgee, and was for twenty years in succession member of the Legislative Assembly, until he resigned his seat. During his career in the Assembly his exertions were unwearied to improve inland communication and the construction of railways, particularly the Great Southern trunk line. In 1874 he fitted out at his own expense a barque, the *Chevert*, and accompanied by Captain Onslow conducted an expedition to New Guinea, bringing back much valuable information and many new specimens. On his return he accepted a seat in the Legislative Council. He was the first President of the Australian Linnean Society, and formerly of the Entomological Society; and in previous years did good service as one of the trustees of the Australian Museum. Macleay has devoted considerable attention to the pursuit of science, especially to the subject of entomology, in which branch he has formed collections perhaps unrivalled in Australia. He possesses a fine private museum of insects, which he has declared his intention of bequeathing to the University.

MACLEAY, WILLIAM SHARP (1792-1865) naturalist, was the eldest son of Alexander Macleay, and a native of London. He was educated at Westminster and Cambridge, and on leaving the University received the appointment of Secretary to the Board of British Claims, on the restoration of the French Government at the Peace of 1815. In the performance of his duty he passed several years in Paris, during which period he became the friend of Cuvier and other celebrated men of science. Having successfully performed the duties intrusted to him, he was on his return to England in 1825 promoted to the office of H.B.M. Commissioner and Judge in the mixed Tribunal of Justice at the Havannah. He remained there for ten years, and on relinquishing the office retired from the public service on a pension of £900 a year. In 1839 he arrived in N.S.W., where he resided until his death. After his arrival he was appointed one of the trustees of the Australian Museum, and until the state of his health compelled him reluctantly to retire he was the life and soul of that institution. It was under his advice and with his co-operation that the Act for Establishing and Endowing the Australian Museum was introduced and subsequently passed into law. Macleay also acted for several years as a member of the National Board of Education, and for a short time as member of the Executive Council during Sir William Denison's administration and before the inauguration of responsible government. He possessed great ability and a highly-cultivated mind, to which he continued to the very last to add fresh stores as well from the

recorded labours of others as from his own keen observance of Nature in all her various aspects. He ranked deservedly high as a naturalist, and his collection of insects, especially those belonging to Australia and the other portions of the Southern Hemisphere, is the finest, most extensive and valuable extant. To him we are indebted for numerous additions to the catalogue of insects previously known, and for clearing up many doubts and difficulties respecting them which had baffled the penetration of other observers. Yet it was by no means in entomology alone he delighted; his knowledge and acquirements in almost every branch of zoology and geology and especially of botany were very considerable—a proof of which exists in the number of works written by him on these branches of science.

MACLEAY, SIR GEORGE, another son of Alexander Macleay, accompanied Mitchell in his exploring expeditions down the Murray and Murrumbidgee in 1836. Subsequently he was for some years a member of the Legislature of N.S.W. and was knighted for his public services.

MACLEAY RIVER, in N.S.W., falls into the Pacific Ocean about eighty miles to the northward of Port Macquarie. This river divides the District of Macleay from the County of Macquarie, and on its banks the extent of available land is very considerable. It was named after Macleay the celebrated naturalist.

MACMAHON, SIR CHARLES, (1824—) is a native of Ireland and son of Sir William Macmahon, late Master of the Rolls in that country. He began life as an Ensign in the 71st Highlanders, from which he exchanged into the 10th Hussars. Shortly after retiring from the army with the rank of captain, he emigrated to V. in 1859. He was soon afterwards appointed Assistant Commissioner of Police under Sir W. H. F. Mitchell, and succeeded that officer as Chief Commissioner. Macmahon was elected Member of the Assembly for West Bourke in August 1861, represented that district during the session of the third Parliament of Victoria, and held office without a portfolio in the third O'Shannassy Ministry. In the fourth Parliament Macmahon did not hold a seat, but in January 1866 he was returned as member for West Melbourne, which electorate he continued to represent for twelve years. He was elected speaker by the Assembly in April 1871, re-elected in May 1874, and vacated the chair in May 1877, being superseded by Sir C. G. Duffy, who contested the seat. Macmahon was created Knight-Bachelor in 1875. He visited England in 1877, and on his return to the colony was once more elected for West Melbourne.

MACPHERSON, JOHN ALEXANDER, is a native of V. and a barrister by profession. He has never practised at the bar, being a large landowner and having interests in pastoral pursuits. He was returned to the Legislative Assembly for Portland in November 1854 in the fourth

Parliament under the new Constitution; in 1865 he was returned for Dundas and again in 1868. He accepted office as Chief Secretary and was re-elected in October 1869; and in 1870 on the defeat of his Ministry and the formation of an administration under Sir James McCulloch he became Commissioner for Crown Lands. He was returned for Dundas in 1871 and 1874. In October 1875 he accepted office as Chief Secretary, with Sir James McCulloch as Treasurer and leader of the House, and was again returned by the same constituency, holding office until the general election in May 1877, when he was re-elected for the same constituency, but retired from office with his chief, an overwhelming majority in favour of their opponents having been returned. Subsequently Macpherson went with his family to Europe.

MACQUARIE HARBOUR, a beautiful and extensive harbour of T. It receives the waters of the Gordon and King Rivers and is situated on the W. coast. It was named by Captain Kelly after Governor Macquarie in 1826.

MACQUARIE, LACHLAN, fifth Governor of N.S.W., arrived at Sydney in December 1809, with instructions if Bligh was still in the colony to reinstate him in his position as Governor for twenty-four hours, upon which he was to resign and return to England leaving the Government to Macquarie. Finding on his arrival that Bligh had left Port Jackson several months previously, Macquarie assumed the Government and issued a proclamation (dated 1st January 1810) setting forth the instructions he had received as to the wishes of His Majesty George III. with respect to Bligh's temporary reinstatement and the King's strong disapproval of the "mutinous and outrageous conduct displayed in the forcible and unwarrantable removal of his late representative." Three days afterwards he issued a further proclamation declaring all appointments made by Major Johnston and Colonels Furneaux and Paterson null and void, and all trials, grants and investigations had or made under their authority invalid. Macquarie arrived in the *Hindustan*, a fifty-gun frigate, which was accompanied by another ship, the *Dromedary*, having on board a large detachment of the 73rd Regiment, of which he was Lieutenant-Colonel, so that on assuming his duties he found himself in so strong a position as to be able to set all opposition at defiance if any had been attempted. Macquarie's name is classed with that of John Howard as a philanthropist and prison reformer. He was a very different man from his predecessor. Macquarie was most courteous, politic and wary in his dealings with men; Bligh was rash, impulsive and violent. He entered on his duties as Governor under most favourable circumstances. The small settlers upon whom King and Bligh had depended for support when placing themselves in antagonism to the official monopolists were neither numerous nor

wealthy to back them up effectually, while the power of the little oligarchy remained unbroken. The former had been gradually acquiring wealth and influence, and now that most of the N.S.W. Corps were removed, and the Governor as Colonel of the Regiment of the Line which formed the garrison was ruler in fact as well as in name, Macarthur prohibited from setting foot in the colony, and many of the other members of the once dominant clique were under a cloud in consequence of the steps they had taken in connection with Bligh's arrest, the small settlers and emancipists were able to assert their claims to consideration, and in return for the Vice-Regal patronage extended to them were willing to give effectual support to a Governor who showed himself disposed to recognise their rights and to free himself from the shackles which had proved too strong for his predecessors. Macquarie was far too just, politic and far-seeing a man to thwart intentionally the designs of those who were endeavouring to enrich themselves by developing in a legitimate manner the natural resources of the country. Whilst protecting the industrious and rewarding the thrifty, he desired to encourage capitalists and men of energy in the prosecution of their enterprises. In order to raise the condition of the settlers, to bring them within reach of a market and under the protection of the laws, Macquarie set about improving the roads and other means of communication which had been allowed to fall into a state of dilapidation. To encourage a better class of buildings he set the example by erecting in Sydney and other places many substantial and convenient public structures—barracks, stores, hospitals, public offices, churches, school-houses, watch-houses, gaols, bridges, wharves and other buildings. The number of these places built during his administration, a period of about twelve years, was upwards of 200 in N.S.W. and fifty in V.D.L. Almost from the first Macquarie seems to have discouraged as much as possible the influx of free settlers. He was fond of power and fearful of strengthening by numbers the influence of a class that could not be ruled by general orders and prison regulations. Macquarie succeeded at length in breaking down all legal barriers between the two classes; but the social barriers were too strong for him; and the more he endeavoured to destroy them the more jealously were they guarded by the wealthy free settlers, officers and civil servants who formed the exclusive class. In his administration of affairs Macquarie displayed great personal activity and energy. His excursions and journeys were frequent and sometimes long and fatiguing. In the second year of his rule he made a voyage to V.D.L. Colonel Collins, the founder of the Hobart Town settlement and the first Lieutenant-Governor of the colony, had died suddenly in March 1810 about three months after Macquarie's arrival in N.S.W. and the latter took the earliest opportunity, after he had surmounted the first difficulties of his position, to visit the Derwent and personally

inspect the progress and resources of the country. Collins had administered the Government at Hobart Town for upwards of six years. His rule was perhaps the most absolute despotism at that time in existence, and under a man deficient in benevolence and tact the condition of the settlers would have been intolerable. But with all its drawbacks the rule of a benevolent despot was perhaps more suitable for the state of society which then prevailed there than a more complicated system of Government. In the promotion of benevolent objects and in supplying means for assuaging the sufferings of the unfortunate victims of poverty, accident or sickness, Macquarie and his wife seem to have been ever ready to set a good example. The Sydney Benevolent Asylum and other institutions of a similar character, still in existence, which date from this period were greatly indebted to their efforts and liberal patronage. Mrs. Macquarie was generally called Lady Macquarie by the colonists, although she had no claim to that title except such as arose from popular gratitude and a warm appreciation of her character. She took great delight in beautifying and improving the town and neighbourhood of Sydney, and her name will be long remembered in connection with the delightful public walk, constructed under her orders and from her plans, around the Domain near the water's edge. The intelligence of Macquarie's intended recall reached the colony in the latter part of 1821. Sir Thomas Brisbane his successor arrived shortly afterwards and on the 1st December his commission as Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the Colony was read with the most impressive formalities in Hyde Park, Sydney, where the military were drawn up under arms and fired a salute in honour of the occasion. Macquarie did not quit the colony until nearly three months after the arrival of his successor. He had come to look upon the evidences of wealth and advancement which he saw around him as if they were the work of his own hands, and he regarded the improved condition of the colony with feelings of honest pride. Under such circumstances it is not to be wondered at that he was loth to leave the scene where for twelve years he had exercised more than regal power. On his departure a gold cup valued at 150 guineas was presented to him by the colonists, and that the present might be esteemed the more honourable each person's subscription was limited to a small amount. D'Arcy Wentworth and John Piper were the originators of the proposal to make the present. Macquarie left the colony with his family in February 1822. He died in London on 1st July 1824.

MACQUARIE RIVER, in T., rises on the eastern tier and receiving in its course the waters of the rivers Blackman, Elizabeth and Isis, disembogues its waters into the Lake River.

MACQUARIE RIVER (native name WAMBOOL) a river of N.S.W. named after Governor Macquarie, is formed by the junction of the Fish

and Campbell rivers after they issue from the Blue Mountains. It is like the Darling River, one of those large inland streams which have their origin in the torrents which descend from the western ridges of the dividing range of mountains that skirt the east coast of the continent. The Macquarie takes a winding course through the plains to the N.W.; in some places it is deep, broad and navigable for large boats, in others rapid and obstructed by falls; and expanding over the surrounding country, which declines rapidly towards the N.W., the whole area becoming at last a perfect sea, or after a dry season covered with weeds. For twenty-four miles further the course, as observed by Oxley in 1818, was through a similar country, he had lost sight of land and trees, the channel of the Macquarie winding through reeds among which the water was about three feet deep; suddenly however without any previous change in the breadth, depth, or rapidity of the stream the Macquarie eluded all further pursuit by spreading at all points from N.W. to N.E. over the plain, the river decreasing in depth from twenty to less than five feet, flowing over a bottom of tenacious mud clay, the current still running with the same rapidity as when the water was confined within narrow banks. This point of junction with what Oxley supposed to be the interior waters, or rather where the Macquarie ceased to be a river, was in $30^{\circ} 45' \text{ S.}$ and $147^{\circ} 10' \text{ E.}$ Mitchell fixed the termination of this river by following its course to the river Darling, which junction he made to be in lat. $30^{\circ} 6' 11'' \text{ S.}$ and long. $147^{\circ} 33' \text{ E.}$ The Darling at this spot is called the Barwon. The river was discovered and named by Evans in 1813 in honour of Governor Macquarie.

MACQUARIE'S TOWER is situated on Cape Banks in the parish of Botany, N.S.W. It is the most classic spot on the shores of A. The tower originally built by Governor Macquarie for the prevention of smuggling is a picturesque object, but the scene is connected with associations of too deep an interest to satisfy the eye with what it now presents. There is a charm about the spot where Cook first landed, which is marked by a brass plate on the opposite cliffs, and in the foreground a handsome monument to the memory of La Perouse surmounted by a gilt sphere contributes much to the interest of the scene.

MACROSSAN, JOHN MURTAGH (1832—) came to Melbourne in 1853 and went to Q. in 1865. In 1873 he was chosen Member for the Kennedy electorate by the miners of Charters Towers, and in January 1879 accepted office as Secretary for Public Works on the formation of the M'Ilwraith Ministry. He now represents Townsville in the Legislative Assembly.

MAGALHAENS, FERNANDO DE, the great Portuguese navigator of the sixteenth century. The life of this distinguished mariner was a succession of the wildest and most romantic adventures.

An English and incorrect version of his name lives in the well-known Straits of Magellan which he was the first to explore. It was he who discovered and gave the name of the Pacific to the Southern Ocean from the delightful weather he first experienced in its waters. He it was also that discovered the Philippine Islands which have ever since remained a possession of Spain. He perished in a petty quarrel between two hostile tribes in those islands on the 26th April 1521. His imperishable bequests to the world are—the discovery of the communication between the Atlantic and Pacific Oceans; the opening up of the Southern Ocean to European enterprise; and the demonstration as a certain fact of the spherical form of the earth. The ship in which he sailed was brought safely back to Spain, and thus completed on the 6th September 1522 the first voyage ever made round the world.

MAGNETICAL ISLAND, situated off the N.E. coast of the continent between Halifax Bay and Cape Cleveland. This island was so named by Cook because he fancied it affected the compass of the *Endeavour* as he passed it. There is good anchorage on the west side.

MAINGON BAY, a beautiful bay situated on the southern shores of Tasman's Peninsula, lies between Cape Raoul and Cape Pillar.

MAITLAND is the second town in N.S.W. and comprises both East and West Maitland. It lies ninety-three miles N. of Sydney, and is situated on the Hunter River; its proximity to this has been the cause of the numerous disastrous floods which have from time to time devastated the town and district. At the same time it owes to this river much of its prosperity, the alluvial flats which fringe it being among the most productive soils in the world and yielding in favourable seasons such prodigious crops as to cause the district to be called "The Granary of N.S.W." In 1879, 3,940 acres of land were under cultivation, the crops ranking in the following order:—Maize, oats, barley, wheat, lucerne and tobacco. The grape is widely cultivated and large quantities of wine were produced. Coal of excellent quality and unlimited supply is found in the neighbourhood, and five or six pits are constantly at work. A seam of kerosene shale has lately been found. The Great Northern Railway connects the town with Newcastle and also links it with the neighbouring towns of Singleton, Muswellbrook, Scone, Murrumbidgee, Quirindi, Tamworth and Gunnedah; further extension of the line northwards to the Queensland border is now going on. There is also a branch line to Morpeth three miles distant. A very large trade is done with the inland townships. The two parts of Maitland are distinct municipalities. The streets are wide and well made and contain numerous stores and many substantial-looking private residences. It is the see of a Roman Catholic bishop (Dr. Murray.) The population is about 7500. Property in this

district has within the last few years nearly doubled in value.

MALDON, a township in V., is situated at the foot of Mount Tarrangower on the main road from Castlemaine and Melbourne, eighty-four miles from the metropolis. The population of the town is about 3800. Pastoral and agricultural operations are largely carried on in the neighbourhood, and the district is noted for its auriferous wealth. The gold reefs, seventy-five in number, are of great extent and likely to be long before worked out. The deepest mine is at present 1020 feet. The extent of land under cultivation is 14,183 acres.

MALLEE SCRUB, in the S.E. district of S.A., about 9000 square miles in extent, is one uninterrupted waving prairie of *Eucalyptus dumosa* (by the natives termed mallee) something like a bushy willow in appearance. It commences about 100 miles from the southern extremity of the coast and extends to the Murray. One road passes across it for about 100 miles from the Tatiara country to Wellington ferry or the crossing-place of the Murray. There is also a small patch of grassy country on some ranges about twenty-six miles within its edge, but beyond this it is considered impenetrable. Occasionally however an adventurous settler has taken a few days supply of water and provisions and has gone fifty or sixty miles beyond the nearest settlement, but such journeys have only confirmed the idea that the scrub is totally unfit for any purpose. There are but few places however where it can be even explored. The trees grow close together like reeds, not thicker, without a branch until about fourteen feet from the ground and are so dense that ten and twelve stems may be counted springing from one root, and occupy little more than a square foot of ground. Where a road has been cut through, it appears as though there were a high wall on each side; the effect is not unlike that produced by a road through a trench.

MANLY COVE, is one of the numerous coves of Port Jackson, N.S.W. This cove was so named by Governor Phillip on the 23rd January 1788. In passing near a point of land in the harbour the boats were observed by many of the natives, twenty of whom waded unarmed into the water, received what was offered them and minutely examined the boat; their manly behaviour induced Phillip who was highly pleased with it to give the place the name it bears.

MANN, CHARLES (1800-1860) jurist and member of the English Bar, was appointed to the office of Advocate-General of S.A. in 1836, before any vessel had left for that colony, and arrived at Adelaide in January 1837. He resigned his appointment in December of the same year in consequence of differences with Governor Hindmarsh. He was appointed to the office of Master of the Supreme Court in April 1844; was made Acting

Judge of the same in February 1849; appointed Crown Solicitor in January 1850; Police Magistrate and Supreme Court Insolvency Commissioner in April 1856; and Commissioner of the Court of Insolvency and Stipendiary Magistrate in August 1858. In the early days of S.A. Mann employed his pen as a writer for the local press, and on subsequent occasions evinced a lively interest in the various questions agitating his adopted country. He was father of Charles Mann, sometime Attorney-General and now Treasurer of the South Australian Government.

MANNING RIVER, in N.S.W., divides the counties of Gloucester and Macquarie and empties itself into the Pacific Ocean by several mouths, but without offering any harbour except for boats, to which the navigation of the river is confined. There is good soil on the Manning River, which together with the beauty of the scenery has led to extensive settlement. The Manning has a long course westerly to the dividing range of hills from the opposite side of which the Peel River is given off to flow towards the interior. This river was so named by Robert Dawson in honour of the Deputy Governor of the Australian Agricultural Company. It is 225 miles north from Sydney.

MANNING, WILLIAM MONTAGU (1811—) was called to the English Bar in 1832, and was for some time on the Western Circuit. In 1837 he came to Sydney and was soon after made Chairman of Quarter Sessions. In 1844 he was appointed Solicitor General; in 1848 appointed acting Judge of the Supreme Court in the absence of Justice Therry; and in 1849 resumed his duties as Solicitor General. In 1851 he was appointed a nominee Member of the Legislative Council; in 1856 was elected for South Cumberland to the Legislative Assembly, and became Attorney General; but in May 1857 ill-health compelled his retirement. He received at this time for his services a portrait by Sir Watson Gordon R.A., a piece of plate and a purse of £1000. He visited England, and in March 1858 was knighted. He returned to the colony in 1859; in 1860 was made Attorney-General, and in 1861 a Member of the Legislative Council. In 1876 he was elevated to a Judgeship in the Supreme Court. In 1877 he was chosen Chancellor of the Sydney University.

MANTON, J. F., engineer and surveyor, was sent with the first party under Finnis to found the Northern Territory Settlement in 1864. He was left in charge for some time after the recall of Finnis in 1868.

MAORIS, the aboriginal inhabitants of N.Z. The ethnological characteristics of the race are thus described by Wallace:—"The Maoris are one of the most important families of the brown Polynesian stock, being those which have developed its peculiar mental and physical characteristics to the highest degree. This is due in part to their having to maintain themselves in a far less favourable climate than their fellows of the

tropical islands. They have no bread-fruits, bananas and cocoa-nuts to supply food almost without labour, and they have to protect themselves against the vicissitudes of a boisterous and comparatively ungenial climate. They had not even the pig, which furnished such an unfailing supply of food in the other islands, but had probably at first to hunt the now extinct moas as their only animal food till when these became scarce they were obliged to feed on their dogs, the only domestic animal they appear to have brought with them. Their only cultivated plants were the sweet potato, the taro, and the gourd; the fern and several other plants supplied edible roots; and these with a few berries and fruits and fish of various kinds made up their means of subsistence. They thus became skilful hunters and fishers and good agriculturalists; and the amount of skill and energy necessitated in these pursuits, in building houses and canoes, in making clothing, and in forming the various weapons and implements which they required from stone, wood or shell, furnished the needful stimulus for an active and healthy existence. War too, as among all savage tribes, occupied them greatly, and the construction of forts and defences was added to the regular labours of every community. The earliest European settlers thus found the Maoris in a state of civilisation not often to be met with among a barbarous and savage people. They lived together in villages, in huts well constructed of wood and reeds, ornamented with ingenious and fanciful carvings, and painted with gay-coloured arabesques. They protected their villages with ditches and palisades and surrounded them with extensive plantations. They manufactured flax from a native plant, and from it wove mats and clothing which they dyed with various kinds of bark and roots, and ornamented with the bright feathers of birds; and they made cloaks of great value from the dressed skins of their dogs. Their faces and some parts of their bodies were elaborately and elegantly tattooed, more largely in the men than the women, and the heads of great chiefs were skilfully embalmed and preserved, either as trophies of the fight or in affectionate remembrance of the dead. Although they had no written language they had numerous songs and proverbs, legends and traditions, transmitted orally from generation to generation. They knew every plant and bird and insect of the country they inhabited and designated them by distinctive names; and they distinguished the various kinds of rock with a keen talent of observation. They had words in their language for the four seasons and they divided the year into thirteen months all of which had appropriate names, the year commencing with the first new moon after a particular star called Puanga began to be visible in the morning. They had names for all the chief stars, and also for many constellations which were called after their resemblance to canoes, houses, garments, weapons, &c. They had measures derived from the human

body as the span, the stride, and the fathom. They had no regular barter, but whatever a friend asked for was given on the understanding that the giver might in his turn have anything he took a fancy to; but all valuable property appears to have been held by the tribe and could only be exchanged in this way with other friendly tribes. They had numerous games of skill or chance, many of them exactly similar to our own as flying kites, skipping-ropes, cat's-cradle, gymnastic poles, wrestling, hide-and-seek, stilts; as well as dancing, diving, and many others. They had a firm belief in a future state and an elaborate mythology and system of temples, priests, omens and sacrifices. They were great orators, and a son of every chief had to learn the traditions, laws, and rites of his tribe and to be an orator and a poet as well as a warrior, a hunter and a seaman. The dark side of their character was the practice of cannibalism which prevailed extensively at the time when Europeans first visited them. But this vile practice seems always to have been associated with a superstitious belief in the transfer of the qualities of the victim to his devourer. This became one of the chief incentives to war, as to eat the bodies of the slain was supposed to impart courage and ferocity to those who partook of them and likewise to make their triumph over their enemies complete. War was also carried on as a means of obtaining plunder—valuable jade weapons and ornaments, beautiful mats, food and wives, just as in Europe in the middle ages."

CIVILISATION.—Missionaries of various denominations have been at work in N. Z. for more than sixty years and have now converted the whole population except a few of the older chiefs to Christianity. Cannibalism, tribal wars, polygamy, slavery, and most of their superstitious practices have been abolished; they have become to a considerable extent educated and civilised; many of them have farms and ships or are successful traders. But with this apparently beneficial change their old elasticity of spirit and enjoyment of life seems to have left them. They cannot as a body compete with Europeans. Our habits are not suited to them; our diseases and vices decimate them; their numbers diminish year by year; and as in so many other cases we seem to civilise and Christianise only to destroy. When first taken possession of in 1840 N. Z. is supposed to have contained near 100,000 Maoris. In 1856 there were but 65,000; in 1874 they had decreased to 45,740, and it is believed that they are now diminishing still more rapidly. Should however the present rate of decrease continue it will not take more than 150 years to bring about the total extinction of this interesting race. A recent N. Z. journal states that "the census of the Maori population which was made last year presents very many points of interest. The condition of an aboriginal people in the transitory stage between barbarism and civilisation is at all times an interesting and suggestive study, and it is particularly so just now

when the Government has on hand the delicate task of adjusting such difficulties as still exist in the relations of the aborigines and the colonists. The Maori has not yet reached the turning point at which a primitive race in its contact with civilisation ceases to decline. The Maori population, if we may rely upon the figures, in 1878 was found to be 42,819; in 1874 it was 46,016, making a decrease in four years of 3197. As is usual in these returns the males considerably exceed the females, the former being 23,533 and the latter only 19,286. But the most characteristic feature of these estimates for many years is the enormous disparity in the proportion of adults and children. Of the total of 42,819 souls last year no less than 14,533 were males over fifteen years, and females of the same age 11,802. In European countries the men usually average a fifth or sixth of the population, while at present among the Maoris they constitute a third." Wallace adds:—"The Maoris are fully conscious of their approaching fate—a fate in which not only the people themselves but also the native fauna and flora seem involved. The inevitable process of extinction is vividly described by Peschel, who remarks that even the English grasses are spreading with astonishing rapidity and supplanting the indigenous vegetation. Vernal grass, sorrel, docks, the sow-thistle and water-cresses are triumphantly invading the domain of the native growths, which are fain to yield before the younger and more vigorous 'conquistadores.' 'Make room for your betters' is the watchword in all these wars between races. Swine as already stated have increased to an alarming extent and commit great havoc by uprooting the ground in search after roots. Yet even this contributes towards the introduction of new plants, for the freshly turned-up soil is quickly occupied by the hardy species intimately associated with European culture which follow the white man in all his wanderings, and which already victorious over so many older species soon displace the last feeble survivors of former geological epochs. The native Polynesian rat which entered N.Z. with the Maoris is now being also extirpated by the Norway variety which has been introduced into the island by ships arriving from England. The European mouse following closely on its track is reported to be in its turn displacing the Norway rodent. The European house fly which presented itself originally as an uninvited guest is now sent far and wide in boxes and bottles by the settlers themselves, who have observed that its company is declined and its presence carefully shunned by the far more noxious native blue blow-fly. Hence the Maoris rightly say, 'As the white man's rat has extirpated our rat, so the European fly is driving out our fly; the foreign clover is killing our ferns, and so the Maori himself will disappear before the white man.'"

TRADITIONS.—"The traditions of these people lead to the conclusion that they first came to N.Z.

about 600 years ago from some of the islands between Samoa and Tahiti; but some ethnologists put the migration as far back as 3000 years. Their language is a dialect of the Polynesian most resembling that of Rarotonga, but their physical characters vary greatly. Some are fair, with straight hair, and with the best type of Polynesian features; others are dusky-brown, with curly or almost frizzly hair, and with the long and broad arched nose of the Papuan; while others have the coarse thick features of the lower Melanesian races. Now these variations of type cannot be explained unless we suppose the Maoris to have found in the islands an indigenous Melanesian people, of which they exterminated the men but took the better-looking of the women for wives; and as their traditions decidedly state that they did find such a race when they first arrived at N.Z. there seems no reason whatever for rejecting these traditions, which accord with actual physical facts, just as the tradition of a migration from Hawaiki, a Polynesian island, accords with linguistic facts."

PRESENT CONDITION.—Sir D. McLean, sometime Native Minister in N.Z., gives the following account of the present condition of the Maori race:—"As a rule Maoris are middle-sized and well-formed, the average height of the man being 5ft. 6in.; the bodies and arms being longer than those of the average Englishmen, but the leg bones being shorter and the calves largely developed. The skin is of an olive-brown colour and the hair generally black; the teeth are good, except among the tribes who live in the sulphurous regions about the Hot Lakes near the centre of the North Island; but the eyes are bleared, possibly from the amount of smoke to which they are exposed in 'whares' or cabins destitute of chimneys. The voice is pleasant, and when warlike excitement has not roused him to frenzy every gesture of the Maori is graceful. Nothing can be more dignified than the bearing of chiefs assembled at a 'runanga' or council, and this peculiar composure they preserve when they adopt European habits and customs, always appearing at ease even in the midst of what would seem a most incongruous assembly. In bodily powers the Englishman has the advantage. As a carrier of heavy burdens the native is the superior, but in exercises of strength and endurance the average Englishman surpasses the average Maori. As to the character of the natives it must be remembered—if most opposite and contradictory qualities are ascribed to them—that they are in a transition state. Some of the chiefs are, with the exception of colour and language, almost Europeans; others conform when in towns to the dress and the customs of white men, but resume native ways and the blanket as the sole garment as soon as they return to the 'kainga' or native village. The great majority have ideas partly European, partly Maori; while a small section professing to adhere to old Maori ways depart from them so far as to

buy or to procure articles of European manufacture whenever they can do so. They are excitable and superstitious, easily worked upon at times by any one who holds the key to their inclinations and who can influence them by appeals to their traditional legends, while at other times they are obstinate and self-willed whether for good or for evil. As is usual with races that have not a written language they possess wonderful memories; and when discussing any subject they cite or refer to precedent after precedent. They are fond of such discussions, for many a Maori is a natural orator with an easy flow of words, and a delight in allegories which are often highly poetical. They are brave yet are liable to groundless panics. They are by turns open-handed and most liberal and shamelessly mean and stingy. They have no word or phrase equivalent to gratitude yet they possess the quality. Grief is with them reduced to a ceremony and tears are produced at will. In their persons they are slovenly or clean according to humour; and they are fond of finery, chiefly of the gaudiest kind. They are indolent or energetic by turns. During planting time men, women, and children labour energetically, but during the rest of the year they will work or idle as the mood takes them. When they do commence a piece of work they go through with it well; and in roadmaking they exhibit a fair amount of engineering skill. It has been already stated that the Northern Island of N. Z. contains a native population of about 37,000, but it must not be imagined that these are in one district or that any considerable number are assembled in one place. In fact they are divided into many tribes and are scattered over an area of 28,890,000 acres or 45,156 square miles, giving less than one native to the square mile. The most important tribe is that of Ngapuhi which inhabits the northern portion of the North Island within the Province of Auckland. It was among the Ngapuhi that the seeds of Christianity and of civilisation were first sown, and among them are found the best evidences of the progress which the Maori can make. Forty years ago the only town in N. Z., Kororareka, on the Bay of Islands, existed within their territories. Their chiefs assembled in February 1840 near the 'Waitangi' or 'weeping water' Falls, were the first to sign the treaty by which the Maoris acknowledged themselves to be subjects of Her Majesty; and although under the leadership of an ambitious chief Hone Heke, a portion of them in 1845 disputed the English supremacy, yet when subdued by English troops and native allies (their own kinsmen) they adhered implicitly to the pledges they gave, and since then not a shadow of a doubt has been cast on the fidelity of the 'Loyal Ngapuhi.' Their leading chief died lately. He was a man to whom the colony owed much and who may be taken as a type of the Maori gentleman of rank. Tamati Waka Nene (Thomas Walker Nene) was in his youth a distinguished warrior and assisted in the

raids made by his people on the tribes to the southward. Converted to Christianity by the missionaries he was one of the first chiefs to sign the Treaty of Waitangi, and by his arguments he was instrumental in inducing others to sign, and he remained faithful to the engagements into which he entered that day. He adhered to the Government in every difficulty and trouble which arose and to the day of his death he was a staunch supporter of English rule, setting to his people an example which they have honourably followed. His funeral was attended by a large number of both races and according to his desire his body was buried in the church cemetery at the Bay of Islands, thus breaking through one of the most honoured of Maori customs, namely, that a chief's remains should be secretly interred in some remote spot known to but a few trusty followers. During his lifetime he was honoured by special marks of distinction from Her Majesty, and after his death the Government of N. Z. erected a handsome monument to his memory. Since then the Ngapuhi have given another proof of the good feeling which the N. Z. Government have caused. In 1845 the British forces lost heavily before a 'pa' or native fort called Ohaeawae, then held by a section of Ngapuhi in arms, and the slain were buried near the spot where they fell. Recently however the natives in their desire to prove their friendship have erected a small memorial church, in the grave-yard of which they have with due honour reinterred the exhumed remains of their former foes, thus giving additional evidence of the complete extinguishment of old animosities and jealousies. A glance at the map will show the progress which is being made with road-works in this part of the Island. Many of the roads are being constructed by native labour under the management and superintendence of a native gentleman holding a seat in the House of Representatives. In travelling through this district it is not uncommon to see comfortable weatherboard houses adopted by the natives instead of the 'whare,' and European dress is found to have to a great extent supplanted the primitive attire of olden days. Indeed, the profits realised by digging kauri gum and by disposing of produce, stock, &c., with the high prices obtained for labour on public works or in the kauri-pine forests which constitute the timber wealth of the district, enable the natives to procure the comforts of dress and of living to which they have now become accustomed. To the north of Auckland the two races have approached nearer to each other than in any other parts of the island, and half-castes—a handsome and powerfully-built race—are numerous. The present generation of British settlers has grown up side by side with the Maori youth, and true friendship exists between the settler and the native. Throughout the colony the social condition of the natives is a trustworthy indication of the intercourse which they have had with Europeans. Among the Ngapuhi, at places

like the Thames Gold Fields, near Auckland, about Napier, and on the west coast of the Province of Wellington, where the Maori has been brought into close contact with Europeans, there are the same evidences of an upward progress. The style of living is changed; the whare has given way to the substantial house; the blanket or flax mat is replaced by broadcloth; and as a matter of course improvement in living induces improvement in mind. In the out districts where settlements have been established only a few years the Maori is still in a half-and-half state. In his own village he conforms in his habitation his food and his clothing to the ways of his fathers; but poor or careless must the Maori be, especially if a young man, who cannot appear neat and smart in English dress when on a visit to the neighbouring township. In such wild districts as the mountainous inland regions ancestral habits have full sway; and at one locality between the English settlements on the Waikato River and Lake Taupo, there exists a remnant of what may be termed the 'National party;' who however though they may be inveigh against 'pakeha' customs, are not the less ready to dispose of their produce to the nearest trader, and to invest the proceeds in the purchase of English manufactures. The Middle Island natives number about 3000 and are spread over an immense extent of country, living in groups of a few families on the reserves made for them when the lands were purchased—for the whole of the Middle Island has been bought from the native owners by the Government. Whatever may be the cause it is a fact that the natives of the Middle Island are apathetic and careless as compared with their brethren in the North. There are two special features apparent in the condition of the Natives. The first is the energetic revival of agriculture, to which a stop has been put during the troublous times. On such a subject it is impossible to collect statistics; but the evidence of persons well acquainted with the race goes to prove that every year greater breadths of land are brought under cultivation; that strenuous exertions are made to obtain the best implements; and that the labours of every tribe is directed to recouping the losses sustained during times of agricultural inaction. The second feature is the anxiety displayed for the education of children, and for their instruction in the English language. Nothing has more largely contributed to this than the admission of natives, not only to the Legislative Council and the House of Representatives, but also into the ranks of the Executive Government. The natives have thus been induced to take a deep interest in the proceedings in Parliament, and they make it their business to become well acquainted with all that goes on in each House. The discussions which take place in Parliament are criticised in even remote villages. The ignorance of our language by the Maori members is seen to be to their disadvantage; and so the Maoris of the present day are constant

in their applications for schools. For the support of them a sum is granted annually by the Legislature, which has to be supplemented by the natives, who give lands as endowments for the schools, procure timber for the buildings, assist in their erection and contribute towards the salaries of the teachers. The system adopted is one of numerous day-schools established wherever children are found in some numbers, and a strict rule is that the Maori tongue is not to be used within the school. The children are taught reading, writing, arithmetic, geography and history; the girls learning also to sew, to wash, &c. They all receive lessons in tidiness, cleanliness and order, which cannot but be salutary. In addition to the village schools there are a few establishments, chiefly founded by religious bodies, but mainly supported by the State, where native children are boarded. There are already forty-nine of these native schools, with 1268 scholars. Others are contemplated. There has not yet been time for any visible results, but the progress made by the pupils generally is such as to give good hopes for the future. It has been said that the whole of the Middle Island has been purchased from the natives, but this cannot be said of the Northern Island. Here the Maoris still possess a vast extent of country—too vast for them to make any use of. It was by purchase that the lands were acquired on which are situated the flourishing settlements of the North Island, and it is by purchase from the native owners that fresh lands are being obtained whether by the Government or by private persons. In many instances also large tracts are leased from the natives and are occupied by settlers as sheep or cattle runs. It is however one of the laws of the colony that whatever areas of land a tribe may desire to sell or lease it shall retain a sufficiency to enable it to maintain itself, and consequently large reserves made in the interest of native sellers are to be found in each island. As the immigration and public works undertaken by the colony proceed additional value is given year by year to the land still held by the natives, who are aiding largely in the opening up of the country. By the Maoris generally the scheme of intersecting the Northern Island by railways and by roads has been hailed with pleasure. They have taken readily to road-making, and by their labour highways have been opened into the interior along which coaches now run, passing over country which but a short time ago was accessible only by the roughest horse tracks. The foregoing brief sketch shows the difference between the N.Z. native as he now is and the wild savage he is too often falsely represented to be."

MARANON RIVER, a beautiful and large river of N.A. which falls into the river Balonne at its junction with the Cogoon. It was discovered by Mitchell in 1838.

MARIA ISLAND, in T., is situated on the E. coast; its two principal bays are Oyster Bay

on the W. coast, and Riddle Bay on the E. coast ; its capes are Cape Mistaken or Coxcomb Head, Cape Bald, Deturn Point and Cape Peron. It was named by Tasman after the wife of Governor Van Diemen.

MARION DU FRESNE, French navigator, was the first visitor to V.D.L. after Tasman. The French Government fitted out an expedition in 1771 with the object of exploring the Southern Ocean, consisting of two vessels, the *Mascarin* and the *Marquis de Castries*, and the command was given to Marion. On the 3rd March 1772 he first sighted the W. coast of V.D.L. and next day anchored in Frederik Hendrik's Bay. The fires and smoke seen by day and night bespoke the country to be well inhabited ; and on anchoring there were about thirty natives assembled on the shore. On the boats being sent next morning the natives went to them without distrust ; presented a lighted stick to the new-comers and seemed to ask them to set fire to the pile. Not knowing what this ceremony meant they complied and the act seemed neither to excite surprise nor to cause any alteration in the conduct of the natives ; they continued to remain about the French party with their wives and children as before. The French tried to win them by presents, but they rejected with disdain everything that was offered, even iron, looking glasses, handkerchiefs and cloth. The party had been about an hour on shore with the savages when Marion went on shore. One of the natives stepped forward and offered him a fire-brand to be applied to a small bit of wood, and Marion supposing it was a ceremony necessary to prove that he came with friendly intentions set fire to the heap without hesitation. This was no sooner done than they retired to a small hill and threw a shower of stones by which Marion and the commander of the *Castries* were both wounded. Some shots were then fired and the French returning to their boats coasted along the beach to an open place in the middle of the bay, where there was no hill from whence they could be annoyed. The savages sent their women and children into the woods and followed the boats along shore, and on their putting into land one of the natives set up a hideous cry and immediately a shower of spears was discharged. A black servant was hurt in the leg ; and firing then commenced by which several of the natives were wounded and one was killed. They fled to the woods making a frightful howling, but carried off such of the wounded as were unable to follow. Fifteen men armed with muskets pursued them, and on entering amongst the trees they found a dying savage. The spears which it was feared might have been poisoned were proved not to be so by the facility with which the wound of the black servant was healed. After the flight of the savages Marion sent two officers with detachments to search for water and trees to make a foremast and bowsprit for the *Castries*, but after traversing two leagues of country without meeting an inhabitant they

returned unsuccessful, nor could any fresh water be found during the six days the ships remained in the bay. Finding he was losing time in searching for water in this wild country Marion determined to make sail for N.Z. He left V.D.L. on 10th March and on 11th May anchored his two ships in the Bay of Islands. Next day the sick were landed on Te Wai-iti Island. The New Zealanders brought the ships crews abundance of fish and the French in return loaded them with presents. Friendship and confidence rapidly sprung up ; the French often slept on shore and the natives on shipboard. Marion, whose authority over all was soon perceived, was the object of universal attention, and he placed in the aborigines such unbounded confidence that Crozet, the second in command of the expedition, took the liberty of pointing out to him the imprudence of his conduct. In this happy state Marion and his crew passed their time at the Bay of Islands until the 8th June. On that day Marion landed, and after the natives had decorated his head with four long white flowers he returned to the ship more delighted than ever with his new friends. But it was remarked that the natives had ceased to visit the ships, and one girl on leaving gave signs of sorrow which none could explain. On 12th June Marion went on shore to enjoy a day's fishing in Manawaoroa Bay. When evening came it caused some surprise on board the ships that Marion did not return, although no evil was suspected. Early next morning the boat of the *Marquis de Castries* with twelve men was sent for food and water to Orokawa. Four hours after its departure one of the sailors from this boat swam off to the vessel almost dead with terror, and related that the boat's crew on landing were received by the natives in the usual friendly manner, but while dispersed collecting firewood each man was suddenly attacked by six New Zealanders and all were killed save himself. From a concealed thicket he beheld his comrades' bodies cut into pieces and divided among the murderers who immediately left the spot. The *Mascarin's* long-boat was at once launched with a strongly-armed crew. As it approached the land Marion's boat was seen surrounded by natives near the bottom of Manawaoroa Bay. It was not thought advisable to inquire for Marion but to go and warn Crozet, who with sixty men were felling a tree two miles inland. Crozet on hearing what had happened ordered the men to collect their tools and march to the beach. Part of the cut-down tree and the road made to drag it along still remain and are pointed out as the road of Marion. Crozet did not communicate to his party the bloody transactions which had occurred, lest they might endanger their safety by an unseasonable revenge. During the march of the party to the beach they were met and followed by crowds of natives, who shouted that Tacouri had killed and eaten Marion. On reaching the strand Crozet seized a musket, drew a line on the sand and cried that he would shoot the first native

who crossed it. This bold bearing enabled his party to embark safely in the boats. Then came the hour for vengeance. Volley after volley of musketry was fired among the solid body of the New Zealanders on the beach, who stupefied by terror stood like sheep to be slaughtered. That night the sick were embarked on board the ships and the next day a party sent for wood and water destroyed the village of Motu Arohia and killed many of the inhabitants. Some days after several natives were seen dressed in the murdered sailors' clothes and were shot. A party sent to ascertain Marion's fate found Tacouri's village deserted and saw that chief decamp with Marion's mantle. In one house pieces of human flesh were seen in baskets. After setting fire to this and another village the ships weighed anchor and stood out of the Bay of Islands, which they named the Bay of Treachery. Crozet in his narrative repeatedly states that the French gave no cause of offence; that up to the fatal day nothing could exceed the apparent harmony in which both races lived. "They treated us (says Crozet,) with every show of friendship for thirty-three days with the intention of eating us on the thirty-fourth." Such is the French account of Marion's massacre; the native version Dr. Thomson accidentally heard on a singular occasion. He gathered that long ago two vessels commanded by Marion visited the Bay of Islands, and that a strong friendship sprung up between the two races; and that they planted the garlic which flavours the milk, butter and flesh of cows fed in that district. Before the Wewis, as the French are now called, departed, they violated sacred places, cooked food with tapued wood and put two chiefs in irons; that in revenge the natives killed Marion and several of his crew, and in the same spirit the French burned villages and shot many New Zealanders.

MARLOW RIVER, in N.A., was discovered by Leichhardt; it falls into the Gulf of Carpentaria, and was named after Captain Marlow of the Royal Engineers for his kind contribution to his expedition. He crossed it in lat. 17° S.

MARSDEN, SAMUEL (1764—1858) senior chaplain of N.S.W., was a native of Horsforth, a village near Leeds in England. He received his education in the Free Grammar School at Hull of which the celebrated Joseph Milner, the ecclesiastical historian, was then head master. On his removal from school he took part for a while in his father's business; but being a lad of ability and of exemplary character he was adopted by the Elland Society, and placed at St. John's College, Cambridge, to study for the ministry of the Church of England. Whilst at the University Marsden gained the friendship of the Rev. Charles Simeon. He was not however permitted to complete the University course or take any degree; as through the influence of Mr. Wilberforce he was induced to accept a chaplaincy in what was then called His Majesty's Territory of New South

Wales. In 1794 Marsden arrived at Port Jackson, and entered on his sacred duties, being stationed at Parramatta. For a short time the Rev. Mr. Johnson, who had accepted the office of first chaplain in the colony, assisted him in his labours; but that gentleman feeling himself unequal to the office conferred on him returned to England, and left his colleague with a heavy charge. Considering the state of the colony at the time and the places under his care, Marsden had an arduous task to perform and needed an extraordinary amount of physical and mental endurance. As far as can be judged from the published records, he discharged his duties conscientiously and with great benefit to the community; but the office of Magistrate which was forced upon him by the Government, frequently placed him in a position somewhat inconsistent with his sacred profession. Owing to political circumstances arising between the Governor and the officers of the N.S.W. Corps, Marsden obtained leave of absence and returned to England in 1807. During the two years he remained in Europe he used his influence with the Government to effect several moral and social reforms in the colony, and to direct the attention of the religious world to the evangelisation of N.Z. and the Society Islands. On his return to the Colony in 1809, Marsden brought with him some eminent missionary clergymen, whose names are held in grateful memory in N.S.W., amongst them being Archdeacon Cowper and the Rev. R. Cartwright. He took almost immediate steps to establish a mission in N.Z. under the auspices of the Church Missionary Society. In pursuance of this design he made seven missionary voyages to N.Z., the dangers he encountered in vessels not always seaworthy, and the extraordinary fortitude which he manifested in travelling amongst the savages being both very remarkable. In those days a voyage from Sydney to N.Z. was considered a great undertaking, and few persons ventured to land on a coast where so many massacres had been committed. Marsden impressed the N.Z. chiefs with the benevolence of his intentions, and gained a surprising influence over them. He died in May 1858 at the parsonage, Windsor, then occupied by his friend the Rev. H. T. Styles. His last days were calm and peaceful, and though he spoke but little, "yet in his conscious moments he said quite enough to show that the Saviour whom he served through life was with him in the time of trial." He was buried at Parramatta, his remains being followed to the grave by representatives from all classes of the community. Two tablets have been placed in memory of him in St. John's church, Parramatta. The church of All Saint's, Marsfield, was intended as a kind of monument to perpetuate his name; and some elegant windows have been presented to the church of his native village to do honour to one "whose praise is in all the churches." Marsden's long life was one of extraordinary struggles with powerful and bitter opponents. But the presence

of a faithful and fearless minister in a society thoroughly corrupt explains the grounds and motives of the enmity he excited. The Rev. D. Woods says of Marsden :—"We are perhaps living too near the days of Samuel Marsden to form a just estimate of his life, character and labours. Though not distinguished for literary and scientific attainments, or for the eloquence and pathos of his preaching, he was a man of no ordinary type. Some of his papers and letters display a considerable amount of good sense and clearness of expression, whilst his speeches and sermons were sound and practical, designed rather to enlighten the understanding and to improve the heart than to electrify by the wisdom of words. In private life he was characterised by simplicity, kindness and liberality, always ready to listen to the tale of woe, and glad to distribute to the poor and needy." There were elements of greatness in Marsden's character, and he is certainly deserving of being held in everlasting remembrance as the Apostle of N.Z.

MARSDEN, SAMUEL EDWARD (1832—) a native of Sydney, and grandson of the foregoing, was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge; he was ordained in 1855, and having been curate in two parishes was made Vicar of Berysworth, Worcestershire. In 1869 he was consecrated first Bishop of Bathurst, N.S.W.

MARTHA, MOUNT, in V., on the eastern shore of Port Phillip to the northward of Arthur's Seat. It was named by Murray in 1802.

MARTIN, SIR JAMES (1820—) Chief Justice of N.S.W., came to Sydney in 1821. The early years of his life were spent at Parramatta. In 1834 his parents removed to Sydney, and Martin was sent to the Sydney College, of which W. T. Cope was head master. After leaving school he entered the office of Robert Nichols, attorney and solicitor. He was admitted as an attorney of the Supreme Court in May 1845 and continued to practise in that branch of the profession for some years. In 1848 he began to write for the *Atlas* newspaper; and in 1851 contributed to the *Empire* recently started by Parkes. In 1848 Martin was elected to represent Cook and Westmoreland. His opponent petitioned against the election and he was unseated; but when the new election came on Martin was re-elected without having to go to the poll. In 1851 he was again elected for Cook and Westmoreland, and continued for several years to represent that electorate. During this period of his parliamentary career he initiated the discussion which led to the establishment of a branch of the Royal Mint in Sydney, and persevered in that design until it came to a successful issue. His favourite railway policy was very characteristic. In order to drive back the Melbourne merchants from Riverina he urged the extension without delay of the Southern Railway to the Murrumbidgee at Narrandera, leaving the Western and Northern lines without extension

until N.S.W. should triumph over V. and secure the trade of the South. In 1856 when the first Parliament under Responsible Government was summoned, Martin was again elected for Cook and Westmoreland. Finding himself opposed by the principal conservatives of the day he threw his talents into the scale of the liberal party then led by Cowper; and when the Donaldson Ministry was defeated in August 1856 Cowper appointed him Attorney-General in his first Administration. So strong however was the personal opposition to Martin, that a vote of censure was carried against the Cowper Ministry on the ground of his being a member of it. Shortly after this event he was called to the Bar, and speedily attained a position equal to that of his seniors in the profession. When the Parker-Donaldson Ministry was defeated in September 1857, and Cowper returned to office, Martin went with him as Attorney-General; and those who had before objected to his appointment no longer refused to recognise his title to that position. His achievement in that Administration was in securing the passing of the new Assessment Act, which made the squatters contribute more to the revenue. He resigned in November 1858. In the third Legislative Assembly, which was elected by manhood suffrage under the Electoral Law of 1858 and met in August 1859, Martin was one of the four representatives elected by East Sydney, his colleagues being Cowper, John Black and Henry Parkes. Martin came into office as Premier for the first time in October 1863. He associated with himself W. Forster as Colonial Secretary, Geoffrey Eagar as Treasurer, J. B. Wilson as Minister for Lands, A. T. Holroyd as Minister for Works, and Peter Faucett as Solicitor-General. Plunket, then a Member of the Legislative Council, accepted the office of Vice-President of the Executive Council. The chief work undertaken by this Ministry was to place the finances of the country on a better footing; as shortly before they came into power it was announced by the Treasurer that there was a deficiency of some £400,000. To meet this emergency the Treasurer in 1864 proposed a financial scheme of a protective character; it was with a few alterations passed by the Assembly, but rejected by the Council, and a dissolution of Parliament followed. The cry of "Free Trade *versus* Protection" was raised throughout the country. Martin was returned for the Lachlan Electorate, but a large majority of the new members were elected as representatives of the Free Trade party. The new Parliament met in January 1865; a Want of Confidence motion was moved by Cowper, and carried by a large majority. The Cowper Ministry which succeeded failed to overcome the financial difficulties of the country in a manner satisfactory to Parliament; and in less than twelve months Martin was again called upon to form an Administration. The previous Ministry had been defeated on a motion by Parkes; and although that gentleman had been opposed to Martin they agreed to associate in the

formation of a Government. Martin brought in his former colleagues Eagar and Wilson; and Parkes brought in Byrnes, with whom he had co-operated on most public questions ever since they had been in the political arena. To these were added Isaacs as Solicitor-General, and Docker as Postmaster-General. This was considered the strongest Ministry ever formed under Responsible Government in the colony. It came into office in January 1866, and for two years was successful in maintaining a large majority, carrying measures of great importance. The principal of these was the Public Schools Act, which introduced a new era in general education throughout the colony. The amended Municipalities Act also yielded salutary results. The leading idea of this Administration was to abate the evils of popular ignorance, idleness, intemperance and pauperism. Having by the Public Schools Act made provision for the extension of elementary education amongst all classes, they brought in measures for the establishment of Industrial Schools and Reformatories in order to meet the wants of neglected children and juvenile offenders. The Vernon Training School and the Reformatory at Newcastle are the fruits of these measures. The Martin-Parkes Ministry had the honour of receiving H.R.H. Prince Alfred when he visited these colonies, and in commemoration of this event Martin as Premier received the honour of knighthood. During Martin's Ministry, and through his determination, the idea of fortifying the harbour effectually was first entertained. In the session of 1868 the Ministry resigned and a new Government was formed by Robertson. Sir James Martin was again Premier and Attorney-General in 1870-2, when he associated Robertson with himself. In November 1873 he retired from Parliament and was appointed Chief Justice of the Supreme Court, the position he now occupies.

MARTIN CAPE, in S.A., is the N. point of Rivoli Bay, in which there is anchorage in five or six fathoms. The coast between the two capes is sandy and sterile, with hummocks visible at the distance of four leagues. From Cape Martin an extensive ledge of rocks with heavy breakers stretches off to the S., leaving a passage of one-and-a-half miles wide between it and a short reef from Cape Buffon (of Flinders) into the anchorage of Rivoli Bay. The tide is uncertain on this part of the coast, as the sea is heavy, and rises quickly.

MARYBOROUGH, a township of V., 112 miles N.W. of Melbourne, and the principal town of the N.W. gold-fields. The population is about 3500. The diggings in the Maryborough mining district are of great extent and richness, there being 122½ square miles of auriferous ground and 602 distinct quartz reefs.

MARYBOROUGH, a municipal township in Q., on the north bank of the river Mary, twenty-five miles from its mouth, about 180 miles N. of Brisbane. It is the port of shipment for the greater portion of the produce of the Wide Bay

and Burnett district, and is also the principal town in the district. The population numbers about 6600 in the municipality, inclusive of the suburbs and agricultural settlements. The town was proclaimed a municipality on 23rd March 1861, and re-incorporated on 8th June 1875. It contains many substantial public buildings, eight places of worship, an abundant water supply, and is lighted with gas. The banks of the Mary from the township up consist chiefly of rich scrub-lands under cultivation for sugar, which gives employment to several large sugar factories. Timber suitable for building and other purposes abounds in the neighbourhood and is largely exported. In its preparation for shipment seven mills in the vicinity of the town are employed. Two iron-foundries are at work, with one of which is connected a shipbuilding yard; other industries being two distilleries, one tannery, two breweries, and two soap manufactories. Maryborough is one of the outports of the Mount Perry copper mine, and also of the Gympie goldfield. The stations in the neighbourhood are principally engaged in raising cattle, and are in a flourishing state.

MARY RIVER, in Q., falling into Wide Bay. The town of Maryborough stands on its banks. It was so named by Governor Fitzroy after his wife Lady Mary.

McCLUER, JOHN, Lieutenant in the Bombay Marines, was in 1791 engaged in making a survey of the coast of New Guinea and touched on the coast of Arnheim's Land, sailing west when the coast was found to turn southward. This was the Cape Van Diemen of the old Dutch navigators.

McCOY, FREDERICK, Professor of Natural Science in the University of Melbourne, is a native of Dublin, and was educated for the medical profession, partly in that city and subsequently at Cambridge. Whilst yet too young to be admitted to the profession, he accepted the offer of Sir Richard Griffith to make the palæontological investigations required for the Geological Map of Ireland for the Boundary Survey, and published the results of his examinations in two quarto volumes illustrated with numerous plates, chiefly from his own drawings; the one entitled "Synopsis of the Carboniferous Limestone Fossils of Ireland," and the other, "Synopsis of the Silurian Fossils of Ireland," containing many hundreds of new discoveries. He was then invited by Sir Henry James and Sir Henry de la Bèche to join the British Geological Survey; and after completing the maps of the districts geologically surveyed by him in the field, was appointed by Sir Robert Peel's Government one of the first professors of the Queen's University of Ireland, the Chair of Geology in the Northern College being assigned him. During the vacations he undertook in conjunction with Professor Sedgwick the large work on "British Palæozoic Rocks and Fossils," based on the materials in the Woodwardian Collection at Cambridge. McCoy's portion of this work was

published in a quarto volume. He was chosen by a committee, of which Sir John Herschel was chairman, the first professor of natural science in the University of Melbourne, where he continued to lecture on chemistry and mineralogy, botany, zoology, comparative anatomy and geology; besides filling the offices of Director of the National Museum of Natural Science and palæontologist to the geological survey. His original discoveries in every branch of natural science form upwards of 100 essays, printed in the *Annals of Natural History* and the proceedings of various scientific societies. He is an honorary member of the Cambridge Philosophical Society and of various other scientific bodies in different parts of the world. He was also created a Knight (or Chevalier) of the Royal Order of the Crown of Italy by King Victor Emmanuel. His *Prodromus* of the Zoology and Palæontology of Victoria is now in course of publication.

MCCULLOCH, SIR JAMES (1819—) is a native of Glasgow, and at an early age entered the office of Messrs. J. Dennistoun and Co., eminent merchants there. He was chosen as the representative of the firm to establish a branch of their business in Melbourne. He came to V. in 1853 by the steamship *Adelaide*. The passage was one of unusual peril; for in the Bay of Biscay the vessel was found to be on fire. By great exertions the fire was subdued. The passage occupied 163 days. On his arrival McCulloch opened a branch of the business in Melbourne, with the title of Dennistoun Brothers and Company. In 1854 he entered political life as a nominee Member of the Legislative Council, before the introduction of Responsible Government. When the new Constitution was introduced he was elected to the first Legislative Assembly for the Wimmera. So great an influence did he gain that, on the defeat of the first O'Shanassy Ministry, he was sent for by the Governor to form a new Administration. He succeeded in his task, and took for himself the office of Commissioner for Customs. That Ministry retained office for two years. At the general election of 1858 he was returned for East Melbourne; and when the second O'Shanassy Ministry was defeated in 1859 McCulloch again took office in the Nicholson Ministry. This time he held the position of Treasurer. When the Nicholson Ministry was overthrown he left V. for a visit to the mother country. On his return he was elected for Mornington, and on several subsequent occasions by the same constituency. When the O'Shanassy-Duffy Ministry was defeated in June 1863 McCulloch was once more called on to form a Ministry. He made a coalition with Heales, who had been his opponent in 1859; and waiving minor differences they formed the strongest Ministry hitherto known in Victoria. He was associated with Higinbotham, Michie, Francis, and other men of influence in the advocacy of Protection. Admitting the general principles of Free-Trade as a cosmopolitan system, they held

that for a time new countries require the aid of a protective system. During the visit of the Duke of Edinburgh to Australia, McCulloch was Premier, and received the honour of knighthood. In April 1870 McCulloch formed his third Ministry, which lasted until June 1871, when they were defeated, and Duffy became Premier. Soon after that event McCulloch visited the mother country; and shortly after his return, on the defeat of the Berry Government in October 1875, he formed a Ministry which lasted from October in that year to May 1877, when, at the general election the verdict of the country was given against it. McCulloch retired from public life at the dissolution of the Assembly.

MCDONNEL, RICHARD GRAVES, was educated at Trinity College, Dublin, graduated B.A. in 1835, M.A. in 1838 and LL.D. in 1844. He was called to the Irish Bar in 1838 and to the English Bar in 1840. He was appointed Chief Justice of the Gambia in 1843 and held the post until 1847 and was Governor until 1851; appointed Governor of St. Lucia 1852 and transferred to St. Vincent the same year. In 1855 he was appointed Governor of S.A.; in 1864 of Nova Scotia, and in 1865 of Hong Kong. He retired on a pension in 1872, and received the honour of knighthood for his services.

McFARLAND, ALFRED (1824—) jurist, is a native of Londonderry in Ireland. He was called to the Bar of Ireland in 1847, joined the north-east circuit and practised for ten years in the superior courts at Dublin as a conveyancer and real property lawyer. He published a book on the "Principles and Practice of Pleading in Equity," which procured his first judicial appointment. He was nominated by the Lord Chancellor of Ireland, and appointed by the Government, judge of the principal Civil and Criminal Courts of W.A. He remained in that colony for three years, but resigned in March 1861, and came to N.S.W. where he was appointed Acting District Court Judge. He was made Chief Commissioner of Insolvent Estates the same year; in 1865 became one of the Metropolitan District Court Judges and Chairman of Quarter Sessions—a position which he exchanged in 1869 for the office of Judge of the Southern District Courts and Courts of Quarter Sessions. Whilst holding these various offices he consolidated and amended the Insolvency Acts, District Court Acts and Mining Acts, and has been an earnest advocate of reform in the various departments of the legal and judicial systems. He is also the author of a work descriptive of the districts of Illawarra and Manaro, and a contributor to the literary columns of the journals.

MCGOWAN, SAMUEL WALKER (1829—) was in the service of different Telegraph Companies in America until the end of 1852, when he emigrated to Australia and landed in Melbourne in 1853, with the design of establishing private telegraphs; but the Government determining to assume the proprietary he tendered for the

construction of a telegraph line between Melbourne and Williamstown in September 1853. In 1854 the Telegraph Statute was passed, and the Electric Telegraph department thus established was placed under his charge and during the next fifteen years he introduced the existing Telegraphic system. In 1869 the Telegraph and Postal departments were amalgamated and he was made Inspector of Post and Telegraph Service. He is now Deputy Postmaster-General.

McILWRAITH, THOMAS (1835—) came to Melbourne in 1855 and was appointed Civil Engineer to the Government Railways. In 1861 he went to Q., engaged in squatting pursuits and settled there in 1870. He represented for many years the Maranoa in the Legislative Assembly and joined the Macalister Government as Minister for Works, but shortly afterwards resigned. In 1878 he was elected for Mulgrave and on the defeat of the Douglas Ministry in January 1879, formed a new Government of which he is Premier.

McINTYRE, DUNCAN, explorer. Some time after all the Burke and Wills searching expeditions had returned, in looking for pastoral country on their routes, McIntyre found that several stations had already been formed in the Carpentaria country, and when on the Flinders River was informed by a shepherd that at a place about five or six miles from his hut there was a tree, if not two trees, marked with an L, and that two old horses were running at large there. These McIntyre surmised to be traces of Leichhardt, and forthwith communicated with Baron von Mueller in Melbourne. The locality in which the supposed traces were found was certainly a puzzle. It was not in the position where Leichhardt had crossed the Flinders on his expedition from Moreton Bay to Port Essington in 1844, and to imagine that he had come there again upon his last and fatal journey, which was to be across the continent from Brisbane to Swan River was hardly credible, as it would have carried him at least six degrees of latitude clear out of his intended course for no conceivable purpose. The importunity of McIntyre, and the public anxiety to learn the fate of the lost explorer, however, set these doubts aside. The ladies of V. took the matter in hand. Lectures and concerts were given in aid, municipal bodies contributed, and at length the sum of £4000 was raised, which was unreservedly handed over to McIntyre. The committee of the Ladies' Leichhardt Search Expedition made one recommendation. They suggested the appointment of Dr. James Patrick Murray as second in command and medical man to the party; and to his gross misconduct is largely to be attributed the catastrophe which followed. Dr. Murray had been out with Howitt's party. He lived to figure as a principal in a slaving voyage in the South Seas, commonly known as "the *Carl* case," from the name of the vessel in which he and his associates carried out their kidnapping of the

islanders. McIntyre's party consisted of his brother, Barnes, and five others, one of whom was an Afghan in charge of the camels lent by the Victorian Government. He had also fifty or sixty horses. From the Darling he made for a former depôt on the Paroo, whence he intended to push across to the Flinders, where he had originally seen the marked trees and captured the two horses. The season was very dry, but knowing the country ahead of him he pushed forward and reached the desired waterhole. From this depôt was a stretch of seventy-five miles to the next waterhole on Cooper's Creek. The whole party were ordered to move across it. All the animals were heavily laden and suffered greatly, and to McIntyre's terrible distress on reaching it they found the great hollow, which eighteen months previously had been full, now utterly dry. There were but two courses open—to advance or retreat. The latter was determined on. The leader and a black boy went back with the camels in advance of the main party intending to return with a supply. Murray was to bring the rest on their back tracks. McIntyre got the water, loaded up, and returned to meet them. Meantime this is what had happened. Scarcely had the leader turned his back when Murray called a halt, and knife in hand ripped up the bags of flour, in which were concealed several bottles of brandy. All excepting Barnes drank of the spirit until they were delirious. The fifty or sixty horses were abandoned *en masse* and wandered away with their packs and saddles on to die in agonies of thirst. Only two or three were saved. Such was the scene that met the view of the leader. He got them at length back to the water, where one man died. Thus ended the last Leichhardt search. It was an ignominious failure, the result of want of judgment and experience. It is very certain that the marked trees on the Flinders were done by Landsborough, and the horses had been left by McKinlay. There was no reason to suppose that Leichhardt had gone a second time to Carpentaria when he wanted to go to Perth, and as McIntyre's work was to commence when he reached the Gulf country, he would have saved his party and his animals had he travelled up the settled river Warrego, and not have gone to the more westerly Paroo, which at that time was unsettled. There was nothing to be gained by it, and when he had determined to travel over unsettled country he should have felt his way before him and not pushed a mob of heavily loaded pack-horses in the heat of summer into a waterless region. McIntyre subsequently got over to Carpentaria, and died there from fever.

McIVOR ROBBERY. On 20th July 1853 the private escort from the McIvor diggings to Melbourne was attacked by a gang of bush-rangers who were planted in ambush near the road and who shot down the troopers before they were even aware of the danger. They were discovered through one of the gang having been

detected on board the ship *Madagascar* in Hobson's Bay on the eve of her departure. He turned Queen's evidence and then committed suicide; but his brother who belonged to the same gang had also been apprehended and turned Queen's evidence, and three of the ruffians—George Melville, George Wilson and W. Atkins—were hanged.

McKINLAY, JOHN, explorer, was sent out by the S.A. Government in 1861 to search for Burke and Wills. The party started from Adelaide on 16th August 1861, and arrived at Lake Pando on 6th October, where they heard reports from the Lake Torrens blacks of white men travelling with camels. On 20th October they reached Lake Kadhi-baerri (Lake Massacre) and found tracks of camels and horses and a white man's grave. They picked up a canteen, an exploded Eley's cartridge and a piece of the *Nautical Almanac*, horsehair, &c. The body was that of a European enveloped in a flannel jacket with short sleeves. This was Gray's grave. Here McKinlay had a brush with the natives. Having as he thought found traces of the destruction of Burke's party, McKinlay sent the news back to Adelaide, and establishing a depôt in lat. 27° 41' long. 139° 30' waited the return of Hodgkinson, who brought from Adelaide the news of the rescue of King by Howitt. In an excursion to the eastward he visited the graves of Burke and Wills. Starting from his depôt, he got into a country of lakes, where they camped from the 6th to the 18th January 1862. The lakes were covered with wild fowl and the country was very good. On 14th February they found the remains of Burke's horse and saddle. Near this McKinlay left his cart and sundry things. Several of his party were very ill and the heat was intense. Some of the bullocks were killed by it, but the sheep thrived wonderfully. At the beginning of March the rain fell, and the country became flooded and difficult to travel. On 5th May 1862 the party were on Gregory's track twenty miles east of where he crossed the Leichhardt, which river they struck next day. At Rowdy Creek Camp on 17th May he killed one of his remaining bullocks, which only gave them seventy pounds weight of meat without a particle of fat. They were now surrounded by salt water creeks and the river and within four or five miles of the coast. On 21st May they commenced their return journey towards Port Denison. Through very rough country, in which the horses knocked up, provisions failing, flavouring their soup with the pickled green-hide reserved for the camels' boots, the party travelled slowly towards the station on the Burkekin till on 11th July they reached the Campbell and Bowen Rivers. On the 20th they reached the McKeachie Creek and two days after the Burdekin. Only two pack horses and one camel left Forster's Peak and River. On 30th July they killed and boiled down their last camel. On 2nd August, with only the horses they rode and one pack horse they struck Hawey and Somers's out-station on the Bowen. Finally, the

party reached Port Denison and Melbourne, where a great ovation was given to McKinlay and his party.

McMILLAN, ANGUS, explorer, and the discoverer of Gippsland. He came to Sydney in 1830, and resided on various stations in the interior till May 1839, at which time he was superintendent on Macalister's station in the Maneroo district. He had won the confidence of the blacks in the neighborhood, who had traditions of a fine country to the south; and with the intention of finding a station for himself he started with one of them from Carrywong on the 28th of that month, with four weeks provisions. From the top of Mount McLeod he had a view of Corner Inlet, and of the long Ninety-mile Beach. On a second expedition, on the 20th December 1839, he reached the Glangarry on the 23rd January 1840, formed a party, and finally starting on 9th February 1841 from the station he had formed at Nunton on the Avon, reached the sea-coast on the 14th, and supped the saltwater at Port Albert out of his Highland bonnet. A sun-dial, affixed to a gum-tree stump, was erected by public subscription, and now marks the spot. Strzelecki, who had walked over 7000 miles of Australian ground in his valuable scientific travels, joined in Sydney in January 1840 James Macarthur and James Riley, who had formed the idea of travelling in search of country available for grazing to the sea-coast at Western Port; this after suffering great hardships they reached on 11th May. On the 7th March 1840 Strzelecki and his companions came down and called at McMillan's camp on Dowman's River, and were supplied with provisions, a camp kettle, and a guide, who went a day's journey with them over the tracks into what McMillan had called Caledonia Australis, but which, at the suggestion of the Count, was named after the Governor of N.S.W. Without detracting from the eminent services of Strzelecki, there can be no doubt that the honour of the first exploration of "the Arcadian beauties of this noble province," and the marking of a road to a seaport, belongs to McMillan.

MEANDER RIVER, a beautiful river of T. falling into the South Esk.

MEEHAN, JAMES, Government Surveyor, accompanied the *Cumberland* schooner in its survey of Port Phillip in 1802 and subsequently was with Hume in several successful exploring expeditions in N.S.W. in 1817, in the course of which the Goulburn Plains and a great part of the country of Argyle, as far as Lake Bathurst, were discovered.

MELBOURNE, the capital of V., ranks ninth amongst the cities of the British Empire, and is one of the finest cities in the world. It lies in 37° 49' 28" S. lat., 144° 58' 35" E. long., the magnetic variation as decided in 1857 being 80° 33'. It is situated on the north bank of the river Yarra Yarra in the county of Bourke. It forms, with its suburbs, a police district of itself, and is

divided into three electoral districts, Melbourne E., Melbourne W., and Melbourne N., each represented by two members. It is divided for municipal purposes into seven wards, each having an alderman and three councillors—Lonsdale, Bourke, Gipps, Latrobe, Smith, Victoria and Albert wards. Melbourne is so named after Lord Melbourne who was Premier of Great Britain at the time it was founded. When it is considered that the city is not more than about forty-four years old, it stands almost alone in the rapidity of its growth and development from a habitation of savages to the position of one of the chief cities of the British Empire; affording a striking proof of and being a remarkable monument to what the enterprise of man and the power of wealth can effect in a short time. It abounds in edifices which rival those of the older capitals of Europe, and which, though of recent and rapid construction, are as substantial and enduring as those of any place in the world, the material (bluestone) of which most of the warehouses and many of the public buildings are in whole or in part constructed being, so to speak, of an imperishable nature. The churches are numerous, conspicuous among them being the Scots Church, built of brown freestone and the white Kakanui stone, in the Early English style of architecture and having an elegantly proportioned steeple 211 feet in height. The new Bank of Australasia is also a commanding building of the Italian Doric order. The public and Government buildings exceed perhaps those of any other city of the same size in any part of the world, although some of them—the Parliament Houses for example—are yet unfinished. The most noteworthy edifices are the Treasury; Houses of Parliament, with a library of 35,000 vols.; the new Law Courts; Free Library, containing 101,035 vols.; Post Office; Government Printing Office; an immense building at the back of the Treasury for the Land, Mining and other Departments; Custom House, having a fine frontage to Queen's Wharf, and being near the spot where Fawcner moored the little craft that was the pioneer of the fleets of merchantmen that have ploughed the waters of Hobson's Bay; the Mint; the University, with the admirable museum attached and the Wilson Hall; the new Town Hall with one of the largest and finest organs in the world; the various places of worship already alluded to, other prominent ones being St. Patrick's Cathedral (Roman Catholic) which has for many years been in course of erection; Wesley Church in Lonsdale-street, with a lofty spire; the Independent Church, a large building of brick and freestone of the Saracenic style with a massive square campanile; Baptist Church in Collins-street; the insurance offices, the theatres in Bourke-street, and many large and handsomely built hotels. Conspicuous from every part of the city is the new Government House, a palatial building with a square tower 145 feet high, from whose summit a magnificent panorama of the land and sea is obtainable, and in

which the representative of royalty is fittingly lodged. A cathedral for the Church of England is being erected; large sums have already been contributed towards it; the site being at the corner of Swanston and Flinders streets. Its length will be 242 feet, with a width of sixty-five feet, and will afford accommodation for 1700 persons. The port of Melbourne is at Sandridge, a small township two and a-half miles distant, situated on Hobson's Bay and connected with the metropolis by road and railway. Sandridge has two large and commodious piers jutting out a long way into the bay, affording accommodation for a large fleet and allowing vessels of almost any tonnage to berth alongside. There is also access for steamers and vessels of moderate size to the heart of the city by means of the Yarra Yarra, which is navigable to Melbourne and no farther, the fairway being then impeded by a dyke of basaltic rock known as the Falls. Immediately below the Falls are the Queen's, Cole's and Australian wharves, extending for about a mile along the north bank of the river, and used almost solely by intercolonial trading vessels and steamers, and the Australian wharf especially by colliers. A new dry dock has just been opened, which will admit ships of 1100 tons, and a wet dock of large area is proposed, with which the railway from Spencer-street would be connected. On the opposite bank of the river are ship-repairing yards, foundries, and many other manufactories; also a newly-constructed stone wharf built at great cost, alongside which large vessels can be accommodated, and having a very large steam crane capable of lifting up to fifty tons from the ships that berth there. Between this and the Queen's Wharf opposite is the Pool, an expansion of the river where the largest vessels using this navigation can turn with ease. A canal to Sandridge has for some time been under consideration, but was not favourably reported on by Sir John Coode, who has submitted plans for the improvement of the Yarra, which will be acted upon. Melbourne is plentifully supplied with omnibuses similar to those in use in New York, cars, cabs, waggonettes and other facilities for suburban and street conveyance, which are as a rule commodious, clean, and run at cheap fares. There are two railway stations, one in Spencer-street near the S.W. angle of the city, being the starting and terminus of the up-country lines to the S., W., N.W., N. and N.E. The other is in Flinders-street about midway on the S. boundary line of the city, and from it the trains to Sandridge, St. Kilda, Hawthorn, Brighton, and the trains to Gippsland run. The principal streets in Melbourne proper are one mile in length, ninety-nine feet in width and run at right angles to each other; they are intersected by smaller streets which bear the name of the larger streets with the prefix of "Little." These leading thoroughfares are named respectively after Australian notabilities—Flinders, Collins, Bourke, Lonsdale and Latrobe, running nearly E. and W.; and cross streets called Spencer, King,

William, Queen, Elizabeth, Swanston, Russell, Stephen and Spring, running nearly N. and S. Elizabeth-street runs in the valley of the two principal hills on which the city is situated and divides it into E. and W. This street is very low, and in rainy weather becomes an angry torrent impassable for foot passengers. At the intersection of Collins and Russell streets is a colossal group of statuary commemorating the explorers Burke and Wills. There are numerous other streets in the outskirts of the city, while the important suburbs of Collingwood, North Melbourne, Fitzroy, Carlton, Brunswick, Emerald Hill, South Yarra, Prahran, Richmond, &c., almost abutting on the city, can boast of fine thoroughfares with well-built business premises as well as private houses. A recent mayor inaugurated a system of planting trees in the main thoroughfares, which in a town where the heat is intense and the dust troublesome in summer will be productive of valuable results in the way of comfort and ornament. The city is well lighted and paved and provided with an abundant supply of water from the Yan Yean reservoir. The drainage is however open to considerable improvement. Gas is supplied by the Metropolitan Gas Company, an amalgamation of the three older gas companies. The Melbourne Hospital is a commodious brick building more useful than ornamental. The Gaol is an extensive range of buildings, the bluestone with which it is built intensifying its gloomy character. It is intended to remove the gaol and sell the site on which it stands. The Athenæum has a library of 16,000 volumes and a large hall capable of seating 1000 persons. The Melbourne Club in Collins-street is a substantial building with excellent appointments, and the Athenæum Club, on a less extensive scale, has all the appliances of a good clubhouse. The Barracks on the St. Kilda-road are a useful and roomy pile. Prince's Bridge spans the river on the S.; it is a stone structure of one arch of 150 feet in width, being but a few feet short of the widest of arches of London Bridge. A larger bridge, owing to the increase of the traffic, is about being built with three spans of 100 feet over the river and two land openings at each end. A wooden bridge crosses what is known as "the Falls," before spoken of, and connects with Emerald Hill and Sandridge. At the northern end of the city in the suburb of Carlton lies the Melbourne Cemetery, an extensive block of ground; it is divided into several parts, according to the religious denominations of those buried there, and contains very many monuments, some exceedingly handsome. The buildings devoted to the purposes of trade are many of them of a superior order and some will vie with similar places in the cities and towns of Great Britain in their fittings and general appointment, particularly those occupied by the warehousemen. The extensive wool stores of Messrs. Goldsborough and Co. are conspicuous by their magnitude. The hotels of Melbourne are

very numerous, well conducted and replete with the conveniences of similar establishments in Europe. The markets are the Eastern, rebuilt at a cost of £77,223, the Western, the Victoria Market, the Fish Market, and the Hay Market at North Melbourne. The four theatres are the new Theatre Royal, the Bijou, the Opera House and the Princess, sometimes called the People's Theatre, at all of which talent of a high order may be seen and heard, and operatic performances by competent artistes are occasionally given; there are several minor places of amusement, including St. George's and Temperance Halls. Nearly every society or company is more or less represented in Melbourne. The charitable institutions are very numerous; the principal are the Hospital mentioned before, having 400 beds, the Benevolent Asylum for aged and infirm people, the Orphan Asylum, the Immigrants Home, Sailors Home and Servants Home, the Lunatic Asylum, Blind Asylum, Lying-in Hospital, Alfred Hospital, Children's Hospital and others. There are several parks and reserves for the recreation of the inhabitants: Studley, Royal (with a good zoological collection,) and Fawkner Parks, and Fitzroy (area 70 acres,) Carlton, the Botanical Gardens (area 100 acres,) the Treasury and the Flagstaff Gardens, being the principal. Of these the Botanical Gardens lying on the S. side of the Yarra, and distant about a mile from the city, are by far the most extensive; and whether as a piece of landscape gardening or as a valuable collection of choice plants and trees, reflect the highest credit on the curator. Next to this may be classed the Fitzroy Gardens (which are beautifully laid out) and the Carlton Gardens. In the central portion of the gardens, about twenty acres, stands the International Exhibition. The buildings have cost some £250,000 and cover an area of five and a half acres of ground. The main building is cruciform, and consists of a nave 500 feet long running from E. to W., and cut through its centre by a transept 270 feet deep, the ends of which are N. and S. At the S. end is the chief portal, a tall arch 40 feet wide and 60 feet high, reached by a flight of broad stone steps. On each side are square towers 105 feet high. Some 50 feet behind the portico and at the point where the transept intersects the nave rises the dome, octagonal in form and reaching the height of 223 feet, some 130 feet above the main roof. At its base the central tower is 100 feet square. The Exhibition was opened on 1st October 1880. Among the places of recreation and amusement may be mentioned the new Picture and Statuary Gallery at the rear of the Public Library. The Melbourne Observatory is provided with appliances of the first order, and the telescope ranks among the largest now in use. The Melbourne Racecourse with a handsome grand stand situated at Flemington, and the Melbourne Cricket Ground in the Richmond Reserve also possessing an elegant and roomy stand, are nowhere surpassed if even equalled for suitability and surroundings.

The former on Cup and other principal race days is thronged by a concourse of people rivalling that on the Epsom Downs. The inhabitants of Melbourne are proud of their city and have good grounds for being so. Melbourne was incorporated on 12th August 1842 and erected into an Episcopal See on 3rd August 1849, the present bishop being the Right Rev. J. Moorhouse. The Roman Catholic archbishop is the Most Rev. J. A. Goold, D.D. The population by the last census was 191,254 persons, or inclusive of a ten-mile radius 205,000; on 31st December 1878 it was estimated to have increased to 256,477. In Melbourne proper there are about 62,500 inhabitants; the rateable property is valued at nearly ten millions sterling, and the net annual value in 1879 was nearly one million sterling. Few cities in the British empire are so well supplied with newspapers. There are three dailies, the *Argus*, *Age* and *Daily Telegraph*, and an evening journal, the *Herald*; also several weeklies and monthlies; these comprise the *Illustrated Australian News* and *Illustrated Sketcher*, published monthly, and the *Australasian*, *Leader*, *Weekly Times*, *Punch*, *Australian Medical Journal*, *Advocate*, *Australian Journal*, *Church of England Messenger*, *Victoria Independent*, *Temperance News*, *Australian Jurist*, *Spectator*, *Southern Cross*, *Australasian Trade Review*, *A B C Travellers' Railway and Road Guide*, *Bradshaw's Guide*, *Insurance Record*, and some others.

HISTORY.—The history of Melbourne, for a considerable period after its foundation, is the history of V. In the articles "Henty," "Batman," and "Fawkner," is given the narrative of the beginnings both of the colony and its capital city; and only some additional details require to be given here. Batman landed in Port Phillip on 29th May 1835. He made a general survey of the shores, and on 6th June he made his famous purchase from the natives of the land on which Melbourne now stands. On returning to his vessel after completing this transaction he records in his diary that he "crossed, on the banks of the river, a large marsh, one mile and a half broad by three or four long, of the richest diluvium: not a tree was to be seen. Upon the borders of this extensive marsh or swamp we disturbed large flocks of quails. In one flock the birds were so numerous as to form a dense cloud. I shot two very large ones. At the upper part of this swamp is an extensive lagoon, at least a mile across; its surface was covered with swans, geese, ducks and other aquatic fowl. Having crossed this marsh we passed through a dense ti-tree scrub, very high, expecting to make the vessel in the course of an hour or two; but to our great surprise when we got through we found ourselves on the banks of a much larger river than the one we had originally gone up. As it was now near sundown, and at least two days would be required to head the river, I decided upon allowing two of my Sydney natives to swim across it, and to go to the vessel, distant about seven miles, to fetch the boat.

Bullet and Bungit started on this enterprise, and returned in about three hours from the time of their departure. Their return with the boat was most opportune, as we had got on the point of junction of the two rivers, where the tide had set in, and was already up to my ankles. I first despatched the party with the dogs in the boat to the opposite bank, and on the return of the boat myself and old Bull, who had cut his foot, went in first-rate style to the vessel." The point struck by Batman was the junction of the Yarra and Saltwater Rivers; he had crossed what is now the West Melbourne Swamp. Next day he ascended the Yarra in a boat, and when he came to the Falls he wrote in his diary, "This will be the place for a village." He then returned to Indented Head where his party were stationed. Fawkner's party landed in what is now Hobson's Bay on 20th August 1835. The master of the vessel here found the freshwater river seen by Batman in June and laid down in his chart, and which he was certain must disembody into this inlet. On the following morning he sent Moor, Lancy, Evans, and W. Jackson in a whale-boat to explore. They found little difficulty in ascending the Saltwater River, but were distressed for water, and returned at night completely exhausted. They again started on the following morning, taking care to provide water and provisions, and ascending the river reached the basin of the Yarra where Melbourne now stands. A most enchanting view here greeted their longing eyes. The river was fringed with the mimosa whose yellow tassels hung over its clear waters; from its north banks rose green slopes of great beauty and fertility. To the north-west were long rolling plains with low hills here and there rising abruptly from the surface, their brows lightly covered with casuarina and eucalyptus, whose dusky hues contrasted well with the deep green tint of the luxuriant grass which everywhere grew around in this sylvan wilderness; for it was the season of the year when nature is clothed in her fairest and most attractive drapery. The party unanimously hailed this spot as fit to be the township of the settlement they proposed to found; and having made a careful survey of Batman's Hill and the surrounding country wended their way back to the vessel. The party under the direction of Captain Hunter sounded the channel, placing beacons where they were required, and in ten days managed to take the *Enterprise* up to the basin at Melbourne where she lay moored to a tree opposite the spot which now forms the junction of Flinders and William streets. The horses and cattle were disembarked and the party erected huts and fenced in a garden on the ground between William and Spencer streets. The first land was ploughed by Fawkner's servant George Wise. The *Enterprise* now returned to Launceston, Captain Lancy and George Evans remaining in charge of the settlement. In October Fawkner arrived and removed

the tents from Batman's Hill to the rise opposite the Falls where he erected his own house. The spot on which it stood is to the rear of the Custom-house, near where the Police-office formerly stood. This building was afterwards removed to the opposite side of Market-square to the allotment on which Fawcner's hotel was erected in 1838. He formed a cultivation paddock of eighty acres on the opposite side of the river. He opened a public-house or hotel and supplied those who now began to arrive with such accommodation as they required. He had a garden of considerable extent planted out, even at this early period, with fruit trees and shrubs which he had sent over in the *Enterprise*. He had made considerable exertions to forward the settlement, and expected that the party would receive a small grant of land, but in this he was disappointed. Sir Richard Bourke approved their selection by adopting what is now Melbourne as the site for the Government township, but he refused to grant the moderate demand for sixty acres preferred by the six individuals who at some risk and trouble had discovered it; he even refused to lease Fawcner a ten-acre paddock to secure his horses in. John Hilder Wedge visited the new settlement towards the end of July. He had made a sketch map of Batman's journeyings all round by Toorak and Hawthorn to the neighbourhood of the Merri Creek which corresponds exactly with the survey of Grimes. This sketch map Batman and Wedge sent to Governor Arthur on 25th June 1835, four months before Fawcner landed. On the copy of it printed in a House of Commons Report in 1836, the present site of Melbourne, Emerald Hill and Sandridge is marked by Batman, "Reserved for a Common, a Township and other Public purposes." But Fawcner turned the first sod, built the first house, opened the first church and started the first newspaper in the settlement. The little township grew apace. John Aitken in the *Endeavour* followed Fawcner; and Cowie, Stead, Steiglitz and Ferguson also arrived. At the end of October Batman's party had landed 500 sheep at Gellibrand's Point (Williamstown.) On New Year's Day 1838 Fawcner published the first number of the *Melbourne Advertiser*, a written sheet of four foolscap pages, and thus continued for nine weeks; after which it was printed and existed for thirty-two numbers. This was the beginning of the Victorian Press. In April 1836 Batman returned with his family, and bringing the rest of his party from the Indented Head established himself on a hill at the western end of Collins-street, which until it was levelled in 1870 for the purpose of increasing the accommodation of the Government Railways bore his name, and was the site from which the latitude and longitude of Melbourne was determined until the erection of the Observatory. The want of some person having authority to act as arbitrator was so much felt that James Simpson was elected to that post until the arrival in June of George Stewart, a police

magistrate from Goulburn, who was sent down to report on the place and to act in an official capacity. At a meeting of the settlement it was found that 117 persons had emigrated from Tasmania and had imported live stock and property to the value of £110,000. In December a few log huts and turf houses had been built. These with three public-houses and a shoemaker's shop formed the nucleus of the future city. Mr. Franks who had been one of the free emigrants in 1803 and now had a station at Cotterell's Sugar Loaf near the Werribee, was with his shepherd killed by the Goulburn blacks early in the year. A party led on their traces by some of the Melbourne natives took summary vengeance on the tribe to which the treacherous blacks belonged. This was the first of many hostile encounters between the first settlers and the blacks in which Buckley proved of service. The whole settlement attended the funeral of Franks and his shepherd. They were interred near the Flagstaff Hill, where already one little grave had been opened—that of the child of a man named Goodman, which was the first grave in the first burial ground. In response to a memorial from the settlers, Sir Richard Bourke sent down from Sydney Captain Lonsdale as permanent Police Magistrate with thirty soldiers. With him came Robert Sanders Webb, clerk in the Sydney custom-house, who rose ultimately to be Collector of Customs in Melbourne. He was dismissed from this situation by LaTrobe, but appealed to the heads of the department in England, and was appointed chief clerk in the Sydney custom-house, which situation he held until his death. The first Chief Constable of the Settlement was Joseph William Hooson, a person well known to the early colonists. He had been a soldier and received a wound in the head, which appeared to have deranged his intellect. He obtained some property in Melbourne and left the police, but lost his property and was appointed street-keeper by the corporation; he died in Melbourne about the year 1849. In November 1836 Batman had a son born to him who was subsequently drowned in the Yarra. A census of the population of the settlement showed 186 males and 38 females. So fast did the new settlement advance that Sir Richard Bourke resolved to visit it. He embarked on board the *Rattlesnake*, and arrived in the bay in April 1837. Port Phillip in the short space it had been in existence had made extraordinary progress, and when his Excellency landed boasted a population of nearly 500. The stock amounted to 140,000 sheep, 2500 head of cattle and 150 horses. The plans of three towns had been laid out by the surveyors and were approved of by the Governor, who named them—Williamstown, Melbourne and Geelong. The first bears the name of the reigning sovereign, the second of Lord Melbourne, and the latter is the native name. Captain Hobson of the *Rattlesnake* who on his previous voyage had surveyed the inlet which bears his name was in attendance upon

His Excellency, and had the honour of having it named after him. He also surveyed the Bay of Geelong, and soon afterward issued a chart of Port Phillip. An address was presented to the Governor by the residents; and having made a trip into the interior under the guidance of Buckley, Sir Richard Bourke returned to Sydney. In May 1837 George Hamilton with a party of seven prisoners of the Crown arrived in Melbourne by land. On 1st June 1837 the first Government land sale was held, Robert Hoddle, first Surveyor-General of the colony, acting as Government auctioneer. The land offered was mostly situated in Melbourne and brought moderate prices, the half-acre allotments selling at from £18 to £78. Even this was considered high at the time. The residents in Melbourne were aware that if the land were offered at Sydney they would not only be compelled to undertake a serious journey but to compete with the capital and enterprise at that period abundant in the Australian metropolis, and would have but a poor chance of obtaining lots. The Governor granted their request that more town lots should be put up on the spot; and in accordance with a notice in the *Sydney Government Gazette* a second sale took place at Melbourne on 1st November 1837. The climate of Victoria is acknowledged to be the most salubrious in the world, but during the early years of the settlement an extraordinary amount of sickness prevailed in Melbourne. The excitement of change of country, the extreme heat of the summer months and the unwholesomeness of the water previous to the erection of the sieve above the Falls, induced a class of diseases which have not yet wholly disappeared. The most fatal diseases were fever and dysentery. The former (known as colonial fever) was most dangerous at this period; but when the doctors began to use stimulants in considerable quantities they were able to bring the great majority of their patients through. At one period the deaths in Melbourne were from fifteen to twenty a week. James Backhouse, the Quaker missionary, visited Port Phillip in 1837. The following is his description of the infant City of Melbourne:—"13th November. The Yarra Yarra is deep but is difficult to navigate for boats on account of the quantity of sunken timber. It is about sixty feet wide margined with trees and scrubs. The river is fresh to Melbourne where there is a rapid. The country on its banks is open grassy forest, rising into low hills. The town of Melbourne though scarcely more than fifteen months old consists of about 100 houses, amongst which are stores, inns, a jail, a barrack and a school-house. Some of the dwelling-houses are tolerable structures of brick. A few of the inhabitants are living in tents or in hovels resembling thatched roofs till they can provide themselves with better accommodation. There is much bustle and traffic in the place and a gang of prisoners are employed in levelling the streets. The town allotments (of half an acre each) were put up here

a short time since at £5 each, the surveyor thinking £7 too much to ask for them. But the fineness of the country has excited such a mania for settling here that they sold for from £25 to £100 each. Business was at this time conducted on a very disagreeable and unsound plan. Almost everything, including labour, was paid for by orders on Sydney or V.D.L.; the discount required by the few persons who had cash was from £20 to £40 per cent. A mechanic received half his wages in goods, charged at about 30 per cent. profit, and the rest in an order which he paid his employer 10 per cent. to discount." Latrobe arrived in Melbourne as Superintendent of Port Phillip on 1st October 1839. The same year, the old Police Office, built of mud, was replaced by one of wood. Petty Sessions were established in July 1838, and Quarter Sessions in May 1839. The Post Office was removed from the Police Office to Mr. Bagster's care, in a little place in Flinders-street. Mr. Kelsh, the first real postmaster, lived in Chancery-lane. The Custom House was a rude dirty-looking shed; it received £2000 duties in 1837. The export of wool for the year 1838 was £53,000; in twelve years it became nearly a million pounds. Tradesmen were few in the early times. The labour was required for the flocks of the country. When Latrobe came there were in Melbourne but four tailors, four blacksmiths, three bakers and four butchers; there was no watchmaker. The price of provisions was high, especially when sheep were two or three guineas a head; and all flour had to be imported. Banks soon arose. D. C. Macarthur from Sydney established a branch of the Bank of Australasia at the close of 1837, in a little two-roomed brick house in Little Collins-street. After the coming of Latrobe the colony made rapid progress. A severe trial happened on Christmas Day 1839. A heavy flood caused an overflow of the Yarra, which destroyed many farms, greatly injured Melbourne warehouses, and carried away whole kilns from the brick-field at the southern side of Prince's Bridge. About the same time an explosion took place in a house by Market-square which killed four persons. Toward the close of 1839 the first emigrant ship, the *David Clarke*, brought 200 passengers. In 1840 there was no post delivery of letters in town, and no fence around the Burying Ground. Melbourne was not very extensive, for parties lost themselves in the bush going from town across the present Carlton Gardens. It was not until 1841 that a Market was established and placed under commissioners, elected by the four wards of the city. The Post Office was removed to its present site in August 1841. A public meeting was held in Melbourne at Isaac Hind's store, on 30th December 1840, to petition the Queen for the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. The chair was occupied by William Verner first Commissioner of Insolvent Estates. A second meeting for a like purpose was held on 1st March 1841 at the store of T. McCabe. Judge Willis, one of the puisne judges of N.S.W.,

arrived in Melbourne as Resident Judge for Port Phillip on 10th March 1841. In this year the population of Melbourne was 4479, living in 769 houses. Dr. Wilmot the first coroner was appointed on 2nd February 1841. On 23rd October 1841 the *Seahorse* steamer having on board Sir George Gipps with his aid-de-camp and private secretary, arrived in Hobson's Bay. The Governor landed at Williamstown and examined the public buildings and government works in and around the place. He returned to the steamer and started for Melbourne. At the old Punt—where Prince's Bridge has since been built—he was met by a number of citizens who accompanied him in a perambulation of the leading streets of the town. He then retired to Kelly's Northumberland Hotel in Flinders-street (between Swanston and Elizabeth Streets,) where apartments had been made ready for him. On the following day he attended divine service in the Episcopalian place of worship (now St. James's Cathedral) in Collins-street. On Monday his Excellency proceeded to Heidelberg, where Judge Willis resided, and examined the country around that locality. At one o'clock he received the deputation appointed to deliver the Melbourne address, to which he returned a courteous answer. He then held a levee, which was attended by a great number of the leading colonists. In the evening he visited the government institutions, and rode out as far as the Moonee Ponds and the Saltwater River. He next visited Geelong, and returning to Melbourne took his departure for Sydney on the following Friday. The foundation-stone of the first place of Christian worship erected in the colony, the Independent Chapel in Collins-street, was laid in September 1839; and in the following November the Church of England Cathedral, St. James's, was commenced. In January 1841 the Scots Church was established; followed in October by the erection of the Roman Catholic Church of St. Francis. The first Baptist chapel was organised by J. J. Mouritz, and the following year the Rev. John Ham, on his way to Sydney, touched at Melbourne, where he was induced to remain by the Baptist body. The first court in Port Phillip was held in 1841 in a small brick building at the corner of King and Bourke streets; Judge Willis presiding. So late as 1842 the streets were often impassable. Paragraphs appeared in the newspapers headed, "Another child drowned in the streets of Melbourne!" Gum-tree stumps, deep ruts and reservoirs of mud marked the line of Collins-street, and a piece of board nailed to a tree bore the inscription—"This is Bourke-street." A waggon and a train of horses were swallowed up in Elizabeth-street; and at one time there was a talk of using stilts! Cabbages grew on the site of the present Treasury, and Lonsdale ran his flock of sheep, for which he had given two guineas each, over Emerald Hill. The police-office, post-office and hospital was a two-roomed wattle and daub building, which was it is said knocked down

by Batman's bull. On 1st December 1842 Melbourne was incorporated a municipality. The town had been divided into four wards, and the citizens were called on to elect councillors. The first Mayor and Aldermen were—Mayor, Henry Condell; Aldermen, Henry Condell, Andrew Russell, H. W. Mortimer, William Kerr, D. S. Campbell, G. James, J. Orr, J. P. Fawcner, J. T. Smith, Dickson, Beaver, and Patterson; J. C. King was elected Town Clerk. The 10th December was named Lord Mayor's Day, and the Council walked in procession from the Council Chamber in Collins-street to the temporary Court-house in King-street, where the Resident Judge administered the oaths of office and addressed the councillors in an appropriate speech. Subsequently an official visit was made to the superintendent who expressed his congratulations. The General Election for the Legislative Council was held in June 1843. Henry Condell, Mayor of Melbourne, and Edmund Curr, were the opposing candidates for the city. McCombie thus narrates the circumstances of the contest:—"Edward Curr was a Roman Catholic of very considerable experience, and had held a respectable position in the adjoining colony of V.D.L. The return of Curr was until the last moment considered certain, as he had in the early part of the contest the good wishes of a large majority of the intelligent and respectable classes of the community; and it did not seem likely that he would be opposed by the Mayor or any person of character. The unguarded remarks however that he made use of in public, and the violence of his adherents, excited so great an opposition to him, that when the suffrages of the citizens were taken he was rejected by a narrow majority. The mob who appeared perfectly frantic at this result became clamorous, and refused to disperse. The riot act was read by the police magistrate, and a violent effort made by the troopers on duty to disperse an assemblage who occupied the space of ground in front of the hustings, close to the Mechanics' Institution, where the Town Hall now stands. After nightfall parties of about 200 paraded the streets, breaking the windows of such citizens as had made themselves most conspicuous in supporting Condell. The premises of a respectable and brave citizen, Thomas Green, carrying on business in Elizabeth-street opposite the Post-office were violently assaulted, and every effort made to burst the doors. Green kept the mob at bay, and in the scuffle two men were severely wounded. It seemed impossible to say how far this riot might have proceeded, but a detachment of the 80th regiment under Captain Lewis appeared on the scene of action, and with the assistance of the police succeeded in clearing the streets of the rioters. From this conflict may be dated the beginning of those religious feuds which so long disturbed the peace of Melbourne, and which have been regretted by respectable and intelligent colonists of every creed and country." Melbourne suffered severely through the depreciation

of property in 1842-3 and the town was deserted by the artisan and labouring classes. The "Squatters' Meeting" was held in the open air in front of the Mechanics' Institution on 4th June 1844, A. P. Mollison presiding. This meeting was held to condemn Sir George Gipps' squatting regulations. In October 1844 the Yarra was flooded to a greater height than was ever known before even by the aborigines. All the lower part of the city was submerged and much damage was done to property. Several persons were missing who were supposed to have been swept away in the inundation. On 16th November 1844 the *Royal George* arrived in Hobson's Bay with a cargo of English prisoners. The Town Council passed a resolution condemning this threatened inundation of criminals. A public meeting was held at the Royal Hotel in favour of the introduction of this class, but popular meetings against the proposal were at once convened and the feeling expressed was so strong that the Imperial Government ordered the ships to be sent to V.D.L. On 11th September 1845 a public meeting was held to petition the Imperial Parliament to allow the importation of Australian grain into British ports on the same terms as Canadian grain. On the 28th of the same month another public meeting was held to protest against the proposal to pledge the Crown lands in order to raise a loan for immigration purposes. The 20th of March 1846 was a day worthy of commemoration, as the bridge across the Yarra and the Hospital—two great public works—were commenced. The foundation stone of Prince's Bridge was laid by Superintendent La Trobe under the direction of the Freemasons, an oration having been delivered by E. J. Brewster, M.C., on behalf of that ancient fraternity. Immediately afterwards the foundation stone of the Hospital was laid by the Mayor, Dr. Palmer. With the solitary exceptions of the procession on Separation Day, and that to welcome Sir Charles Hotham, never has so imposing a spectacle been witnessed in Collins-street, which in the language of the *Gazette*, "presented to the imagination one of those enchanting scenes so vividly described in the Arabian Nights: bands playing, fifty banners fluttering in the breeze, the splendid costumes of the masons and public bodies with the dense crowds of people made up a perfect fairy scene. The shops were shut and everything betokened that it was a gala day." On the 17th April a meeting was held in the Royal Hotel for the purpose of testifying the admiration of the colonists of the enterprise and resolution of Dr. Leichhardt, who had just returned from his exploring expedition through the northern portion of the Australian continent. The first number of the *Argus* was issued on 2nd June 1846. On the 12th July 1846 an alarming riot occurred between the Orangemen and Roman Catholic party. Shots were fired, and three or four persons were severely wounded. The aid of the military was called in and the town was placed under martial law for one night, and the soldiers

bivouacked in Collins-street. Next morning a number of persons were bound over to keep the peace and quiet was restored. It was resolved by the Orangemen from this disturbance that they should build a Protestant Hall. On 28th April 1847 a severe shock of earthquake was felt in Melbourne. On 15th July 1848 the Melbourne Hospital was opened. The city was constituted an English episcopal see in 1847, and the Rev. Dr. Perry, the first English bishop, arrived on 23rd January 1848. Anti-transportation meetings were held in the early part of 1849, which completely prevented the influx of English criminals into the colony. On the 8th August the *Randolph* with a cargo of prisoners arrived in Hobson's Bay; but the remonstrances of the citizens induced the superintendent to order the vessel to proceed to Sydney. In March 1849 Governor Fitzroy visited Port Phillip in the *Havannah*, Captain Erskine. He met with an enthusiastic welcome from the citizens, and remained ten days. On 11th November 1850 intelligence arrived that separation from N.S.W. had been granted, and that Port Phillip was erected into an independent colony under the name of Victoria, after Her Most Gracious Majesty. The vessel which brought the news was the *Lysander*. On the 13th the city was illuminated. McCombie says:—"In no part of the world, at any period has any community been more gratified. It appeared as if each individual had received some inestimable present, and was unable to conceal his gratification. The decorations in the windows expressed the triumph which had been gained over Sydney, and the gratitude that the colonists felt to the Queen and the Home Government for affording them even a tardy release from political oppression. The separation rejoicings were extended over four days, during which period no work was done, all classes even the printers keeping the jubilee. Arrangements had previously been made for lighting beacons throughout the colony on the arrival of the intelligence. An enormous heap of firewood had been collected at the flagstaff hill, and the Mayor of the city set fire to it at sunset, as the signal for the commencement of the bonfires and fireworks which soon enlivened the whole of the country. Enormous heaps of wood had been prepared on all the commanding eminences of the colony. In Melbourne everything went off in an orderly and rational manner, and the people enjoyed themselves without giving way to the orgies of a Saturnalia." On 15th November 1850 the Prince's Bridge was opened. The day was beautiful, and the whole of the inhabitants turned out to behold the ceremony, which was one of the most imposing that had hitherto been witnessed in the colony. The public societies and trades walked, and the printers had a waggon in the procession, on which a Columbian press beautifully decorated with flags and ribbons was mounted, the men on the platform printing a sheet containing a short

historical notice of the Press of the colony, which was distributed amongst the crowd. The gymnastic games concluded the rejoicings; the spot selected for this display was near Emerald Hill, and above 5000 persons were present to witness the scene. During the five days that were appropriated to the festivities in commemoration of the greatest event which ever happened in V., not one accident occurred to damp the ardour of the people for rational amusement. The death of Edward Curr, who had taken a part in the great fight and had been a leading politician in the district, on the very day that the intelligence arrived, was regarded by all the colonists as a melancholy coincidence. The people had intended to subscribe money to raise some lasting testimony of the event, and public meetings were held to carry out this object. It unfortunately occurred however that a division of opinion took place in reference to the character of the contemplated monument, and the intention was abandoned. The suggestion of a public library was however given; and the idea was so popular that the government took it up, and some years afterwards the magnificent public library in Swanston-street was erected at the public cost. The 6th February 1851 was the date of Black Thursday. Melbourne was not a healthy place of residence during the first few years; the inhabitants and the City Council made every exertion in their power to remedy this evil, and public meetings were held in order to consider the matter. In 1848 the City Council appointed a committee which took evidence and brought up a report; this document had a considerable effect in raising the sanitary condition of the city and thereby promoting the health of the citizens. The various recommendations of the committee were successfully carried out; a Building Act was obtained in 1848; the filthy lanes in the city were formed and drained, and the City Council placed the sum of three hundred pounds at the disposal of their surveyor to enable him to have the country surrounding Melbourne properly surveyed, and a committee was appointed to superintend and direct the operation. On the 7th of January 1851 James Blackburn, the City Surveyor, sent in an elaborate report in which he entered fully into the whole subject and recommended the plan which was soon afterwards adopted. The advantages of this scheme were not quite new to the colonists as public attention had been drawn to them some years previously by Patrick Reid of the Plenty, at one period a member of the City Council of Melbourne. This public work as well as the improvement of the health of the city was materially benefited by the labours of J. C. King, the Town Clerk, a faithful and zealous public servant who had held office from the inauguration of the Corporation until 1851 when he was appointed by the Victorian branch of the Anti-Transportation League to proceed to England as its accredited agent. The communication between Melbourne and

the Bay had also attracted a very considerable amount of attention, and urged on by the City Council the local Government had caused a survey of the Yarra to be made by Messrs. Gerrard and Manton; but notwithstanding that the subject was most pertinaciously urged upon the attention of the officer administering the government, no steps were taken beyond the occasional use of the dredging machine to improve the river. In 1851 a great improvement was effected in the north-east portion of the city now named Collingwood. The land on which this populous district stands was originally sold in large blocks as suburban lots, and was cut up by private persons into small building lots. There were however no main thoroughfares, Brunswick-street being in various places impeded by buildings which had been erected across or along its superficies as the taste of the owners had dictated. The Corporation by means of legislative measures cleared the main streets, and extended them in regular order through the whole of the district. This was a very important improvement, and rendered Collingwood an elegant and healthy part of the city. The great influx of people attracted from Europe by the gold discovery set in about September 1852. The accommodation of Melbourne was tried to its utmost extent; every house was filled to overflowing and many respectable families were under the necessity of living in tents or sleeping in the open air. A large city named Canvas Town sprang into existence on the south side of the Yarra; it commenced on the slope of the hill just beyond the approach to Prince's Bridge and extended nearly to St. Kilda. It was laid off in streets and lanes but the immigrants were not allowed to occupy even the small space necessary to stretch their limbs upon without paying for it, as the Government charged five shillings per week for this accommodation—an unnecessary infliction on the really distressed, but which tended to operate beneficially in preventing speculators from erecting tents and leasing them out and deriving a profit from the necessities of the immigrants. Persons of all ranks, of all countries, and of all creeds were there huddled together in grotesque confusion; the main streets were crowded with boarding-houses and stores—all of canvas; and it was said to afford a harbour for the most vicious criminals with which the colony abounded. The Corporation leased out the two market reserves for similar purposes, and there were therefore two small Canvas Towns in the centre of the city. The erections on the market reserves fronted good streets and had a great value for business purposes. It was positively discreditable to the Corporation thus to endanger the health of the citizens and also the safety of the property around these reserves; the revenue which they wrung out of the wants of the poor distressed immigrants was apparently the only object they had in thus deforming the city. The necessities of those extraordinary times also brought into existence a mart for a peculiar kind

of traffic ; it was held daily on the line of Flinders-street opposite the Custom-house and was designated "Rag Fair." Here immigrants who had not means to start for the diggings, or who had a superabundance of articles of wearing apparel, congregated to expose their property for sale ; they spread their wares on the ground or held them in their hands and offered them to the passengers at prices so low as to entice them to become purchasers : the alarming sacrifices here made day after day and all day long excited astonishment. Every article from a needle to an anchor could be purchased on this spot. Some went with a large amount of valuable property which they were under the necessity of disposing of ; others had perhaps only one or two superfluities that they were positively compelled to turn into money to buy bread. There were every variety of characters engaged in this singular traffic : the handsome and distinguished-looking scion of good family anxious to sell the best portions of his valuable outfit bought at Silver's, and which his fond mother or sister had taken so much pains about ; the care-worn broken-down gentleman or tradesman, or his wife, endeavouring to dispose of a silver tea-pot or gold snuff-box, or some other carefully-hoarded-up family relic, which only actual want would have compelled any of them to part with ; the stalwart farmer's son from Cumberland or some other inland county offering a gun or a watch which he found useless in a country like Australia in the golden era ; some with a book, an umbrella, or a pair of boots, in a word, there were every class of sellers with every kind of article to dispose of. The traffic in Rag Fair became at last so considerable as to interfere with the interests of the legitimate shopkeepers, and a memorial on the subject having been forwarded to the City Council that body thought it necessary to suppress it. Land had begun to increase considerably in value about the end of 1852 ; but it advanced at railroad speed and reached fabulous prices in the beginning of 1853. Never before in periods of the most feverish speculation did sections of building land in the neighbourhood of Melbourne bring such enormous sums. Land in parts of the city which could hardly ever become good business stands, but must always remain mere suburban property, sold at from two to three thousand pounds an acre. It was actually higher in price than sections in the neighbourhood of the first-class cities of Europe, where every element of stability existed, and all the appliances of civilisation were to be found. Land manias have been always hazardous ; they are generally succeeded by a crisis ; in this instance the Government was the occasion of the fictitious rise : it positively refused to bring land into the market to meet the great demand consequent upon the influx of people and the vast accumulation of money. Private owners cut up their land and sold it to speculators at extravagant profits ; it passed from hand to

hand at enormous rates ; all who heard of the fortunes made rushed to buy it at any price. The Government then at the eleventh hour brought unlimited quantities into the market and the prices immediately fell. The reaction was severe ; and the consequences to very many persons were ruinous. On 12th September 1854 the Hobson's Bay Railway was formally opened by the Governor, in the presence of an immense concourse of spectators. The Gas Works were similarly inaugurated about the same date and opened in January 1857. The supply of water from the Yan Yean which Melbourne and suburbs enjoys owes its origin to the suggestion of James Blackburn the city surveyor, who made the preliminary survey in 1851, and was the first consulting engineer. Governor Latrobe turned the first sod in December 1853, and the water was turned on by General Macarthur, acting Governor, in December 1857. The first Melbourne Exhibition of Arts and Industry was held in a building erected specially for the purpose, and modelled upon that constructed by Sir Joseph Paxton in London three years previously, when the infant city of Melbourne was little better than a village. The novelty of the project caused it to be received with the utmost enthusiasm, but in comparison with later exhibitions it partook rather of the character of a bazaar, and the greater number of its exhibits were furnished by the importers of fancy goods. Out of the entire list of 428 exhibitors only thirty-six were in a position to contribute to the Australian Court at the Paris International gathering of 1855. Two institutions, the existence of which is of almost incalculable importance in a nation growing up in a part of the world remote from the influence of older civilisations, were founded in 1854 and each may be said to owe its being to Sir Redmond Barry. The foundation stones of the Melbourne University and the Public Library were laid on the same day, 3rd July, by the Governor. The latter institution was opened in February 1857 by General Macarthur, the Acting-Governor. The Parliament Houses were opened in November of the same year. The Church of England Grammar School was opened in April 1858 under the superintendence of the Rev. Dr. Bromby ; in June a similar institution was opened at Geelong under the Rev. G. O. Vance. The Scotch College had been established in 1851 with Dr. A. Morrison as the principal, and St. Patrick's Diocesan College the same year. The second Exhibition was held in 1861 and was a great improvement on its predecessor. It resulted in the Victorian Court at the London gathering of 1862, which was declared to be "a more extensive and varied collection than had ever before been sent from any British colony to Europe." There were in all 703 exhibitors catalogued and an area of 19,000 superficial feet. It was open for ten weeks. The receipts were £3400 and the number of persons admitted was 67,405. The third Victorian Exhibition was held in 1866 with triumphant success. The initiatory

steps were taken in Parliament the previous year, and a Royal Commission with Sir Redmond Barry as President was issued. All the colonies took part in the scheme, and the Australian contribution to the following Paris Exhibition of 1867 was a marked success. A fine hall 220 feet long and 83 feet wide was built adjoining the Public Library, and the Exhibition was opened by Governor Manners-Sutton on 23rd October 1866. Among the exhibits was a gilt wooden pyramid constructed by J. G. Knight, secretary to the Royal Commission, which illustrated the gold production of Victoria from 1851, and formed a striking attraction at Paris. It represented 36,514,361 ounces of gold amounting in value to £146,057,444, and was sixty-two feet in height. The area of exhibit space was 56,240 feet, or nearly three times the area of the last exhibition. The receipts for 105 days amounted to £9634 and the number of admissions was 268,634. In 1867 the arrival of the Duke of Edinburgh gave cause for great rejoicings in Melbourne. The new Post Office was opened the same year. The foundation-stone of the New Town Hall at Melbourne was laid on 29th November 1867 by the Duke of Edinburgh, in the mayoralty of J. S. Butters. Prince Alfred's Tower was completed in the following year, T. Moubray being mayor; and the top stone of the tower was placed on 29th December 1869, or two years and three months from the commencement, S. Amess being then chief magistrate. The cost was £100,000. A great organ was erected in this fine hall at a cost of £5000. In 1873 a clock for the tower was presented to the corporation, at the cost of £350 (towhich that body added £720) by W. V. Condell, son of the first mayor of the city. At the opening on 9th August 1870 a ball was given by the mayor, Amess, to 4000 of the citizens, and a musical festival at which was produced a cantata written by C. E. Horsley with words by H. Kendall. The Post-office clock was also erected this year, of which one bell weighs thirty cwt. The first blow of the hammer marks exact mean time, and the sound is heard for miles around. The unexampled progress of Melbourne from 1855 to the present time is recorded in such details as the preceding, or melts into the general history of V. Special credit must be given to E. G. Fitzgibbon, town clerk for nearly the whole of that period, under whose able guidance the Corporation has been enabled to raise large loans for city improvements, and carry on the civic administration in a manner that reflects the highest credit on the intelligence and enterprise of that body. It may safely be affirmed that for the past quarter of a century Melbourne has been governed as efficiently and as honestly as any other city in Her Majesty's dominions. The Mayors of Melbourne have been in succession as follow:—Henry Condell 1842-4; Henry Moor 1844-5 and 1846-7; J. F. Palmer 1845-6; Andrew Russell 1847-8; W. M. Bell 1848-9; A. F. A. Greeves 1849-50; W. Nicholson 1850-1; J. T. Smith, 1851-3, 1854-6, 1857-8, 1860-1,

1863-4; J. Hodgson 1853-4; Peter Davis 1856-7; H. S. Walsh 1858-9; R. Eades 1859-60; R. Bennett 1861-2; E. Cohen 1862-3; G. Wragge 1864-5; W. Bayles 1865-6; W. Williams 1866-7; J. S. Butters 1867-8; T. Moubray 1868-9; S. Amess 1869-70; T. Macpherson 1870-71; O. Fenwick 1871-2; T. O'Grady 1872-3; J. McIlwraith 1873-4; J. Gatehouse 1874-5; J. Patterson 1876-7; J. Pigdon 1877-8; J. Story 1878-9; G. Meares 1879-81.

MELVILLE HILLS in the district of Liverpool Plains N.S.W., were named by Oxley in honour of Lord Melville, first Lord of the Admiralty.

MELVILLE ISLAND, on the N.W. coast of the continent, is about 100 miles in circumference. It lies 370 miles from Cape Arnheim and is separated from Bathurst Island by Apsley Strait. The principal points are Capes Van Diemen, Jahleel, Fleming, Keith and Gambier. The bays are Breton and Lethbridge. It is separated on the E. from the mainland by Dundas Strait, and on the S. by Clarence Strait. It was named by King after Lord Melville.

MEMORY COVE, in S.A., is a small sandy bay about three-quarters of a mile across, at the foot of a rocky range, near Cape Catastrophe, at the entrance to Spencer's gulf. It affords shelter in ten fathoms, sandy bottom in all winds except those between N. and E. and even then is somewhat sheltered by islands from two to five miles distant. It was so called by Flinders in memory of a sad catastrophe which occurred there on the 18th Feb. 1802, he having lost two of his officers, Thistle and Taylor, and a boat's crew of six men, by the upsetting of a boat in which they had gone to find an anchorage. Flinders left an engraved copper-plate at this cove, informing future visitors of the disaster.

MENDANA DE NEYRA, ALVARODE, Spanish navigator, who in 1567 sailed from Callao in Peru and held a course due west for nearly 4500 miles, when he discovered the Solomon and other groups of islands in the latitude of Torres Straits, within a few days sail of the Australian Continent. He carried back to Spain glowing accounts of his discoveries, and endeavoured to persuade Philip II. to provide him with means for prosecuting a second exploration to the South. His urgent representations were unheeded for a long period, but at length in 1595 an expedition was fitted out and Mendana sailed into the Pacific, where he fell in with the Marquesas, but failed to find his way to the islands he formerly discovered. He suffered many hardships and finally died in October of that year, at Santa Cruz, from anxiety and disappointment. His pilot on this last voyage was DE QUIROS.

MERSEY RIVER, in T., is a branch of the river Meander and was named after the English Mersey.

MEYMOTT, FREDERICK WILLIAM, (1808—) jurist, is a native of England, and studied for the

bar under Joseph Chitty. He commenced practice as a Special Pleader in 1831, and was called to the bar in 1847, and went the Home Circuit. In 1850 he left England for N.S.W., where he commenced practice as a barrister. In August 1850 he was appointed Parliamentary Draftsman, in conjunction with C. K. Murray. In January 1859 he was appointed Crown Prosecutor for the Southern District; in December 1863 Judge of the Southern District; and in December 1865 Judge of the Northern District of N.S.W.

MICHIE SIR ARCHIBALD (—) jurist, was called to the English Bar in 1838 and came to Sydney in 1839. For some time he was employed as law-reporter to the press. After paying a visit to England in 1852 he came to Melbourne and was nominated to a seat in the Legislative Council. He purchased a share in the *Herald* newspaper in 1854 but sold out in 1856. In the same year he was elected member of the Assembly for the City of Melbourne, and in 1857 was appointed Attorney-General. He retired from Parliament for a time in 1861 but was elected for Polwarth and Grenville in 1863 and took office as Minister for Justice. He retired in 1866 but in 1870 was again made Attorney-General, which post he held until the following year. In 1872 he visited Europe, and when he returned in 1873 was appointed Agent-General for the colony with a salary of £2000 per annum. He resigned this office in 1879. He was knighted by Her Majesty for his public services.

MILES, WILLIAM (1817—) came to N.S.W. in 1838 with promise of Government employment. In 1865 he was returned for Maranoa, which he continued to represent till 1874 when he was elected for Carnarvon. He was Colonial Secretary for Q. in the Thorn-Douglas Ministry of 1876, and was transferred on 7th November 1877 to the charge of Public Works Department which he resigned in February 1878.

MILFORD, SAMUEL FREDERICK (1797-1865) jurist, was a native of Devonshire, England, and was called to the English Bar in 1821. In 1842 he was appointed Master-in-Equity in N.S.W. and came to Sydney in January 1843. He held the office, together with that of Chief Commissioner of Insolvent Estates, until his appointment as Resident Judge in the district of Moreton Bay in 1856. He returned to Sydney February 1859, and from that time until his death was engaged in the active duties of a Judge of the Supreme Court. He held also during this period the offices of Judge of the Court of Vice-Admiralty and Primary Judge in Equity. He was distinguished in the Equity and other branches of the Court's jurisdiction which were under his peculiar charge, and by dint of close application he, so far as the system would allow of it, relieved the Court of Equity from the reproaches of delay and costliness which had generally attached to it.

MITCHELL, SIR THOMAS LIVINGSTONE, explorer, was Surveyor-General of N.S.W. In

November 1831 he started with a party to find a passage to the interior of the continent. He reached the Nammoy which he traced for some distance, came upon the Gwydir and at length reached the Darling. Here he waited for supplies from a permanent depot which he had established on the Nammoy. But when his assistant Finch arrived he had no provisions with him, but only a sad tale to tell how the camp had been surprised by the blacks, the two men in charge murdered and the cattle and most of the stores carried off. This put an end to the expedition. Mitchell returned to the depot, where he buried the bodies of the two murdered assistants and then retraced his steps to Sydney. Again in March 1835 Mitchell started with a strong party amongst whom was Allan Cunningham, the botanist. When they reached the Bogan Cunningham was missed. A search was at once instituted, but he was never found. His tracks were followed for seventy miles, his horse was found dead; his whip and gloves were also found. Afterwards the melancholy facts were revealed. Cunningham had lost his way and wandered about for five days when he fell in with some natives. At first they treated him kindly, but the horrible nature of his position overpowered his strength and he became delirious. This sealed the poor fellow's fate. The natives became terrified at their strange guest and murdered him. Such was the sad end of a brave explorer, a good man and an eminent botanist. After this Mitchell continued his exploration of the Bogan for some time, but an unfortunate encounter with the natives in which three of them were killed induced the speedy return of the expedition to Sydney. His next expedition was into Australia Felix in 1836. Mitchell's party started on 17th March and soon reached the Lachlan which they explored for a considerable distance. On the Murray an encounter with the natives took place in which seven of them were killed. On 20th June they reached the Loddon Junction. On the third day they lost the Loddon and then went through a pastoral country, past the Avon and Avoca rivers, obtained a fine view of the Grampians, named by Mitchell, fell in with a deep creek, the Richardson River, and at length came to the Wimmera. A few days afterwards they came upon and named the Glenelg. Striking southward they descried the sea and came upon the settlement of the Hentys, formed three years before as a whaling station. Here they were hospitably received. After some days of rest at the Hentys' station Mitchell set out on his way home. The journey was on the whole a pleasant one. The Australian Pyrenees were crossed and named. When the party had reached Sydney they had traversed 2400 miles of the finest country that ever it was the lot of discoverers to explore. Mitchell named it Australia Felix or the Happy. He received knighthood on the receipt of the news in England. In 1845 he undertook another expedition to

explore the Darling. The party included Mr. E. B. Kennedy, a young surveyor in the Government service, Dr. Stevenson and twenty-six men. They had provisions for a year. The start was made from Parramatta. They reached the Macquarie and from thence crossed to the Upper Darling. Advancing beyond the Darling and making direct for the Tropic, he found himself within a network of streams, taking their rise in the Dividing Range and flowing through broad table-lands. Mitchell's chief discovery was the Barcoo River which he named the Victoria, but wholly unconnected with Capt. Stokes' Victoria. In 1851 he was sent to report on the Bathurst goldfields. On his first visit to England he had taken with him a large collection of specimens, amongst which was the first gold given him by the shepherd Macgregor, and the first diamond discovered in the country presented to him by Thomas Hale. In 1853 he again visited England and patented the boomerang propeller for steamers. He published a trigonometrical survey of Port Jackson and a translation of "The Lusiad" by Camöens. He died at his residence, Carthona, Darling Point Sydney, 5th October 1855.

MITCHELL, SIR WILLIAM HENRY (—) arrived in T. at a very early age and for a time filled the office of Acting Colonial Secretary. He came to Port Phillip about 1840 and engaged in squatting pursuits, taking up country in the neighbourhood of Kyneton. At the time of the first gold discoveries, when the police were in a very disorganised state, Lieutenant-Governor La Trobe offered him the Chief Commissionership of Police, with almost unlimited powers of action, and the result was that after a time a tolerably efficient force was created. He introduced the cadet system by promising a number of young fellows commissions and outfits as police cadets, on their passing through a successful probation in hunting bushrangers and doing escort duty, &c. Bushranging was by this means to a great extent stamped out. Captain (now Sir) Charles Macmahon was appointed by the Chief Commissioner as head of the city police, and Mitchell going home on leave of absence, Macmahon succeeded him as Acting Chief Commissioner. On his return, in September 1856, he entered political life and was elected to the Legislative Council as one of the five original Members for the North Western Province, and is still a Member for the same province, having been several times re-elected on acceptance of office and on retirement by rotation. He was Postmaster-General from April 1857 to March 1858, during which time his long official training and experience enabled him to effect an almost total reorganisation of the department. He was Commissioner for Railways from December 1861 until June 1863. In March 1869 he was elected Chairman of Committees of the Legislative Council and retained that office until the retirement of Sir James Palmer from the Presidency,

consequent on the vacation of his seat for the Western Province by effluxion of time, and in October 1870 when Mitchell was elected President. In 1875 he received the honour of knighthood.

MITCHELL RIVER, in N.A., was discovered and named by Leichhardt in honour of Sir T. L. Mitchell.

MITTAGONG RANGE, a range of hills in N.S.W., dividing the waters of the Nepean and Wingecarribee rivers about 73 miles from Sydney. This range terminates abruptly on the westward at its highest point, vulgarly called Gibraltar, but the native name is Bowrell. Eastward toward the sea the height of the Mittagong range gradually diminishes until it joins the coast mountain overlooking the Illawarra district; on the N. side of it the Nepean rises amid deep gullies; on the S. lies an extensive swamp in a much higher level and which is the head of the Wingecarribee River.

MITTAMITTA RIVER, in V., rises in the Benambra Mountains and flows into the Murray near Albury. It is also called the Snowy River.

MOLESWORTH, ROBERT (1816—) jurist, was called to the Irish Bar in 1828; joined the Munster circuit and practised in the courts until 1852, when he came to Adelaide, and the following year to Melbourne, and was admitted to the Victorian Bar. In that year he was for a short time Acting Chief Justice during the absence on leave of Sir William A'Beckett, and became Solicitor-General in 1854. He was created a Judge in 1856 and has since presided over the equity side of the Supreme Court of the colony.

MOLIAGUL, a mining township in V. 115 miles N.W. of Melbourne. Mining operations were once carried on to a considerable extent here, but the alluvial deposits are nearly exhausted and only one of the numerous reefs is being worked. This gold-field has been worked since 1852, and large quantities of gold and many valuable nuggets have from time to time been obtained from it. On the 5th February 1869 the largest nugget found in Australia (the "Welcome Stranger") was discovered in Black Reef Gully a few inches from the surface; its weight was 2315 ozs. 17 dwts. 14 grs., and its value about £9260. The population of the district is about 500.

MOLLES PLAINS, on the south bank of the Lachlan River in the district of Lachlan N.S.W., were named by Oxley after Lieutenant-Governor Molles.

MONCUR ISLAND, in Bass Straits off the S. Cape of Wilson's Promontory, was named by the discoverer Lieutenant Grant in honour of Captain Moncur R.N.

MONTAGUE ISLAND, in N.S.W. between Barmouth creek and the mouth of the Moruya; the southernmost extreme of this land was named Point Dromedary by Captain Cook.

MONTGOMERY ISLANDS are situated at the entrance of Collier Bay on the N.W. coast of

the continent. They consist of six small rocky islets, resting in an extensive coral flat, dry at low water. The eastern and largest of these islands stands in the extreme of the coral flat; it is seventy feet high.

MOONTA MINES, in S.A., are situated in the N. part of Yorke's Peninsula, to the S. of the Wallaroo and Kadina mines. They are the great rivals of the Burra Burra mines, and are described as follows by Anstin in his work on the mines of S.A.:—"There are four distinct lodes in these mines, all nearly parallel, within a space of half-a-mile, and running about N. and S. The first discovery of ore here was made about 1861, when a quantity of small stones of green carbonate was found upon the surface. Some holes were sunk and a lode of fine ore cut at a small depth. This lode was named after one of the proprietors Taylor's lode. Four shafts have since been sunk on it and named after proprietors; Elder's, the deepest, is now 30 fathoms; and Smith's, Waterhouse's, and Taylor's 20 fathoms each. A house for an engine of 60-inch cylinder is now in course of erection here for the purpose of pumping the mine. In the drives from Smith's shaft a fine lode of yellow ore from 18 inches to 2 feet wide is being worked at the 20-fathom level. The lode is $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet wide in Elder's shaft, in which shaft, at the 10-fathom level, a splendid lode of rich black ore, largely mixed with malleable copper, has yielded great quantities of ore; at one time it was being hauled up at the rate of twenty tons a day. From the drives from Taylor's shaft a quantity of rich ore has been raised, consisting of black and grey sulphurets, red oxide and malleable copper. The drives on the lode extend altogether for a length of about 350 fathoms at the 10-fathom levels, and for 250 fathoms at a depth of 20. Two other lodes, Young's and Macdonnell's—the latter named after the Governor—have produced ore of a higher percentage than that from other parts of these mines; it is grey sulphuret, some of which has given on assay 66 per cent. of fine copper, and the average of the lodes is estimated at nearly 60 per cent. Both lodes have been driven on for a considerable distance at the 10-fathom levels, Young's being 6 feet wide and Macdonnell's varying from 6 inches to 12 feet, but averaging a less width than Young's. At Buchan's shaft a large deposit of malleable copper and rich black ore was met with, and some beautiful specimens of native dendritic and foiled copper were found both here and on Taylor's lode. Buchan's shaft has been lately sunk to 20 fathoms, and a fine lode of black and yellow ore cut. The buildings on this mine are large and substantial, and besides offices, stables, &c., comprise a complete and well-furnished assay office, under the management of Captain Hancock. The wonderful richness of these mines will be seen from the following approximate return of ore raised during twenty months, viz., 8000 tons of ore, averaging nearly 25 per cent. of pure copper;

and which had been raised at such a comparatively small cost as to enable two dividends of £10 per share each (together £64,000) to be declared on 1st October last and 25th February this year. The miners say the Moonta will be a mine when the Burra is forgotten—because she has lodes and the Burra has none; but this remains to be proved. When a large quantity of ore was required at Port Wallaroo for shipment—a distance of about ten miles from the Moonta—1700 tons of ore were delivered in nine days by means of drays. The number of hands employed on these mines is nearly 300; but until the last few months not nearly so many were engaged. Ample provision is made for a supply of water by means of large tanks holding many thousand gallons, collected from galvanised iron roofs." Since the date of that report (1863) the works at the Moonta mines have been carried on with spirit, and the progress of the mines has been satisfactory.

MOORABOOL RIVER, in V., falls into the Barwon River at the town of Geelong.

MOORE RIVER, in W.A., rises near Mount Yule and flows westerly and southerly, falling into the sea at Breton Bay.

MOORHOUSE, JAMES, D.D. (1826—) was educated at St. John's College, Cambridge, graduated Senior Optime in 1853, and was ordained in the same year. In 1875 he was appointed to succeed Dr. Perry as Bishop of Melbourne. He is the author of *Nature and Revelation, Four Sermons preached before the University of Cambridge, Our Lord Jesus Christ the Subject of Growth in Wisdom, Hulsean Lectures, Three Lectures delivered before the Cambridge University*, and numerous other sermons and lectures.

MORETON BAY, in Q., was discovered by Cook in 1770 and named after the Earl of Moreton. It is an extensive sheet of water accessible for ships of large size by two different channels, the one to the north and the other to the south of Amity Island, at the entrance of the bay. The River Brisbane enters the bay from the westward towards its southern extremity; the entrances being both guarded and concealed by a small island called Bird Island. The four principal navigable streams which flow into this bay are the Brisbane, Logan, Tweed and Scott river. There is a bar at Amity Point, at the mouth of the River Brisbane, which a vessel of considerable draught of water cannot pass. Moreton Bay is defended from the sea by Stradbroke Island and a projecting headland; on each side there are eighteen feet of water over the bar, and may be more in some places; and though there are many islands, shoals and banks in the bay, there are numerous channels between them. The extent of the bay from north to south is more than sixty miles. The land on the shores of the bay and on the banks of the river is fertile; the rocks in the interior for a considerable distance are granite. The history of the first settlement at Moreton Bay is part of the history of Q.

MORGAN, WILLIAM, arrived in S.A. in February 1849. He was first elected to the Legislative Council in 1867, and has taken an active part in the deliberations of that body and had considerable influence in its conduct of business. In 1871 he was appointed by the Government one of the Conference to represent S.A. in Melbourne, the object of the Conference being to agree amongst the various Australian Colonies on some united plan for a mail service with Great Britain and to a treaty between N.S.W., V., and S.A. on the subject of the Murray duties. On the defeat of the Blythe Ministry in June 1875 he joined Boucaut as Chief Secretary and took an active part in propounding the public works policy, which is still being advantageously carried into effect. In consequence of the demands of his private business Morgan resigned the Chief Secretaryship of the first Boucaut Ministry in March 1876. During the recent dispute between the Chief Secretary (Sir Henry Ayers) and the Legislative Council Morgan was appointed by the Members leader of the House, and on the resignation of the Colton Ministry in consequence of an adverse vote Morgan, after some deliberation, joined Boucaut as Chief Secretary. On 27th September 1878 Boucaut resigned and accepted the office of Chief Justice, and the Ministry was reconstructed, Morgan becoming Premier and retaining the Chief Secretaryship.

MORNINGTON ISLAND, an island in the Gulf of Carpentaria, one of the Wellesley islands; the S. extreme is called Point Bayley. It is named in honour of Lord Mornington head of the Wellesley family.

MORPETH, a thriving town in N.S.W. prettily situated at the head of the navigation of the Hunter about half a mile from its junction with the Paterson, four miles from Maitland. The trade of the town depends in large measure on the coal, mining and agricultural interests. There are several pits in active operation yielding large quantities of the fuel, within four miles of the town. The fertility of the river flats is very great; every kind of produce is grown but the staple articles are maize and lucerne. The town has many places of worship and is the residence of the Bishop of Newcastle. The Episcopal Church is one of the most English-looking in the colony. The population is 1280. The site of Morpeth belonged originally to E. C. Close, who gave the land on which the English Church stands.

MORPHETT, SIR JOHN (1809—) is a native of London. In 1836 he came to S.A. and was for some time engaged in business. On the establishment of the first Legislative Council for the colony in June 1843, he was nominated by the Crown as one of its Members. In 1851 under the change of constitution, when the Council was formed partly of elective members, Morphett again took his seat as one of the nominees of the Crown and in the same year was elected to the Speaker's Chair. On

the establishment of the new constitution giving representative government to the colony in 1857, he was elected Member of the Legislative Council by the votes of the electors for eight years; was re-elected in 1865 and appointed President of the Council on the retirement of Sir James Hurtle Fisher. He held office until 1873, when he retired by effluxion of time and did not seek re-election. He received the honour of knighthood from Her Majesty in 1870.

MORRISSETT PONDS, in the district of Bligh, N.S.W., flowing into the river Darling, were named by Oxley after Captain Morrissett of the 48th regiment.

MORT, THOMAS SUTCLIFFE (1816—1878) was a native of Lancashire, England. He came to Sydney in 1838, and from that time till his death he was more or less identified with nearly every movement for the advancement of N.S.W. In 1841 Mort ventured on his first speculation of any consequence, becoming a shareholder in the Hunter River Steam Navigation Company, which afterwards became the Australasian Steam Navigation Company. In 1843 the commercial crisis which had set in proved fatal to his employers, and Mort was left to face the world afresh. He began business as an auctioneer, devoting all his energies to his avocation, working fifteen and some-eighteen hours a-day. Mort soon put his business on a comprehensive basis, and to him belongs the credit of establishing the first public wool sales in A. In 1846 his success enabled him to buy two or three sandhills at Darling Point, upon which he began to try his talent for landscape gardening and horticulture, then new to Sydney. In 1849 the project of making the first railway in the colony—from Sydney to Parramatta—was mooted, and Mort became one of the promoters. In 1851 the discovery of gold brought a great change in affairs. Mort foresaw that eventually the staple industry would command better markets than ever. His advice saved the fortunes of many who would have sold out at any price and made the fortunes of many others whom he persuaded to invest in pastoral properties. At the same time he entered with energy into new openings for enterprise. He formed the first company for the working of auriferous lands, called the Great Nugget Vein Mining Company. When the shareholders became dissatisfied he called them together and offered to take their shares off their hands. Such was the confidence felt in him that those present refused to be released from their liability. Mort's commercial capability had now placed him at the head of a business of the first magnitude. His talents as a financier were in those eventful times tasked to the utmost. In 1863 amongst other useful projects he promoted the introduction of steam vessels for the harbour and coasting trade. He also commenced excavations for a dock which was extended until there was constructed what is now the largest private dock in the

Southern Hemisphere. It is situated at the head of Waterview Bay, Port Jackson, and is nearly 400 feet in length, being entirely cut out of the solid rock. In connection with it there are extensive engineering works with workshops covering an area of five acres, in which when at full work 700 hands are employed. Most of the locomotives supplied to the N.S.W. Government have come out of this establishment. The steamer *Governor Blackall* of 500 tons was also constructed and entirely fitted out for the Government of Q., and the steamers *Thetis*, *Ajax* and *Captain Cook* for the N.S.W. Government. The property is now vested in Mort's Dock and Engineering Company Limited, in which the founder sunk nearly £100,000 of his capital. In 1873 Mort endeavoured to persuade his workmen to become his fellow-shareholders on very favourable terms, his purpose as expressed by himself being that capitalist and workers should be bound together by a common tie with the cords of a common interest. Nearly all the foremen became shareholders. In 1856 in conjunction with John Hawdon, whom he bought out in 1860, Mort proceeded to grapple with the problem of rural settlement, buying about 14,000 acres of land in the district of Moruya, 212 miles south of Sydney, near the coast. This estate, on which Mort spent from time to time upwards of £100,000, is called Bodalla. It carries on extensive dairying operations and gives employment to the population of a village on the property. The investment yields a handsome profit. This model estate is being imitated by many who make useful farmers when a pioneer has shown them the way. The beauty of Bodalla, which now includes an area of 38,000 acres, is extolled by visitors. This was the favourite resort of Mort in the later years of his life. The strain on Mort's powers during the six or seven years after the gold discovery made it necessary that he should seek change of scene, and in 1857 he sailed for England, where he remained until 1859. During that visit he gathered a collection of paintings by the old masters, which on his return to the colony were arranged in the picture gallery of Greenoaks and thrown open to the public. He also devoted much attention to the introduction of various rural industries, such as the cultivation of silk, cotton and sugar. On the last-named he spent nearly £20,000. From 1859 to 1863 he was much harassed by an action at law which was known as the case of *Wentworth v. Lloyd*, arising out of the sale of some stations by plaintiff to defendant through Mort. *Wentworth* moved to have the sale declared void on the ground that the auctioneer took an interest in it not previously known to the vendor. Mort's defence was that his share in the purchase was known to *Wentworth* and publicly also at the time. After close contention in the local courts the cause came before the Master of the Rolls in England, who in April 1863 delivered judgment for the defendant *Lloyd*, entirely clearing Mort from the imputation raised against him. During 1862 and

1863 Mort took a leading part in the formation of the Peak Downs (Q.) Copper Mining Company and the Waratah Coal Mining Company (Newcastle, N.S.W.) The former has yielded copper worth considerably more than £1,000,000 sterling, and the latter is one of the largest collieries in A. In 1867 Mort became a partner in Munn's maizena factory. The last great project of his life was the transport of fresh beef and mutton from Australian pastures to the meat markets of Europe. In this venture the capital of Mort was joined to the scientific ability of E. D. Nicolle, with whom he had previously established ice-works in Sydney. In 1843 Mort had tried to establish an export trade in beef cured in the ordinary way. The project now was to land the meat as sound and fresh, and natural in appearance, as if it had been killed at the place of delivery. Mort's knowledge of the prospects of the pastoral industry enabled him to forecast a magnificent future for a trade of this sort. Nicolle's experiments were constant and he received from Mort a confidence which placed all this gentleman's resources at his disposal. The first point was to invent a cheap means of producing artificial cold, and this difficulty was after many trials overcome by the experimentalists in discovering the possibility of the repeated use of the same ammonia. In this respect also Mort and Nicolle went ahead of European science. According to the first authorities in the old world, "meat frozen was meat spoiled." But partial freezing it was found would never do, the meat became so rapidly bad when exposed. Nicolle at last demonstrated that in Australia meat could be thoroughly frozen—that its quality was not thus injured—and that it kept longer after thawing than other meat after being killed. Feeling convinced that the results of Nicolle's experiments had made the project practicable, Mort entered on it with enthusiasm. A large establishment rose on the margin of Darling Harbour in Port Jackson, and was connected with the Government railways. Costly machinery in duplicate was erected, and the "freezing chamber" was covered with five miles of iron piping, through which the liquid ammonia was kept in circulation. A series of interesting experiments showed that the freezing power could be successfully applied to game, fish, and various sorts of fruit, as well as live stock. It was a novel sensation to find oneself suddenly transferred from the sultry atmosphere of an Australian summer's day into a region of ice and snow, abounding in oxen and sheep, poultry, wild game, and fish, butter and milk, all as hard as rock, their natural qualities kept in complete suspension until the time should come to thaw, cook and consume them. The belief that the process injured their quality was shown over and over again to be unfounded. Mort then erected slaughter-houses in the Lithgow Valley, amongst the Blue Mountains, on the Great Western Line of Railway, ninety-six miles from Sydney. This site was chosen to save the cattle the journey over the mountains, which much injured

their quality. The buildings and yards were on the most complete plan. When both establishments were finished Mort invited, on 2nd September 1875, a large number of colonists to an excursion to Lithgow Valley, beginning with an inspection of the freezing works at Darling Harbour. The party proceeded by special train from the freezing works to the Valley and there sat down to a luncheon composed of varieties of fish, game and meat, all of which had been frozen for considerable periods before being cooked. The whole repast was a thorough success, and congratulations were showered from all sides. In replying to these congratulatory speeches Mort said—"There shall be no more waste! Yes, gentlemen, I now feel that the time has arrived, or at all events is not far distant, when the various portions of the earth will give forth their products for the use of each and all; that the over-abundance of one country shall make up for the deficiency of another; the super-abundance of the year of plenty serving for the scant harvests of its successor, for cold arrests all change. Science has drawn aside the veil and the plan stands revealed. Faraday's magic wand gave the key-note and invention has done the rest. Climate, seasons, plenty, scarcity, distance will all shake hands and out of the commingling will come enough for all; for 'the earth is the Lord's and the fulness thereof' and it is certainly within the compass of man to ensure that all His people shall be partakers of that fulness." Some time after the final stage was attempted, the ship *Northam* being fitted up for the reception of a cargo of frozen beef and mutton for the London market. The squatters of the Colonies subscribed £20,000 towards the experiment, Mort having already sunk in the enterprise about £80,000. Unfortunately Nicolle failed for a time in the last of a brilliant series of inventions, for the metal of the machinery proved unable to withstand the action of the chemical agent employed. The exhaustion of a life of enormous activity, a previous severe illness and this bitter disappointment, left Mort unable to grapple again with the undertaking so near his heart, which had been brought so near to the brink of success. The works at Darling Harbour continue to supply Sydney with ice. Mort also took advantage of the connection of the works with the railway to establish a daily supply of pure country milk and this effected a great reform, reducing the price and increasing the quality of this article of daily necessity. He had also arranged for a depot of "cooked dishes," that would bring the best cookery, and a variety of wholesome food within the reach of the working classes. Whilst staying at Bodalla, a few months after the break-down of the machinery put on board the *Northam*, Mort caught cold at a funeral and after a severe illness died peacefully on 9th May 1878, in his 63rd year. He was buried at the beautiful homestead which he had created amidst the wilds of Broulee. The event inspired the whole community with sorrow. At one of the most influential gatherings ever

assembled in Sydney, it was decided to erect a statue to his memory. Sufficient money was soon raised and the work entrusted to Connolly of Florence. The working men of Sydney also met and resolved to subscribe for a memorial of their own, in remembrance of "the greatest benefactor the working classes in this country ever had." Mort often wrote to the newspapers on matters of general concern and was a good speaker, although he avoided the platform. His sphere was rather in deeds than in words, as many churches, schools, public societies, charities and hundreds of grateful families can testify. For a man of so much world-wisdom, Mort showed remarkable confidence in the integrity of others, and this with his affable manners and unaffected zeal for their welfare, endeared him to the large bodies of workmen whom he employed.

MOUNT ELLIOT, an island at the mouth of the river Hawkesbury at Broken Bay, N.S.W., was so named by Governor Hunter from its similarity to the N. end of Gibraltar rock which bears the same name.

MOUNT HOPE, in V., a hill of a singular shape met with by Mitchell when he had advanced about a day's journey southward from the banks of the Hume and the Yarrane, and was so named by him because from its brow he obtained the first glimpses of that beautiful land which in his enthusiasm and delight he named Australia Felix.

MOUNT NICHOLSON, a prominent peak of Expedition Range in N.A., was discovered by Leichhardt and named after Sir Charles Nicholson. It is an excellent land-mark and visible at a great distance. It is near to Aldis Peak.

MOUNT P. P. KING, a pointed volcanic cone in N.A., discovered by Mitchell in 1846 and named after Governor King.

MUELLER (VON), Baron Ferdinand (1825—) a native of Germany, emigrated to Australia in 1847, and from 1848 to 1852 devoted his time to the practical study of botany whilst on a scientific tour through the territory of S.A. In 1852 he was appointed Government Botanist of V. From 1852 to 1855 he was engaged in exploring the colony and joined as phytographic naturalist the expedition sent out under Augustus Gregory by the Duke of Newcastle to explore the river Victoria and other portions of the north division of the Continent. He was one of the four who reached Termination Lake in 1856 and accompanied Gregory's expedition overland to Moreton Bay. In 1857 he accepted the directorship of the Botanical Gardens at Melbourne but resigned the position in 1873. He is the author of many valuable works on botany; eight volumes of his *Fragmenta Phytographice* and two volumes of *Plants of Victoria* have already appeared, and he also contributed to *Flora Australiensis* of which six volumes are (1879) completed. He was one of the Commissioners for the Melbourne Industrial Exhibitions of 1854, 1862 and 1867; was elected

Fellow of the Royal Society of London in 1861; created an hereditary baron by the King of Wurtemberg in 1871; received from Her Majesty the Order of St. Michael and St. George; and is a Commander of the Order of St. Jago of Portugal and of Isabella of Spain, and of the Danish Order of the Dannebrog. He is also a Fellow of the Royal Society.

MURCHISON RIVER, in W.A., flows into Gantheaume Bay. It was named in honour of Sir Roderick Murchison.

MURPHY, SIR FRANCIS (18—) came to Sydney in 1836 and was appointed by Sir R. Bourke on the staff of colonial surgeons. In 1847 he came to V.; in 1851 was returned for the Murray Boroughs at the first election after the separation of V. from N.S.W., and was chosen Chairman of Committees to the first Legislative Assembly. In 1853 he was re-elected for the Murray Boroughs and resigned the chairmanship of committees to take the post of President of the Central Road Board, during the tenure of which office he held the position of Speaker in the Assembly during the absence, on account of illness, of Dr. Palmer. On the inauguration of the new Constitution he was again elected for the Murray Boroughs and unanimously appointed Speaker, which position he held until 1871. In 1860 he was created a knight bachelor. Being defeated in the following electoral contest he retired for a short time from political life. In 1872 he was returned for the Council for the Eastern Province, which position he held until 1876, when he resigned his seat and went on a visit to England.

MURPHY, FRANCIS (1796-1858) was ordained priest by Archbishop Murray, of Dublin, in 1826. His first mission was at Bradford, Yorkshire, where he laboured for three years and then took charge of St. Patrick's district, Liverpool. Early in 1838, hearing from Archbishop Polding the great want of priests in N.S.W., he joined Dr. Ullathorne and a few other priests for the mission of New Holland. Shortly after his arrival Dr. Ullathorne was recalled to England, and Archbishop Polding appointed Dr. Francis Murphy to succeed him as Vicar-General. In 1842 the sees of Hobart Town, Adelaide and Perth were established, and on 8th September 1844 Murphy was consecrated in St. Mary's Cathedral, Sydney, Bishop of Adelaide. He was the first bishop consecrated in New Holland. He took possession of his see 9th November of the same year.

MURRAY, JOHN, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, the discoverer of Port Phillip, which he named Port King after the Governor of N.S.W. The log of his voyage from Sydney has been disseminated from the Admiralty records by Mr. F. P. Labilliere, and is printed in full in his *Early History of Victoria*. The correct date of the discovery is 5th January 1802. The Heads were entered on the 1st or 2nd February by Bowen, first mate of the *Lady Nelson*, who was sent round

from Western Port with five men in the launch to examine the entrance. The weather was extremely bad. Bowen's party lived on swans all the time they were away. They saw no natives and did not find any water. On Monday 15th February at noon the *Lady Nelson* sailed into the new and splendid port. Murray notes:—"The southern shore of this noble harbour is bold high land in general, and not clothed at all as the land of Western Port is with thick brush but with stout trees of various kinds, and in some places falls nothing short in beauty and appearance from Greenwich Park." He named Arthur's Seat, found plenty of swans and pelicans; landed at Point Palmer, where he saw some native huts and a few parrots; and after walking through the bush for a couple of miles returned to the ship. On Wednesday some natives were seen to whom some trifling presents were made and "a friendly intercourse took place with dancing on both sides." But in spite of all this an encounter took place, the natives making a treacherous attack on the party. On Monday 8th March the party landed, hoisted the national colours, fired three volleys of small arms and artillery, and formally took possession of Port Phillip in the name of His Majesty King George III. On the 11th the *Lady Nelson* once more put out to sea and anchored in Port Jackson on the 24th. What became of Lieutenant Murray and his first mate Bowen is not known. Yet these two men were to all intents and purposes the founders of the Colony of Victoria.

MURRAY RIVER (or MILLEWA) divides N.S.W. from V. It was so called by Sturt in compliment to Sir George Murray who then presided over the Colonial Department. This river takes its rise in the Australian Alps at Forest Hill. It flows in a N. direction for about sixty miles to where it receives the waters of the Cudgewong Creek, and thence N.W. for the remainder of its course along the N. boundary. Measured circuitously it has a course of about 1500 miles along the border of the colony, and its width from Albury to the Campaspe at summer level varies from 200 to 240 feet; it is supplied above the junction of the Mitta Mitta to its source by permanent streams from the Australian Alps which convey spring water from the primitive rocks constantly, and melted snow for three months in the year. Below the junction of the Goulburn the Murray does not receive any tributary waters from the Victorian side during the dry season. It falls into the sea in S.A. and is navigated by small steamers as high up as Albury on the N.S.W. bank. It was first ascended by Captain Cadell on the 27th August 1853. The upper portion flows amidst high rocky cliffs, particularly near its source, where the celebrated Murray Gates (a perpendicular chasm in the mountains) overhang the stream 3000 feet. The lower portion however has muddy banks and rapidly-flowing turbid water. In the N.W. districts watered by the Murray the myall grows abundantly, as does also

the wattle, a hard, heavy wood, which is good for the manufacture of ornamental furniture. The mallee scrub a small tree whose roots spread horizontally and retain water, often found useful for travellers, and the quondong or native peach, are also plentiful. The Murray is fed on its Victorian side by the Lindsay, Loddon, Campaspe, Goulburn, Ovens, Mitta Mitta and Limestone Rivers, and by numerous creeks. It waters the Murray, Loddon and Wimmera districts and flows past the following towns in V.:—Swan Hill, Echuca, Wahgunyah and Wodonga. The lower part of the river, known as the Goolwa or Lower Murray, is a narrow arm of Lake Alexandrina, separating the mainland from the sandy island known as Hindmarsh Island. It is however navigable, and the channel which the Murray steamers use. Most of the land lying along the river banks is reserved for agricultural purposes, although taken up under pastoral leases at short dates. The sea mouth of the Murray may be recognised by Barker's Knoll, the first bare sand-hill of any elevation to the eastward of Encounter Bay. This extraordinary sand-hill which is ever-changing in its form and appearance according to the prevailing winds, and is fast receding to the eastward, is about ninety feet high, and forms the eastern side of the entrance of the Murray; the western side being the termination of the low sand-hills of Sir Richard's peninsula.

MURRAY, TERENCE AUBREY (1810—1873) came to N.S.W. in 1827. In 1833 he was gazetted a magistrate. In this capacity he proved himself very active with Mr. Waddy commander of the mounted police in repressing bushranging. In 1843 he was elected for the representation of Murray, King and Georgiana, and continued to sit till the enlarged Constitution of 1856 was passed when he was elected for Argyle to the Legislative Assembly, in which he sat until 1862 when he was appointed a Member of the Upper House. In 1857 he was made Minister of Lands and Works; in 1860 was made Speaker of the Assembly, and in 1862 President of the Council. In 1869 he received the honour of knighthood.

MURRUMBIDGEE RIVER, in N.S.W., has its origin in the western ridge of the dividing range of mountains in the district of Menaroo, about 250 miles S.W. of the City of Sydney, at a distance of about eighty miles from the sea. The Murrumbidgee pursues a long and tortuous course for upwards of 500 miles without deriving the slightest increase from the country it waters. It falls in a low level; the hills of sandstone rock which give a picturesque appearance to the land on its banks disappear higher up the stream, and flats of alluvial deposit occupy their place. It expands in the marshes of the Lachlan, the two rivers uniting, flowing to the westward and joining the Murray. This river traverses a great extent of fine country adapted for pastoral settlement, and is now occupied along its entire course by sheep and cattle stations.

MUSGRAVE, SIR ANTHONY (18—) was in 1850 Private Secretary to the Governor of the Leeward Islands; was then appointed Treasury Accountant in Antigua and afterwards Colonial Secretary; in 1860 was made Governor of St. Nevis and in 1861 was promoted to St. Vincent. In 1864 he was removed to Newfoundland and from there in 1869 was made Governor of British Columbia. He was then appointed Governor of Natal, and on Sir James Fergusson being removed to N.Z. in 1873 was made Governor of S.A., which appointment he held until 1877.

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NAHE, HOANI (1833—) a native member of the Cabinet of N.Z., belongs to the Ngatimaru tribe. He was taught his primary education by Mr. Green, missionary catechist, and afterwards by the Rev. Mr. Dudley. He was then removed to St. John's College, Auckland, and placed under Archdeacons Abrahams and Lloyd and Mr. Greenwood. Not liking college discipline he ran away and reached home. Bishop Selwyn however had him brought back to college, where he acquired a good English education. He took honours in arithmetic and first prize for general knowledge. It was intended that he should take orders, but he had no taste for theological studies. From his first entry into Parliament, where he represents the Western Maori district, he was a firm supporter of Sir George Grey. His education enables him to speak fluently and intelligently on all subjects before the House. He is very astute, and his behaviour does no discredit to the high office bestowed upon him.

NARRAN SWAMP, a large swamp and river of N.S.W., discovered by Mitchell in 1846. It is situated twenty-six miles beyond the river Darling; the Narran River terminates in this extensive swamp. Along the banks of this river the grass is of the best description, growing on plains or in open forests well adapted for cattle stations.

NEILD, JAMES EDWARD (1824—) journalist, studied at University College, London, and passed his examination in 1848. In 1853 he came to V.; in 1855 he first began to write for the *Age*, and in 1857 for the *Examiner* under the signature of "Christopher Sly." When the *Australasian* was started he wrote for it under the signature of "Jaques," and with some slight intermission has continued to contribute to the *Argus* and *Australasian* up to this time. Dr. Neild is a journalist of first-class reputation and as a theatrical critic stands unrivalled. He is also lecturer on Medical Jurisprudence at the Melbourne University. He is a man of singularly rich and varied intellectual qualifications.

NELSON CAPE, the southernmost extreme of the county of Normanby, V., was named by Lieutenant Grant after his ship *Lady Nelson*.

NEPEAN BAY, in S.A., is a wide opening on the N. coast of Kangaroo Island lying between Marsden Point and Cape St. Albans. It contains Kingscote Harbour, and at its S. end is a shallow channel leading into the Pelican Lagoon. Flinders discovered this fine bay on the 20th May 1802 and named it after Sir E. Nepean of the Admiralty.

NEPEAN POINT, in V., is a peninsula stretching from Cape Schanck on the E. to Port Phillip Heads on the W. It is about twenty miles long and is bounded on the N. by the shores of Port Phillip and on the S. by Bass Strait. About eight miles E. from the Heads near the Sisters (two points of land so named) is remarkable as being the place at which Collins landed on the 16th October 1803 and attempted to form a settlement; the line of streets as then marked out are still visible in several places; here it was that Buckley made his escape. The nearest mountain is Arthur's Seat twenty miles E. from the Heads. The quarantine station of V. is situated at the W. extremity of Point Nepean. It was named by Flinders after Sir Evan Nepean.

NEWCASTLE, the principal shipping port on the northern coast of N.S.W., the amount of its tonnage being little below that of Sydney, from which it is distant about seventy-five miles N. During 1877 1065 vessels entered inwards and 1328 vessels cleared outwards. It is situated at the mouth of the river Hunter, on the S. bank, and has many advantages for the shipment of coal, of which it is the emporium. The entrance to the harbour is dangerous in stormy weather and several disastrous wrecks have from time to time occurred. The construction of the Southern Breakwater will it is believed reduce the risk. The latest wreck was the *City of Newcastle* steamer in September 1878, fortunately without loss of life. Nearly all the produce of the Hunter River district finds its way to Newcastle for shipment; but the chief article of shipment is coal of which enormous quantities are exported, now averaging 1,000,000 tons annually. In 1877 the output of the collieries was 1,261,213 tons valued at £711,172 17s. 1d. It is considered that the seams at present being worked contain enough coal to keep up that rate of production for 512 years. Previous to 1845 only one mine and one shoot were in work, now there are sixteen seams of coal varying in thickness from five to twelve feet (the Greta coal seam is 21½ feet thick) being worked in Newcastle or the immediate neighbourhood. These give employment to about 2700 miners who are able to conduct their operations with considerable freedom from the dangers which beset English pitmen; explosions from fire-damp being, until a few years ago, when a fatal accident occurred, unknown. The deepest pits are about 200 feet, some of them are worked by adits or tunnels. The machinery for loading vessels is very complete, consisting of eight steam cranes and four shoots belonging to Government, five shoots belonging to the A. A. Company, and two

shoots belonging to the Waratah Company, the estimated capabilities of all being 11,400 tons per day; and these are being considerably increased by the works on Bullock Island Dyke. A dock for the accommodation of shipping is also being made; it will cover an area of ninety acres. The accommodation for berthing vessels has been largely increased; there are now about five miles of wharf frontage. The principal companies are the Australian Agricultural, Co-operative, Wallsend, Lambton, Waratah, Dnckenfield, Minmi, New Lambton, Greta, Anvil Creek, Newcastle and Australasian. Several of the pits belonging to these companies are connected by private lines with the Great Northern Railway. Newcastle is well laid out and has considerably improved of late years, most of the principal streets now being paved and lighted with gas. The ground upon which the town is situated rises rather steeply from the sea and some portions of the town are therefore considerably elevated, a fact to which it owes its comparatively low rate of sickness and mortality. At Stockton on the northern side of the harbour is a patent slip upon which vessels of large tonnage can be taken up for repairs. The Great Northern Railway has its starting point here and connects Newcastle with the northern towns as far as Tamworth. Newcastle was erected into a municipality on 7th June 1859. The population is about 8000; including the seamen of the various ships it is nearly 11,000. Around Newcastle there is much land under cultivation principally for maize and lucerne. The native name of Newcastle is Mulubinba. It was formerly called King's Town, and the Hunter River the Coal River.

NEW ENGLAND is the name given to a pastoral district in a vast tract of grazing country in N.S.W., discovered by Oxley in 1818. It lies in the N.E. part of the colony, and is traversed by the great Dividing Range. It forms an immense table-land at an elevation of about 3000 feet above sea-level, and has an area of 13,100 square miles. The climate is genial, but in winter rather severe, frost, snow and sleet occurring, particularly on the mountains, Ben Lomond, &c., and much of the soil is well adapted for agriculture. It contains several gold diggings.

NEW GUINEA, the great island lying to the north of the Australian continent, is the largest island on our globe. It has of late years been visited by many exploring expeditions and parties of adventurous gold-seekers; and the probability of its being yet colonised by Australians and annexed, at least in part, to the British Crown, gives it extreme importance to the Australian colonists. New Guinea lies wholly to the south of the equator, extending between 0° 22' and 10° 42' S. lat., and between 130° 50' and 150° 50' E. long. Its extreme length according to the latest maps is 1490 miles, and its greatest breadth about 410 miles. Its area is about 300,000 statute miles, so that it is very considerably larger than Borneo,

which has generally been thought to exceed it, and undoubtedly holds the first place among the islands of the globe. The form of New Guinea is very irregular, but it has a large compact central mass, with great prolongations at both extremities. Its extensive north-western peninsula, formed by the deep inlet of Great Geelvink Bay on the north, is again almost cut into two portions by the deep and narrow MacCluer's Inlet on the west coast. The western extremity terminates in the two headlands called respectively Cape Spencer and English Cape (by the natives Tanjong Ram and Tanjong Sele) between which lies the large island of Salwatty, separated from the mainland by the island-strewn Galewo Straits. The southern extension is somewhat more elongated, terminating in a kind of fork; the northern portion very narrow, forming East Cape, the southern more rounded and named North Foreland, which is separated by China Straits from a group of islands of which the chief are Basilisk and Moresby Islands. Generally the outline is tolerably even, but there are a good many inlets, bays, and harbours in various parts of its extensive coasts. The best known are Dorey Harbour, Humboldt Bay, Astrolabe Bay, Huon Gulf, Collingwood Bay, and Goodenough Bay, on the north; Milne Bay at the south-eastern extremity; Hood's Bay, Port Moresby, Redscar Bay, Hall Sound, and the estuary of the Fly River to the east of Torres Straits, with Triton Bay, Kamrau Bay, and Van Goens Bay, on the west coast of the northern peninsula. There are also numerous islands all round the coast, which afford shelter, and to some extent supply the want of harbours.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.—This great island appears to be divided into a northern and southern mountainous portion, with a vast extent of lowlands in its centre; but far too little is yet known to enable us to determine whether these lowlands extend quite across to the Pacific Ocean. The massive peninsula north of MacCluer's Inlet appears to be everywhere mountainous, a continuous series of range behind range extending along the north coast, culminating to the south of Dorey Harbour in Mount Arfak, from 9000 to 10,000 feet high. A considerable river enters the sea to the east of Tanjong Ram, and is said to rise in the Arfak mountains. In the narrow isthmus at the head of the MacCluer Inlet there is a ridge about 1200 feet high, and the whole of the peninsula south of the inlet appears to be equally mountainous. When we pass into the great central mass of land to the south and east of Geelvink Bay, the mountain ranges increase in altitude. On the south coast, east of Lakahia Island, are the Charles Louis Mountains, beginning at Tanjong Buru with a height of nearly 5000 feet, and increasing to the eastward, till about 136° E. long. they reach a height of 9500 feet. They then stretch further inland in an easterly direction; but their summits have been seen in fine weather apparently snow-covered, and their height has been estimated at

17,000 or 18,000 feet, by far the loftiest summits in the archipelago, and even in the whole space between the Himalayas and the Andes. This great range appears to run approximately along the fourth parallel of latitude, and it may thus merge into the northern coast range of mountains. That it does not extend farther south is proved by the fact of the Fly River having been ascended to lat. 4° 30', more than half-way across the island, in a low country, with but very small hills. Everywhere on the S. of the island W. of Torres Straits the coast is low and swampy and no hills are visible; a striking contrast to the N. coast which appears to be everywhere hilly except at Point D'Urville in long. 138°, where a great river delta breaks the line of uplands. Passing through Torres Straits to long. 144° hills commence, and soon increase into a fine mountain range with Mount Yule 10,040 feet high in long. 147° 30', and Mount Owen Stanley 13,205 feet high about sixty miles farther S. and forty miles inland from Port Moresby. This range continues in a series of peaks of 10,000, 8000, 11,000, 9000 and 6000 feet to the extremity of the island, where it terminates in the North Foreland about 1800 feet high. On the N. the hills are not so high but they seem everywhere to approach the shore, and give indications of a mountainous interior.

EARLY HISTORY.—New Guinea has been an object of curiosity to the civilised world from a period of remote antiquity, and was probably well-known to the mariners of the time of Ptolemy. During the maritime inactivity of the Middle Ages however it relapsed into oblivion, and it was not till the early part of the sixteenth century that it again emerged into notice. The first to penetrate the veil of obscurity which enveloped it for so many generations was Don Jorge Menenis, a Portuguese sailor who visited the country in 1526. He was proceeding from Malacca to the Moluccas, and encountering a storm was driven out of his course and had to seek shelter in a bay on the N. of the island, where he remained a month to refit his vessel. He called the country Papua on account of the frizzled hair of the inhabitants; and the island first appears under that name in a chart published at Venice by Tramezini in 1554. In 1528 Alvarez Saavedra followed in the wake of his countryman Menenis, and believing that the vast region abounded in the precious metals bestowed on it the magnificent title of *Isla del Oro*. In 1545 Inigo de Retz a Spaniard traced the northern coast for 240 miles, and gave the land the name it still retains from some resemblance he fancied it bore to Guinea on the African coast. The next visitor was Torres, another distinguished Spanish navigator, who in 1606 examined the southern coast for many hundred miles in the sloop *Almiranta*, on his way from the New Hebrides to Manilla. He describes the natives as "dark in colour, naked except having some clothing round the middle, and armed with clubs and darts ornamented with tufts of feathers." Torres was succeeded by Schouten in

the Dutch ship *Unity* in 1616, when several volcanoes were discovered in the island. Schouten landed in search of food, and venturing into the interior found plenty of cocoanuts growing in the forests. In 1643 Abel Tasman, the greatest of all the Dutch explorers, visited the island and minutely examined a portion of the coast. "The west point of New Guinea," he informs us, "is a remarkable broken hilly land; the coast is full of turnings with innumerable bays and islands near it; and the currents in many places are as strong as the tide before the pier-head at Flushing. On New Year's Day 1700, the British adventurer Dampier in an old leaky vessel called the *Roebuck* sighted the shores of New Guinea, and did not conclude his investigations until he had completely circumnavigated it. "It is high even land," he says, "very well clothed with tall flourishing trees which appeared very green and gave us a very pleasant prospect. Before night the men brought on board several sorts of fruits that they found in the woods such as I never saw before. One of our crew killed a stately land-fowl as big as the largest English goose; it was of a sky colour; on the crown it had a large bunch of feathers which appeared very pretty; his bill was like a pigeon's, and he had strong legs and feet. It lays an egg as big as a large hen's egg, for our men climbed the tree where it nested and brought off one egg. They reported that the trees were large, tall and very thick, and that they saw no sign of inhabitants. Next day I sent the boatswain ashore a-fishing and at one haul he caught 352 mackerels and twenty other fishes. I sent also the gunner and chief mate to search for a convenient anchoring near a watering place; by night they brought word that they had found a fine stream of good water, where the boat could come close to, and it was very easy to be filled, and that the ship might anchor as close to it as I pleased; so I went thither." For many days Dampier continued to cruise among the innumerable little islands that lie around the coast of New Guinea. The savages were friendly in their demeanour; their ornaments were blue and yellow beads worn at the wrists; they were armed with bows and arrows, lances, and clubs; they excelled in the use of the oar, and their mode of catching fish was very ingenious. "They have a piece of wood shaped like a dolphin; this they lower into the water, and when it is down far enough they haul it up very fast; the fish rise up after the figure, and the savages stand ready to strike them when they appear. But their chief livelihood is from their plantations, yet they have large boats and carry slaves and parrots to Goram where they get calico in exchange." Dampier doubled Cape Maho the western extremity of New Guinea on 9th February, and eighteen days later was on the eastern side of the island. "The mainland at this place," he continues, "is high and mountainous, adorned with tall flourishing trees; the sides of the hills had many large plantations and patches of clear land which together

with the smoke we saw, were certain signs of its being well inhabited." The natives approached the *Roebuck* in great numbers with an air of friendship, but the treachery of their intentions was suspected and defeated. "The natives began to fling stones at us as fast as they could, being provided with engines for that purpose, wherefore I named this place Slingers Bay; at the firing of one gun they were all amazed, drew off and flung no more stones." The adventurers shortly afterwards touched at another small island densely peopled and covered with sunny hills crowded with plantations. Dampier thus concludes his description of the New Guinea natives:—"They are very black; their short hair is dyed of various colours—red, white and yellow; they have broad round faces with great bottle noses, yet agreeable enough except that they disfigure themselves by painting and wearing great things through their noses as big as a man's thumb and about four inches long. They have also great holes in their ears wherein they stuff such ornaments as in their noses." Dampier still continued his course, and having at length circumnavigated the two large islands of New Britain and New Ireland, by the end of March again made the shores of New Guinea near the N. E. cape, which he named King William's Cape. He adds:—"The E. part of New Guinea is high and mountainous ending on the N.E. with a large promontory, which I named King William's Cape in honour of his present Majesty William III. We saw some smoke on it and leaving it on our larboard side steered away near the E. land, which ends with two remarkable capes or heads distant from each other about six or seven leagues; within each head were two very remarkable mountains ascending very gradually from the sea side, which afforded a very pleasant and agreeable prospect. The mountains and lower land were pleasantly mixed with wood-land and savannahs, the trees appeared very green and flourishing, and the savannahs seemed to be very smooth and even; no meadow in England appears more green in the spring than these. We saw smoke but did not strive to anchor here, but rather chose to get under one of the islands (where I thought I should find few or no inhabitants,) that I might repair my pinnace, which was so crazy that I could not venture ashore anywhere with her. As we stood over to the islands we looked out very well to the N. but could see no land that way, by which I was well assured that we were got through, and that this E. land does not join to New Guinea, therefore I named it Nova Britannia. The N.W. cape I called Cape Gloucester, and the S.W. point Cape Anne; and the N.W. mountain, which is very remarkable, I called Mount Gloucester." In 1767 Philip Carteret, in the *Swallow*, visited New Guinea and gave the name St. George's Channel to the passage which separates it from New Britain. In June 1768 M. de Bongainville, with two vessels *La Boudoise* and *L'Etoile*, after the unexpected discovery of some detached reefs about 150 miles off

the E. coast of A., steered northward until he made the S. coast of New Guinea, he then worked to windward along this new land (as it was then supposed to be) until he doubled its eastern point, to which the significant name of Cape Deliverance was given. The Gulf of the Louisiade was the name given to the space thus traversed by these vessels. Up to the date of Cook's discovery of N.S.W. in 1770 it was generally believed that New Guinea was part of New Holland. In the chart of De Bougainville New Holland and New Guinea are united. The result of Cook's investigations however confirmed the previously reported existence of the straits which divide the two countries, which were first discovered by the Spanish navigator Torres in 1606. The distance between Cape York and the coast of New Guinea is about 100 miles and the intervening sea, owing to the protection afforded by the barrier reefs and the numerous islands to the eastward, is almost as smooth as a mill pond. No part of the island has ever been in the permanent occupation of any civilised power, although the Dutch appear to have made some attempts to take possession of more than one part of the coast. Two years afterwards Captain Cook in the *Endeavour* passed through Torres Straits and permitted his crew to land at several places along the shore of New Guinea. "For the last few days," says the illustrious explorer, "we had early in the morning a slight breeze from the shore, which was strongly impregnated with the fragrance of the trees, shrubs and herbage that covered it, the smell being something like that of Gum Benjamin. Having landed we came to a grove of cocoanut trees which stood upon the banks of a little brook of water. When we had advanced about a quarter of a mile from the boat, three savages rushed out of the woods with a hideous shout, and as they ran towards us the foremost threw something out of his hand, which flew on one side of him and burnt exactly like gunpowder but made no report; the other two instantly threw their lances at us; and as no time was now to be lost we discharged our pieces which were loaded with small shot. All this while they were shouting defiance and letting off their fires at us. What these fires were, or for what purpose intended, we could not imagine; those who discharged them had in their hands a short piece of stick, probably a hollow cane, which they swung sideways from them and we immediately saw fire and smoke exactly resembling those of a musket and of no longer duration. This wonderful phenomenon was observed from the ship and the deception was so great that the people on board thought they had firearms. The place where this occurred, like every other part of the coast on this side is low, but covered with a luxuriance of wood and herbage that can scarcely be conceived. We saw the cocoanut, the bread-fruit and the plaintain-tree, all flourishing in a state of the highest perfection, besides most of the trees, shrubs and plants that

are common to the South Sea Islands, N.Z. and Australia." The British East India Company had for many years been anxious to introduce the cultivation of the nutmeg into their possessions, but it was not till 1774 that they resolved to carry their project into execution. A vessel called the *Tartar* galley was equipped at Balambangan, a little isle to the north of Borneo, to proceed to New Guinea and obtain specimens of the nutmeg plant. The control of the expedition was confided to Thomas Forrest, an officer of high repute in the Indian navy and a man of great energy, experience and judgment. The little vessel was manned almost exclusively by Malays, but among the crew were two English sailors. Captain Forrest was fortunate enough to secure the services of an adventurer, named Tuan Hadjee, who knew the coast of New Guinea well and was acquainted with all the dialects spoken in the Eastern Archipelago. Under the pilotage of this veteran, the nutmeg-seekers quitted Balambangan on 9th November 1774 and on the last week of the following January were at anchor in a New Guinea bay. "I perceived many clear spots on the hills which were nearest the shore, with ascending smoke," says Forrest. "Tuan Hadjee told me these were the plantations of the Horaforas, or people who lived inland and cultivated the ground. While anchored in Dorey harbour many Papuans came on board; all of them wore their hair bushed out so much round their heads that its circumference measured three feet and in this they stuck their comb, consisting of four or five long diverging teeth." He thus describes the habits of the natives:—"We anchored close to one of their great houses, which is built on posts fixed several yards below low water mark, so that the tenement is always below low water. The tenement contains many families, who live in cabins on each side of a wide common hall that goes through the middle of it, and has two doors, one opening towards the sea and the other towards the land. The married people, unmarried women, and children live in these large tenements. A few yards away are built, in still deeper water and on stronger posts, houses where only bachelors live. This is like the custom of the Battaks of Sumatra and the Moroots of Borneo, where, I am told, the bachelors are separated from the young women and the married people. At Dorey there were two tenements of this kind, in one of which there were fourteen cabins, seven on a side; and in the other twelve, six on a side. In the common hall I saw the women sometimes making mats, at other times forming pieces of clay into earthen pots, which they burned with dry grass or light brushwood. The men in general wore a thin stuff that comes from the cocoanut tree, and resembles a coarse kind of cloth tied forward round the middle and up behind between the thighs. The women wore in general coarse blue Surat baftas round the middle, not as a petticoat, but tucked behind like the men; the children went entirely naked. I have often observed the

women with an axe chopping wood, whilst the men were sauntering about idle. Early in the mornings I have seen the men setting out in their boats with a few fox-looking dogs for certain places to hunt the wild hog." In 1791 Captain Edwards visited New Guinea in H.M.S. *Pandora*, shortly before the wreck of that ship on the Great Barrier Reef of Australia. Bampton and Alt visited the island in 1793. The Dutch navigators from time to time sailed along the shores of the island, and some knowledge of the coast was obtained; but not a single attempt was made to penetrate the interior. The earliest attempt at settlement in New Guinea by Europeans of which there is any record was made by Captain Steenboom of the Dutch ship *Triton*, who in 1828 took possession in the name of the Dutch Government of all the territory from 141° E. long. westward to the sea. He built a fort at a place he called Triton Bay in the N.W., the scenery around which was very beautiful; but the alleged rankness of the vegetation caused the place to be so unhealthy that after a few years the settlement had to be abandoned. A Dutch gentleman at Macassar however told Wallace that the officer in charge of this settlement, finding the life there insufferably monotonous, killed the cattle and other live stock, and reported that they had died and that the place was unhealthy and the natives intractable. During these voyages a considerable number of men belonging to the several ships were murdered by the natives, who have hence acquired an exceptionally bad reputation. But the narratives of many of the voyagers show ample reason for such treatment. Very often the Papuans were fired at because they appeared armed to resist the landing of a boat's crew; at other times their houses were entered in their absence, or cocoa-nut trees cut down—both acts of open hostility in the eyes of all these people. The Malays and Goram men, who from time immemorial have traded on the south-west coast of New Guinea, have often attacked the natives and carried away their women and children as slaves; and it is on this very coast that most of the massacres of ship's crews have occurred. In 1835 the commander of another Dutch ship surveyed what was then called the River Doerga, finding it to be a strait ninety miles long, separating Frederick Henry Island from the south-west mainland. The south-eastern coasts of New Guinea have been mostly surveyed by British ships. In 1843 Captain Blackwood, in H.M.S. *Fly*, discovered the river named after that ship. Little or no further information relative to the place was given until Stanley in H.M.S. *Rattlesnake* ran along the coast and made a rough survey of a portion of it. In doing so he marked off one mountain which he estimated at 13,205 feet in height, and fifteen others, eight of which reached an altitude of over 7000 feet. He describes the coast natives as living in huts built on stages, constructed on piles, for the purpose as he supposed of preventing the attacks of snakes and other venomous

reptiles. The aborigines were tolerably friendly and ready to barter. The use of firearms they did not understand, at first imagining the muskets of the party to be utensils for carrying water. The length of the island he estimated to be about 1200 miles, and its breadth about 150 miles. In common with all others who had visited it Stanley describes the country to be a most magnificent one, growing profusely the most valuable products of the Moluccas. It was not till 1873 that Captain Moresby in H.M.S. *Basilisk* determined the form of the south-eastern extremity, and thus completed our knowledge of the external form and dimensions of New Guinea.

EXPLORATION.—Till the present century nothing was really known about New Guinea and its productions, excepting that its inhabitants were negroes, and that it produced beautiful "Birds of Paradise." The French naturalist Lesson was the first European who visited the island with a scientific object, in the surveying ship *Coquille*, about 1824; but he only stayed a few days, and made but scanty collections. Other discovery ships, both French and Dutch, with naturalists on board, touched at several points on the coast, and obtained samples of the productions of the country. In 1858 Wallace visited Dorey, on the north-east coast, and remained there with four Malay servants for three and a-half months; and this was the first time that any European had ventured to reside alone and practically unprotected on the mainland of the country. Extensive collections of birds and insects were made; but it was not found practicable to penetrate more than a few miles inland. Three years afterwards, therefore, in 1861 he sent his assistant Charles Allen to Sorong, near the north-western extremity, and he succeeded in penetrating about fifteen or twenty miles inland to a mountainous village, where he stayed a month, and thus proved the possibility of living in safety among these much-dreaded savages. We next come to the bold and successful exploit of Dr. Micklucho Maclay, who in September 1871 landed at Astrolabe Bay on the north-east coast, with only two servants, a Swede and a Polynesian, and remained there for fifteen months, for the sole purpose of studying the native inhabitants in a place where they had no communication whatever with Europeans. The Polynesian died and the doctor and his Swedish servant were found ill and nearly starved when visited by a Russian vessel fifteen months later. Next in time, as in importance, are the explorations of two Italian naturalists, Dr. Beccari and Signor D'Albertis in 1872. The account of his adventures and discoveries in New Guinea has been published by Signor D'Albertis in two handsome volumes, beautifully illustrated. He fell in with the Italian surveying ship *Victor Pisani*, which carried a distinguished Italian expedition. No white man had as yet penetrated so far into the interior of the country as he has done, or seen so much of the natives. He lived for several periods of many months together entirely among them, in

various parts of the island, and he regarded them with the liveliest interest, observing all their habits, ways and physical peculiarities with extraordinary minuteness, and being greatly assisted by a wonderful aptitude for picking up their languages. Nothing seems to have escaped his attention, from the most important to the most trivial features of their lives and personal appearance, and he gives several curious measurements of the heads and stature of the different tribes. He made numerous and valuable collections, which are all deposited in the museum at Genoa. He collected an immense number of birds, many of hitherto unknown species, which will henceforth bear the name of the discoverer. The beasts, fishes, and plants of the country were likewise closely studied by Signor D'Albertis, and an annotated catalogue of the latter was drawn up by Dr. Beccari. The pluck, patience, and perseverance of the explorer seemed only to grow with the difficulties which he had to encounter and the obstacles which he had to overthrow; his sufferings wrung no complaints from him, and he merely records them in his simple matter-of-fact manner among the facts and incidents of the time, and as affording an insight into the ideas and ways of the natives in view of such circumstances. For the dimly-known great island he had a sort of fascinated attachment, due to some extent to the admiration and emulation with which Wallace's books had inspired him. Again and again he recurs to that phrase "Wallace's rare birds of Paradise," as though a charm were in it, and even when he is obliged to admit that the Papuan Paradise has some drawbacks—serpents among the number—he still glories in the beauties of the country, exults in the free life of the people, and being of the temperate and frugal habits of his nation was quite undeterred by such trifles as short commons as a permanent condition, and the imminent danger of actual famine as a recurrent casualty. He suffered most during his first exploration of the mountains, forests and islands of the north-west portion of the island in 1872-3, and had to be taken away by the *Victor Pisani*, being then in very bad health; but he visited the small islands to the southward before he returned to Europe, and he went back to New Guinea in 1874. In 1875 he explored the Fly River, in company with Macfarlane, on board the *Ellangowan*; but on that occasion he only went 150 miles down the river, an expedition which by no means met his views. He therefore set out in 1876 in a steam launch, and with a crew destined to give him a great deal of trouble, and succeeded under immense difficulties in reaching a point not far from the source of the river. In the course of this voyage he discovered a fine range of mountains, on which he bestowed the name of Victor Emmanuel; and made minute observations on the nature and condition of the land, and the animal and vegetable products of the country. He gives a rather melancholy description of the deserted villages which met his eye upon the river

banks, and the occasional forsaken canoes in the little creeks. The country is densely wooded, and there is a great deal of swamp; the river banks are shifty and unsafe, and the climate is decidedly unwholesome for foreigners in the far interior; but on the whole the explorer's report is favourable, and his account of the natives has many attractive features, while it is not in any respect so repulsive as that which travellers give us of many better-known savage races. Of the scenery he frequently speaks in terms of the greatest admiration, and gives charming descriptions of trees, flowers, and other natural objects; but he is very practical in his ideas, and except in favour of the exquisite birds of Paradise which inspire him with real rapture, he rarely departs from a utilitarian treatment of his subject. When dealing with the problem of the mixture of races in New Guinea, Signor D'Albertis acknowledges that it puzzles him. Of the natives of Orangerie Bay he gives a pleasing description, adding that his brief intercourse with them gave him a feeling of sympathy for these people, "whose manner of life, so different from ours that its simplicity almost resembles that of our first parents, is nevertheless far from being that of savages." He considers that they belong to what we may call the Stone Age, and are less savage than the inhabitants of the north-west of the great island. They are a kindly-natured, good-tempered, cheerful people, and the explorer evidently made a most favourable impression upon them. Indeed he seems to have won the hearts of the natives in all instances where he succeeded in inducing them to come near him; when they resolutely held aloof he was reduced to great straits, and on one occasion came terribly near to starvation. He gives a picture of the natives in another part, which contrasts sadly with the author's description of the natives of Orangerie Bay and Yule Island:—"At Bamio, a little village on the coast of New Guinea, a few miles from the sea, there is a small population which may be considered of almost pure blood. These people are very dark in colour, of low stature, with woolly hair, small eyes, and flattened noses. They seemed to me the poorest people in the world, and the gloomiest. I was there a fortnight, and never saw one of them laugh. They cultivate the earth, and hunt with the bow and spear, followed by numbers of dogs. They wear wooden amulets on their necks wrapped in a piece of cloth. They believe in witchcraft and in the evil eye, and they have a sacred place not far from the village into which I was never able to penetrate. To dissuade me from attempting it they told me that I should have died had I entered, and as an instance they quoted Dr. Bernstein, who died at Salwattee shortly after his arrival at Sorong. They bury their dead in the forest. On a grave I observed a broken jar, and I asked a child who was acting as my guide what was inside the grave? He replied, 'A man.' I asked him what he did there, under the earth? He answered that the man was sleeping; then

blowing on his hands he lifted them up, at the same time raising his eyes towards the heavens. Some people from the interior came to this village, and they appeared to me to differ materially from the Bamio men." Signor D'Albertis studied each successive type among the natives whom he encountered in his journeyings with the deepest interest. He let no differences, distinctions, or peculiarities escape him; and he made extensive collections of skulls, ornaments, articles of household use, and weapons. Some of the skulls are very hideous, others have no more than the ordinary ugliness of such relics of humanity when "to this favour it has come at last;" and many of the carvings and ornaments are ingenious and pretty. The most repulsive description in his book is that of the "devil's house" at Moatta; from this it seems certain that devil-worship prevails among certain of the New Guinea tribes. The author does not give a flourishing account of the actual state of missionary enterprise in the great island, and his account of the religious notions of the natives is very vague. He says, in reference to the Arfaks, or dwellers in the Arfak Mountains—"They do not seem to have any religious persuasion, but they believe in a spirit of evil, and endeavour to exorcise it by cries and cabalistic signs. After a certain fashion they believe in the immortality of the soul—at any rate, in the not total cessation of existence after death. This may be inferred from their custom of supplying the graves of the departed with provisions, and from their exorcisms of the spirits of the slain." Signor D'Albertis' observations at Yule Island show that he found the inhabitants of that part of the country a superior race to the inhabitants of the other parts. The section of his work in which he gives a description of the fertility of the soil and the resources of the island, concludes with the following remarks:—"From what I have related of them the reader will infer that they are a capable and intelligent race, leading a quietly happy life, and not prepared for the fatal word which will set them on the way of civilisation, and change their whole manner of life. The material for civilisation is in them; but will the change better their condition? Will they be the happier for it? This is a difficult problem, and one which cannot be solved until the experiment has been made. I however do not doubt that these, more readily than any other savages whom I know, would answer to the call of a civilised nation which, stretching out a fraternal hand, would lead them towards our civilisation. I am also convinced that if well treated and guided this people would repay any sacrifices made for them with interest. To ensure success however they should be treated as friends, not as slaves; they should be cherished, not destroyed." In another journey in 1875 Dr. Beccari explored the Aru and Ké islands, but it was during his third voyage in 1875 that the greatest success was achieved. In the meantime however Dr. A. B. Meyer entered on the same ground and made some

important discoveries. In 1873 he chartered a small schooner at Ternate and with it explored the whole coast of Geelvink Bay and its islands. At the southern extremity of the bay he marched inland till he reached a height of 3000 feet and saw the sea at a great distance beyond the western shore of the island. The natives here were quiet and friendly. There is said to be a large lake near, with an outlet to the west coast and a large population. Returning northward he succeeded in crossing the island to the head of MacCluer's Inlet in four days, the intervening ridges being 2000 feet high. Going next to Andai, south of Dorey, he ascended the Arfak mountains to a height of 6000 feet and believes the summit to be not more than 7000 feet high. This journey was made rapidly, Dr. Meyer having left Ternate in March and getting back to Vienna in November of the same year. Dr. Beccari's journey of 1875 added considerably to our previous knowledge, both in the domain of geography and natural history. He first explored the mountains east of Sorong and at a place called Dorey Hum ascended a mountain called Morait, about 3000 feet high. Going a little farther east to Has he again went inland, crossing a ridge 1200 feet high, and then descended to a river called Wa Samson, said by the natives to rise in Mount Arfak and to pass by a tunnel under a mountain on its way to the sea, into which it falls from a great height among rocks. The coast is dangerous to approach and the mouth of the river has never been seen, which is explained, if this curious account should be true. The river is described as being only twenty yards wide and ten or twelve feet deep with a strong current, so that it can hardly have so long a course as nearly 200 miles (the distance to Arfak) in a mountainous forest country close to the equator, unless its valley is very narrow and its tributaries few. Returning to Dorey, Dr. Beccari succeeded in reaching a height of 6700 feet on the Arfak Mountains, which he believes reach to nearly 10,000 feet. He stayed a month in the mountains, first at a height of 5000 feet and afterwards at Hatam 3500 feet high. He subsequently explored other parts of the coast and visited all the islands in Geelvink Bay. Immense collections in zoology and botany were made and will doubtless be of great interest when they have been carefully examined. This must be considered by far the most important exploration yet effected in New Guinea, because it makes us acquainted with the highlands and the mountains, always the most interesting and characteristic portion of a new country. In the meantime Signor D'Albertis, after returning home in ill health, again went out to explore the south-east portion of New Guinea. He first established himself at Yule Island at the entrance of Hall Sound, about 270 miles east of Torres Straits. Here he had his head-quarters for about two years, making numerous excursions into the interior for about twenty miles, but never being able to reach the lofty mountains which rise

beyond. In September 1876 the steam launch *Neva* was lent him by the N.S.W. Government in order to explore the Fly River, which he had already ascended a few miles in the missionary steamer *Ellangowan*. He was now so fortunate as to penetrate to the extreme limit of the navigation of this river, a distance of about 500 miles, and to reach a point a little north of the centre of New Guinea, in S. lat. $5^{\circ} 36'$; E. long. $141^{\circ} 27'$. The river had numerous windings throughout its course, and at the farthest point reached it was rapid, with numerous sandbanks, and often not more than thirty yards wide. The gravel was composed of quartz, basalt, and limestone. The country was generally rich, and the vegetation very luxuriant, but it did not seem to be very thickly inhabited except towards the mouth of the river. This important exploration makes us acquainted with the low-land region of New Guinea to its very centre, but unfortunately to a very short distance from the banks of the stream.

GEOLOGY AND NATURAL HISTORY.—"In such an extensive country, with lofty mountain-ranges, we may be sure that a large variety of sedimentary and igneous rocks occur. Little however is yet known, except that active volcanoes do not exist on the mainland, nor are there any clear indications of extinct volcanoes such as occur in Australia, unless Cyclops Mountain near Humbolt Bay be one. Granite occurs on the north coast and the Arfak Mountains, but elsewhere the rocks are stratified. At Dorey there is much raised coral limestone. On the south-east coast the hills are sometimes of limestone covered with quartzose sand which contains gold, while many of the islands exhibit horizontal deposits of sandstone often cut into pillars and cornices, so as to recall the aspect of the well-known desert sandstone of Australia. The soil is almost everywhere exceedingly fertile, and is already known to be rich in valuable natural products. The country is overgrown with dense virgin forests, with the exception of the few patches of land reclaimed by the natives. There seem to be very few grassy and treeless tracts of any extent. The woodlands however have long been a source of wonder to the observer. The trees, often of a gigantic size covered and matted together with lianas, extend right into the sea, while the dense foliage effectually shuts out the rays of the sun, so that there is a great lack of the smaller herbaceous plants. The character of vegetation is essentially Malayan, and not a few of the New Guinea plants are identical with, or closely related to, those of the Moluccas. The more general prevalence of acacias, eucalypti, and some other species, on the southern coast plains, doubtless recalls the neighbouring Australian mainland. But it is remarkable that the vegetation retains its Malayan character pure and unmixed even to the southernmost islands in Torres Straits, where the dense and shady foliage of the woodlands presents a remarkable contrast to the light and almost shadeless eucalyptus groves of the Prince of Wales

group near Cape York. But with all their beauty these forests are not so varied as might be supposed, nor is there such a diversity of species as in the more westerly Indian Islands. Amongst the prevailing genera are the ferns, everywhere as abundant as they are varied; upwards of ten species of the palm; orchids, which are very widespread; laurineæ, including the tree that produces the massorinde (a species of cinnamon,) one of the staples of trade in New Guinea; myristiceæ, possessing a special commercial value; leguminous plants, though not in such variety as might be expected; and many species of figs. The Arfak Mountains have yielded a sub-alpine vegetation of arancarias and rhododendrons, and the antarctic genus *Drimys*, a sample of the interesting flora that may be expected when the summits of the Owen Stanley range and the great interior snowy mountains shall be reached."—(Wallace.)

ANIMAL LIFE.—The zoology of New Guinea is at present far better known than its botany, and is exceedingly interesting, because it is evidently the centre from which most of the animals of the surrounding islands and many of those of North Australia have been derived. Mammalia are very scarce. The largest and almost the only placental mammal is the wild pig of a peculiar species; and there are also a few peculiar mice. All the rest are marsupials, the most remarkable being the tree-kangaroos forming the genus *Dendrolagus*, while some of those which are terrestrial are yet more allied to the last than to the Australian kangaroos. Seven other genera of marsupials inhabit New Guinea, and of these four do not inhabit Australia, and one more is only found in the adjacent northern territory. A spiny ant-eater allied to the *Echidna* of Australia has recently been discovered. In birds the richness is as conspicuous as is the poverty in mammals. Already nearly 400 species of land-birds have been described, and they comprise a larger proportion of beautiful and gorgeously coloured species than are to be found in any other country. About twenty species of birds-of-paradise have now been discovered and an immense variety of kingfishers, parrots, and pigeons, including the most beautiful and remarkable of their respective families. About forty genera of land-birds are exclusively Papuan, as are considerably more than 300 of the species; and we may be sure that the great mountain ranges still contain many treasures for the ornithologists. Reptiles are less known but are undoubtedly very abundant. The snakes are more allied to Malayan than to Australian forms, while the lizards have equal affinities to both but with a larger proportion of peculiar types. The frogs are more Polynesian and Australian. Insects vie in beauty and novelty with the birds and offer an immense abundance of strange forms and gorgeous hues, which are especially manifested among the butterfly and beetle tribes.

THE PAPUAN RACE.—The name of the Papuan race is derived from the Malay word *papua* or

papâwah, "woolly haired." Concerning them much diversity of opinion prevails amongst the learned. According to Wallace the typical Papuan is of a deep sooty brown or black complexion which, while often approaching, never quite reaches the coal-black hue of some Negro races. The shades vary however more than is the case with the Malays, often exhibiting a dusky brown colour. On the other hand Dr. A. B. Meyer insists on the great diversity of complexion shown in the transitions from the fair shades of the Malays to those of the true black Papuans. The hair has a peculiar roughness, is dry and woolly, growing in small locks or curls very short and close in youth, but later on acquiring a considerable length and forming the firm mass of curly hair that constitutes the pride and glory of the Papuan. The face is adorned with a beard of the same curly character which also grows more or less densely on arms, legs and breast. In stature the Papuan decidedly surpasses the Malay, being in this respect perhaps equal if not superior to the average European. His legs are long and thin, his hands and feet larger than those of the Malay, the face somewhat oval, the forehead flat, the brows very prominent, with large nose somewhat curved and high with a thick base and broad nostrils, their openings concealed behind the prolonged tip of the nose. The mouth is also large with thick and pouting lips. Hence in consequence of the large nose the features on the whole resemble the European more than the Malay type; and the peculiar form of this organ, the prominent brows and the character of the hair on the head, face and body, enable us at a glance to distinguish between the two races. Nor does the Papuan appear to differ less from the Malay in his mental qualities than in his figure and features. Impulsive and demonstrative in speech and action, he gives expression to his emotions and passions in cries and laughter, in ejaculations and boisterous leaps and gestures. Women and children take part in all their dealings, and seem little disconcerted by the presence of strangers or Europeans. In estimating the intellectual powers of the Papuan, Wallace places him above the Malay, attributing his actual inferiority to the absence of the deeper influences of more highly-cultured races with whom the Malay has been repeatedly brought into contact. He sums up his conclusions with the following trenchant remarks:—"It appears therefore, that whether we consider their physical conformation, their moral characteristics or their intellectual capacities, the Malay and Papuan races offer remarkable differences and striking contrasts. The Malay is of short stature, brown-skinned, straight-haired, beardless and smooth-bodied. The Papuan is taller, is black-skinned, frizzly-haired, bearded and hairy-bodied. The former is broad-faced, has a small nose, and flat eyebrows; the latter is long-faced, has a large and prominent nose and projecting eyebrows. The Malay is bashful, cold, undemonstrative and quiet;

the Papuan is bold, impetuous, excitable and noisy. The former is grave and seldom laughs; the latter is joyous and laughter-loving;—the one conceals his emotions, the other displays them." The New Guinea Papuan generally goes naked, except a breech-cloth of bark for the men and a fringed girdle of the same material for the women; but he pays great attention to his hair which is either cropped short or else plaited in small tresses, or in one large knot ornamented with bamboo combs, bits of bone, plumes and other decorations. Nose, ears, neck and arms are also adorned, the two first with bones, bamboo sticks or feathers inserted in the pierced cartilage or lobes of the nostrils. Two boars' tusks joined together will even be attached to the nose with their tips turned upwards, while rings, bands and the like are reserved for the neck and arms. Very general also is the practice of scoring the skin so as to produce raised scars, and painting the face, breast and arms with all sorts of red and black marks and figures, either burnt in with glowing coals or else rubbed in with various kinds of earths. The teeth are filed to a point, though this practice does not seem to possess the same significance as with the Australians. Amongst the dwellings of the Papuans especially characteristic are those found along the coasts and river banks and usually grouped together in a "kampong." They are built of bamboo and raised on stakes, so that they closely resemble the pile villages which have been discovered in the lakes of Central Europe. In Astrolabe Bay however they have low walls and roof almost coming to the ground, as with the Timorese. The Papuans also build *prâhus* or canoes out of hollowed trunks of trees, and as these are constantly liable to capsize, the natives become familiar with the water and expert swimmers from their very infancy. Their domestic animals are the pig, dog and fowls, all of which are eaten. They also eat the cuscus, kangaroos, lizards, fish and molluscs, as well as many kinds of large insects; and in places where they have no communication with Malays or Europeans they use saltwater for cooking as a substitute for salt. Everywhere they cultivate the ground, fencing in their fields as a protection against the wild pigs, and growing sweet potatoes, yams, bananas and sugar-cane. They also have cocoa-nuts, bread-fruit, the kanary nut, mango and the fruit of the pandanus. At Astrolabe Bay, Dr. Mickleho Maclay tells us that they make an intoxicating kava by chewing, as in the Pacific; but this is unusual, and in most places they have no intoxicating drink, and are quite unacquainted with the art of fermenting either palm-sap or canjuice. Amongst their arms may be mentioned the dart, bow, lance and a kind of whirl-bat of hard wood elegantly carved; knives and axes are also met with, both formed of sharply-chipped flints resembling those of the stone age found in Europe. Altogether peculiar to the Papuans are bamboo blow-pipes of considerable length, which are used for signalling by means of dust blown into the air

after the fashion of the beacon fires of other peoples. These however are rare and do not appear to have been noticed by travellers since the voyage of Lieutenant Kolff in 1828. The practice was first observed by Captain Cook on the south-west coast, where also the Dutch found it; and the more probable explanation seems to be that it was an attempt to imitate the smoke of firearms, and has been given up now that its uselessness has been discovered. Social life centres entirely in the family, the head of which may have as many wives as he is able to support. The bride is purchased by the payment of a fixed value in slaves, goods and provisions, and handed over to the husband with the accompaniment of much feasting, at which sundry ear-splitting instruments take the place of intoxicating drinks. Several families live together in the so-called "kampongs" or villages. In many places a certain authority is exercised over these villages by some old member of the tribe, but this is always of a very precarious character. No tribute is paid to the headmen, nor are they in any way distinguished from the rest either by special personal ornaments or superior dwellings. Trade in New Guinea is limited to a few raw products, which are brought down from the interior by the natives and bartered with the Malay traders; nevertheless it contributes materially to render the Papuan more alive to certain wants of social life. In some districts, where this exchange is more fully developed, the natives dress in cotton clothes and have, however superficially, adopted Mahometanism. The Papuan has a decided superiority over the Australian in a fairly developed sense of form, asserting itself in the plastic imitation of various objects. Amongst them are found a number of carved figures, representing both men and animals, though the first are executed in a highly primitive and eccentric fashion. The head, with its large thick nose and equally large and unshapely mouth, is invariably out of all proportion to the rest of the body. Our information is very limited regarding the religious views of the Papuans, though they certainly seem to possess some definite ideas on the subject. At least there exist large structures of peculiar form, which can be nothing else but temples, besides figures of various kinds, obviously associated with certain religious conceptions. In some parts of New Guinea we find evidence of a definite notion of a Supreme Being supposed to dwell above the clouds. Cases of cannibalism have been reported, but are very far from being authenticated, and may probably be traced to misapprehension. Feastings are celebrated on various occasions, such as marriages, burials, and the like, and here a prominent part is played by music and song. The former is generally produced by a drum, while the latter consists of a loud chanting of lays. Like other primitive peoples, the Papuans have their national dances, for which they decorate themselves somewhat peculiarly. The preceding general account is intended to apply to the typical

Papuan as he exists over by far the larger part of the island yet explored. A considerable margin however must be allowed for individual and local peculiarities. The tint of the skin, the stature, the habits and even the character vary considerably; but it is the opinion of the best and most experienced observers that such variations imply no difference of race. The people of New Guinea, like all others, have undoubtedly been subject to the intermixture of many surrounding peoples. Malays have settled on the western and northern coasts; Australians may have intermingled with those living on the shores of Torres Straits; while brown Polynesians have undoubtedly occupied some portion of the south-eastern shores. But in every part of New Guinea one physical character remains nearly constant, the frizzled hair, and this alone would suffice to refute the opinion of those who have hastily declared the people of the south-eastern extremity to be undoubted Malays. Compared however with the few districts inhabited by these mixed races, the area over which the undoubted Papuan stock prevails is overwhelmingly great. Nowhere in the whole island does any other race exist in a pure or even nearly pure state; so that there is really no sufficient ground for asserting that New Guinea is inhabited by two or more races, but merely that at various points of the coast the intermixture of Polynesian or Malayan blood has modified the native Papuan both physically and mentally, has introduced a certain amount of civilisation, and has established another class of languages. Adopting the nomenclature of Mr. Ranken, who uses the native name Mahori for the brown or eastern Polynesians, it would be well to term the people of Eastern New Guinea Mahori-Papuans, and entirely to avoid the terms Malay or Malayo-Polynesian as being erroneous both in theory and in fact.

LOCAL DIVISIONS.—The only great political division of the island is that into a western or Dutch and an eastern which will probably be an English half. The Dutch claim from the western extremity up to 141° E. long., and it is a claim well supported by a continuous series of explorations and surveys, and by the actual exercise of jurisdiction over all such portions of the coast as pay tribute to the Malay Sultan of Tidore. There are several subdivisions recognised by the native traders. The two great north-western peninsulas go by the name of Papua Onin, the northern peninsula being "Onin dibawa" (Lower Onin,) and the south "Onin diatas" (Upper Onin.) The natives of this part of New Guinea are fierce and have a bad reputation; and on the west coast the Bugis and Goram men who trade with them never go unarmed, and they say if they cannot agree on a bargain they have to fight. Most of the recorded murders by Papuans have occurred on this western coast. The people of the north coast and interior between Salwatty and Dorey are called Karons or Karoans and are said to be

cannibals. The south-western shore of Geelvink Bay is called Wandamen or Vandamen, and the people are a fine tall race. The extreme south is Tarugo, and the eastern side Aropen or Tana Aropen (Aropen Land.) Eastward still to Humboldt Bay is Tana Koramba. Returning to the south coast, the people of the interior of the southern peninsula are also termed Karons which is probably merely a name for savages. The country about Triton Bay is called Merkus-oord, and eastward to the Oetanata River Kowayi. For about 100 miles east of Oetanata River the country is called Timakowa, and this seems to mark the eastward limit of the Malay traders as beyond it no local names are applied, and the same may be said of the country to the east of Humboldt Bay.

MISSIONARY STATIONS.—The only Europeans now settled in any part of New Guinea are missionaries. At Dorey Harbour German missionaries have been settled since 1856, first on the small island of Mansinam, and lately also at Andai on the mainland. In all this time, however, they do not seem to have been very successful in civilising the people. On the south-east coast the London Missionary Society have established their head-quarters at Somerset, Cape York; and by means of a small steamer, the *Ellangowan*, keep up communication with a number of mission stations on the islands in Torres Straits where native teachers are established; and they have also done good work in partially exploring the coast and ascending the Katau, Baxter and Fly rivers as far as their vessel would go in safety. They have also one mission on the mainland at Port Moresby. This is a fine position from a geographical point of view, having a mountainous country immediately around it, and the lofty Owen Stanley Range over 13,000 feet high only forty miles distant. With this mission as a base it would not be difficult to open a route to this noble mountain, where the naturalist would almost certainly be repaid by a rich harvest. The success of Dr. Beccari and Dr. Meyer in the north-west should encourage explorers to make the attempt. It is in this direction also that the Australian gold-miners are making partially successful explorations.

ATTEMPTS AT AUSTRALIAN SETTLEMENT.—The first practical effort made on a comprehensive scale towards the colonisation of New Guinea was the formation of a provisional company in Sydney about sixteen years ago. Within a very short time of its object becoming known, a considerable number of adventurers from all the colonies had proposed to associate themselves with it, and large funds were immediately forthcoming. But it was found that they could not form themselves into a British colony, nor exercise any jurisdiction or authority without the express sanction of the Imperial Government, and the result was that the organisation was broken up. In July 1874 the question of the colonisation of New Guinea was

again revived. The Colonial Secretary Sir Henry Parkes wrote a minute to Governor Sir Hercules Robinson advising that an effort should be made towards its colonisation under British auspices, which minute was duly forwarded to Lord Carnarvon, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, but no practical result came from it. In the following year William Macleay determined to attempt to explore the south-eastern portion of this vast island, and in the interests of science to find out some information of the flora and fauna, the geological and geographical character, and the vegetable and mineral products of the country. To carry out this object he purchased the brig *Chevert*, fitted her out with ample stores and every appliance that was likely to conduce to success. On the 18th May 1875 the *Chevert* sailed on her adventurous voyage from Port Jackson. Unfortunately, notwithstanding the very favourable auspices under which the expedition started, it resulted in comparative failure, and was compelled to return to Sydney after an absence of several months. An immense collection of specimens in all branches of Natural History was made during the visit of the *Chevert*, and much information obtained of great interest to naturalists. Macleay's opinions were altogether unfavourable to annexation and colonisation. He considered it as holding out no inducement to the emigrant, that the commercial prospects were not advantageous, that the climate was not healthy, and further that the country was already densely populated. Another project for the annexation of New Guinea and one in which the late Dr. Lang took an earnest interest was mooted in 1874 by a number of persons who had banded themselves together for the purpose of emigrating thither. Their intentions were to form a settlement on the coast with the view of opening a trade with the Australian ports in the products of the island, and to collect specimens of the natural history and mineralogy of the country. On the 11th May 1875 an influential meeting of leading men connected with the trade and commerce of Sydney was held in the Sydney Exchange in favour of a similar project but on a more extensive scale. Resolutions were passed affirming the desirability of occupation of the island as a British colony, and a copy of the resolutions with papers showing the feeling in the colony were transmitted to the Colonial Office, and the Legislatures of some of the other Australian colonies passed resolutions in favour of annexation. Meanwhile the attention that the question was receiving had led to the Royal Colonial Institute taking the matter up; and in an audience had with the Earl of Carnarvon a deputation headed by the Duke of Manchester strongly urged upon his lordship the advisability of annexation. The Earl's reply was not favourable, but he suggested that the Australian colonies should give expression to their views, and this was done. Later on an association called the New Guinea Colonisation Association was formed in London; Lieutenant R. H. Armit, R.N., formerly

engaged in surveying on the coasts, taking a prominent part in establishing it; but as the Government declined to countenance its proposals and plans the scheme fell through. Since then various communications have passed between the Colonial Office and the Governments of the Australian colonies, but it has been intimated that the Home Government is not inclined to take any steps towards the annexation of the island, or even the formation of a settlement on its coasts, unless the Australian colonies are willing to pay a portion of the cost that might be incurred. There is no doubt that the discovery of payable gold-fields would precipitate the question of annexation. During 1878 the island was visited by several parties of miners for the purpose of ascertaining the existence of gold, one of the best organised being that known as the Colonist Expedition. Some of the members of this expedition succeeded in getting to the Goldie River; they prospected it for miles and also the branches at the head of the river. They did not find even the colour of gold for twelve miles at the head of the Goldie River, nor did they ever come on any country worth prospecting, and they returned after being out thirty-two days. The natives carried their swags and showed them to any point they wished to go to. In the previous month another party of diggers tried the Goldie River; they reported that the colour of gold only was obtainable. The best prospect was a grain to the dish, but for every dish containing that prospect ten were washed without any signs whatever of gold. In October nearly all the prospectors returned to Port Moresby, their reports being unfavourable. So far it may be said little or no evidence has been forthcoming to prove that New Guinea is a gold-producing country; but only the veriest outline of a small portion of its immense territory has yet been tested, and judgment may well be suspended on this point till further knowledge has been gained of the interior. A well equipped expedition in 1879 left Sydney for New Guinea with commercial and scientific objects, in the schooner *Suddie F. Callen*. The party comprised Baron Maclay, the famous Russian scientist and explorer; Chevalier Bruno, and Captain Leeman, who has had considerable experience on the coast of New Guinea and elsewhere northward. The vessel was provisioned for a twelve months cruise, at the expiration of which time she was expected to return to Port Jackson. Astrolabe Bay was first to be visited, and thence the coast all round would be examined, and if possible arrangements made for opening up a trade with the natives. New Guinea has for some time past been a field of missionary enterprise, and many of the wild and savage inhabitants have been reclaimed from their habits of ferocity and bloodshed by the exertions of European preachers and teachers—so long in the world's history the pioneers of civilization. The London Missionary Society commenced its operations in 1871 under the Revs. P. M'Farlane and Murray.

Port Moresby was first fixed upon as a centre, though it would have been transferred if a more healthy spot could have been found. Teste Island is now the retreat and the sanatorium for the stations on the mainland. The operations of the mission had been much hindered by the general unhealthiness of the visited parts of the island, a fever that spared not even the natives being prevalent. Mission stations are established in various parts of the south-eastern end of this land, the principal ones being Port Moresby and Mill Island, where the Rev. W. G. Lawes of the London Missionary Society till lately was located. This was believed to be a healthy spot, and the natives hereabout appear to be a little more tractable than in most other parts. Other visiting stations, most of them having native schools and teachers, are at Manumann, a village situated on a large sandbank at the mouth of a fine broad sluggish river; Lea-lea, a large village near Redscar Head, twenty-five miles W. of Port Moresby, a fruitful but unhealthy spot; Fairfax Harbour, a large bay having three villages on its shores, the most important of which is called Barume; the Boera, a tolerably large village on the coast where there are facilities for ships to water; Samoa, a healthy spot near the coast with a scattered population; and there are also several other smaller places farther inland to which the missionaries have penetrated. The Rev. James Chalmers in May 1879 gave his experience as under:—"They (the missionaries) had only taken up the peninsula or the south-east end of the island, which was 1200 miles in length by 600 miles at its extreme breadth. They had not been able to plant mission stations inland, but they had established up to the time he left, in the beginning of March last, no fewer than twenty-one mission stations along the coast with thirty native teachers located at them. When they first landed the natives seemed to be friendly, but at some places they caused a good deal of trouble, and at times the lives of the mission party were placed in great peril. The mission was not able to overtake the whole of New Guinea, but they hoped the time was drawing near when missionaries would be found not only along the coastline but inland. He did not think the country was ever likely to be colonised, but his impression was that the south-east peninsula would yet be a good field for capitalists. They could grow a splendid sugar-cane; experienced men said it was far superior to the sugar-cane of Queensland. Coffee too could be grown there. But it would be impossible to employ European labour, and he did not think the natives would do the work unless they were to do it on their own account. He did not think New Guinea was at present a suitable field for European settlement. As they all knew, gold-digging had proved a failure. What he would suggest to any Government that was sufficiently enterprising to explore New Guinea would be this—to appoint a man who understood travelling and give him a thorough staff of scientific men, get carriers from

the South Pacific Islands, and land the party at Port Moresby, back them well with money, and then New Guinea would be explored and the civilised world would know of it." In December 1877 Mr. Chester visited New Guinea. His instructions from the Colonial Secretary of Q. were to visit that portion of the New Guinea coast lying to the north of Thursday Island, for the purpose of obtaining some additional information in connection with the entrance to Mai-Cussar, or Baxter River; to cultivate friendly relations with the natives; and to endeavour to obtain samples of the products of the island, specimens of natural history, and some of the arms and implements and other things in use among the islanders. Acting on these instructions Mr. Chester with a party of ten Europeans and sixteen South Sea Islanders proceeded to New Guinea, reaching the mouth of the Mai-Cussar on the 5th. He describes the Mai-Cussar as a magnificent river, nearly a mile wide at the mouth, without a shoal or sandbank to obstruct the navigator, with nine fathoms of water at the entrance, deep water to the very head, and upwards of eighteen feet of water alongside the banks. He returned to Thursday Island on 15th December. In July 1878 Mr. Chester, who was appointed by Sir Arthur Gordon to represent his commission among the natives, made another voyage to New Guinea, visiting Port Moresby and other settlements on the coast. He proceeded first of all to Murray Island, where a native teacher employed by the London Missionary Society has been stationed since 1872, and where he found a neat church well filled with worshippers and a school, population being about 400. This island is probably destined to play an important part in the evangelisation and civilisation of New Guinea, as a training institution for natives will probably be established there. The first point of arrival on the New Guinea coast was at Boera, a village of about 370 people, some twelve miles from Port Moresby, where he had an interview with the chiefs and gathered some interesting and useful information from them. He describes the village of Boera as consisting of a number of thatched huts, each accommodating a single family. These houses are built on slender piles a short distance from high water mark, without any regard to regularity. The dead are buried in shallow graves in the very street, close to their houses, which must seriously affect their water supply. The women of the tribe at the time of his visit were busily engaged in the manufacture of pottery for their approaching voyage. "The people are of a light copper colour, below the middle stature, with straight hair frizzed out like a mop, in which a bamboo comb is stuck; they are well made, with rounded limbs, and both in appearance and softness of disposition like the Pelew Islanders. Many of the women are pleasing looking, and some of the younger girls are even pretty." From Boera he went on to Port Moresby, which may be considered the port of the island so far as A. is concerned, and has been the point of

departure of the mining parties who have been prospecting the country. Mr. Ingham, who up to the time of his murder by the natives was the agent at Port Moresby for the Government of Q., gives the following description of the locality and surroundings:—"Port Moresby is situated about lat. 9°20' S. and long. 147°30' E. and access to the port is obtained through the Basilisk opening in the New Guinea Barrier Reef. The distance from the reef to the entrance of the harbour is about five miles, and good anchorage is obtainable under the south head in about six fathoms of water at a distance of a mile-and-a-quarter from the shore. Deep water is found close up to the eastern head and this is the place lately occupied by the *Saucy Jack* cutter as a beche-de-mer station. The entrance itself is about a mile and a half wide. From the eastern head a native track runs round the harbour to the village of Anuapata, and the Colonist party in landing their horses availed themselves of this portion of the harbour, the vessel being warped to within 100 yards of the beach, whence they were able to swim the horses ashore and drive them round to the village. A range of high mountains forms the backbone of the peninsula, and between these and the Port Moresby coast is first a stretch of level country and then a series of low hills, which at some places run down steeply to the sea and at others are succeeded by a considerable stretch of comparatively level ground. These hills skirt the harbour from the eastern head to Anuapata, where they lie back from the beach sufficiently far to give abundant room for a township. Opposite to Anuapata a range of hills dividing the harbour from the sea forms an effectual barrier against the north-west monsoons and renders Port Moresby absolutely land-locked. Port Moresby will form an admirable position for a European settlement so far as regards its healthiness but until a proper road is made the range will be an insurmountable barrier to dray traffic with the interior. It was at one time supposed that Bootless Inlet would be a more suitable place for a township, as the land does not rise more than sixty feet at the head of that harbour, besides which it has a fine running stream of fresh water; but unfortunately a coral reef extends right across the opening of the bay and no available passage has yet been discovered. The distance from this place to the crossing of the Laloki would be about two miles less than from Port Moresby. Another objection to Port Moresby as a settlement is the great scarcity of water, which can only be obtained from two springs immediately at the foot of the hill and about a mile distant from the village, so that any European settlement would have to depend upon storage for its water supply. So far as can be ascertained the rainfall here is slightly less than at Cooktown. Timber is very scarce at Port Moresby, as the gum trees there are very small and stunted, and none of the scrub woods are available for building purposes. All wood has to be brought from some distance. The road from Port Moresby

inland is over the low range of hills at the back of the town, through a gap, at a level of 560 feet above the sea; thence by a gentle descent into a large blacksoil plain which extends for about twelve miles to the bank of the Laloki river. A large portion of this plain is covered with good kangaroo grass, and is admirably adapted for grazing cattle; on the other side of the river there is about four miles of level country, after which a dense scrub is reached, and then the lower spurs of the main dividing range. The Laloki river takes a course almost parallel to the coast, running between the main range and the E. hills, and empties itself into Redscar Bay, about forty miles from Port Moresby. The natives say that about forty miles inland from Port Moresby, at a height of 2000 feet above the sea, it is only five sleeps to the big water on the other side, so that should it ever be required there is little doubt that communication could be obtained with the north-west coast, through the great gap between Owen Stanley on the W. and Mount Obree on the E. The absence of ports on the north-west coast renders it not unlikely that a large portion of it may have to depend on Port Moresby for supplies. Westward from Port Moresby are numerous little villages of from 200 to 400 inhabitants, and these extend along the coast as far as Cape Suckling. Eastward from Port Moresby also are numerous small villages until Hood Lagoon is reached, where there is a village of 1000 inhabitants or more. Beyond Hood Lagoon the villages are more populous, and in Keppel Bay there is a village of about 4000 inhabitants. Still further eastward the region of cannibalism is reached." To return to Mr. Chester:—He found the natives friendly; the digging population had suffered much from fever. He visited the Laloki camp and interviewed the chiefs. He particularly mentions in his report the kindly acts of the natives to several of the sick diggers, individualising the good deeds of the Raratongan native teachers. He left Port Moresby for a coast tour on 23rd July. The first village reached was Kaile, eighteen miles distant, next the village of Hula which is built on piles in the sea, then at five miles distance a village called Kamari with a population of about 1500; farther on was the village of Kalo situated on the right bank of the Kemp Weleh river with a population of about 2000; this river was crossed, and after a walk of seven or eight miles along a sandy beach the district of Kerepunu, consisting of seven detached villages, each with a considerable and an industrious population, was arrived at. Leaving here he proceeded to Kalo, where native festivities were going on. Māōpa a village at Keppel point, was next visited in company with the native chief; the houses here are two storied and built on piles, the village lying between two sand hills a short distance from the beach. Kerepunu was left on 3rd August, and thence to South Cape where Mr. Chalmers lives, who wields great influence over the natives, interviews were had with the natives

at several points on the coast, the intercourse in all cases being of a friendly character. From here the departure was taken for a walk across the peninsula, which after some little trouble was accomplished in about sixty miles from South Cape to Milne Bay, through a population of cannibals, the progress throughout being described as partaking more of a royal march with every feeling of security. On 21st August Milne Bay was crossed to East Cape, the next day China Strait being steamed through to Dinner Island, Suow being reached the same day. On the whole trip twenty-six villages had been visited, at ten of which Mr. Chester slept. On every occasion the communications with the natives were satisfactory, this good result being due in a very great measure to missionary influence. Mr. Chester strongly urges the appointment of a Resident Judicial Commissioner by whom disputes with the natives could be properly adjusted. He further says, "Our recent cruise will have dispelled the prevailing idea that New Guinea is a country solely inhabited by savage races with whom it is impossible to hold intercourse, and that annexation is an easy matter. These people cannot be dispossessed of their country as easily as the aborigines of Australia. They have vested interests and rights that cannot be disregarded; but I am sanguine that the day is not far distant when this land will be opened up to the markets of Manchester and Sheffield." Mr. Hanran who formed one of the Colonist expedition has recently made known his opinion of New Guinea. He states:—"From the very little I know myself and from what I could learn from others, I think it will become a rich field for the planter. The virgin soil of that country producing such rich vegetation spontaneously, and the beautiful sugarcane and other tropical plants that are grown by the natives, are inducements that will attract the attention of men who will initiate and fertilise the growth of rice, sugar, and other tropical produce in that country. The planter may have dry seasons to contend with in New Guinea, but when we consider that (unlike N.A. where the river beds are nearly dry during a great part of the year) the rivers are always running and scarcely fordable at any time, and that it is the damp sultry climate and heavy atmosphere that causes so much ague and fever in that country, there is not much cause for apprehending that great evil. The greatest difficulty the planter will have to contend with in that country is in finding labour to turn over the virgin soil at first. The South Sea Islander or the negro who works in the rice and sugar fields of Louisiana may be suitable, the New Guinea native certainly would." He further goes on to say that "New Guinea is well known to be auriferous, and I know of no country with such indications as we found there without payable gold being discovered in some part of it."

NEW HOLLAND. The name given to the Australian continent by the early Dutch navigators.

NEW SOUTH WALES—GEOGRAPHICAL OUTLINE.—N.S.W., the mother colony of the Australasian group, was so called by Cook, who when first exploring its rugged coast in 1770 thought that some of its general outlines were not unlike those of South Wales. It originally included the whole of the eastern portion of Australia, but is now restricted to the southern half of the eastern coast—the northern half being distinguished since the 1st of December 1859 as the seaward boundary of Q. The present N.S.W. lies between the 28th and 37th degrees of S. latitude and the 141st and 154th meridians of E. longitude. It extends over about nine degrees of latitude and about twelve and a-half degrees of longitude. Its northernmost limit (Point Danger) is in 28° 10' S. and 153° 29' E.; its easternmost point (Cape Byron) being in 28° 27' S. and 157° 37' E.; the most southerly limit of the colony (Cape Howe) being situated in latitude 37° 28' S. and longitude 150° 8' E. It has well-defined natural boundaries on every side, except the western border and part of the northern boundary, W. of the McIntyre River, where the 29th parallel of latitude touches that river. On the N. it is separated from Q. by the Macpherson Range, the Dividing Range, the Dumaresq River, the Karaula (or McIntyre) River, and the 29th parallel of S. latitude. On the E. it is bounded by the Pacific Ocean. On the W. it is separated from the territory of S.A. by the 141st meridian of E. longitude. On the S. it is separated from V. by a line drawn from Cape Howe to the nearest source of the Murray and by the westerly course of that river. The position of N.S.W. in S. latitude corresponds to that respectively occupied by Cape Colony in Africa, and by the lower portion of La Plata and Chili in South America; the South of Spain, Italy and Greece lying in a corresponding zone of N. latitude. The boundaries of N.S.W. constitute an irregularly-shaped four-sided figure, the southern frontier deviating most widely from a right line. The extreme length of the country, measured diagonally, is 900 miles; its greatest breadth something less than 850, and its mean breadth about 500 miles. Its superficial area is 323,437 square miles, or more nearly 198,626,143 acres. N.S.W. is about three times the size of Great Britain and Ireland, and larger than any State in Europe, except Russia. One of its outlying pastoral districts within the frontier—The Albert—is alone larger than England and Wales together. Taken as a whole the colony is nearly equal in extent to Canada. The entire length of the coast-line is about 800 miles. The seaboard presents twenty-two remarkable headlands or capes. Its bays and inlets, from Point Danger to Cape Howe, are about eighteen in number. Most of these are still known by names given to them by Cook and other early discoverers. On the coast-line there are eleven inlets, with narrow openings, occasionally closed to navigation after heavy gales from seaward. These salt-water lagoons are generally but somewhat improperly

known as lakes. In the interior there are several extensive fresh-water lakes. The islands on the coast are few and unimportant. The principal harbours are the ports of Sydney and Newcastle, but at the mouths of several of the rivers there are numerous roadsteads and inlets more or less available for maritime purposes. The harbour of Sydney (Port Jackson) is one of the best and most extensive in the world. As regards the physical features of the country the surface of N.S.W. may be divided into three parts—(1) the Coast District; (2) the Table-lands; and (3) the Plains of the Interior. The coast district is a comparatively narrow strip of undulating land lying along the sea-coast, often not more than thirty-five miles wide, and sometimes considerably less. A high plateau or elevated district, furrowed here and there with precipitous valleys, next succeeds, frequently presenting on the seaward side nearly perpendicular escarpments. The most important series of these high lands traverses the entire length of the colony. In width this elevated region extends westward to about the 151st meridian. Its shape is irregular, and its area is not easily estimated. On this table-land, at the distance of from sixty to seventy miles from the coast, are found the loftiest mountains, while from the 151st meridian to the westward there is a gradual fall to the great inland plains. These plains are for the most part thinly timbered, but well watered, covered with luxuriant grass and herbage, and forming admirable cattle and sheep stations. They are the great pasture lands of N.S.W. In the central district or table-land the climate is cold in winter, particularly in the more mountainous tracts. On the Muniong Range, in the pastoral district of Monaro—a range generally known as the Australian Alps—snow frequently lies from May to October, but is however seldom seen in summer, although sometimes known to fall even in December and January. In these Alpine districts tremendous storms not unfrequently occur, followed by very heavy rains. Although in the table-land the winters are rather severe, as a rule the climate of N.S.W. is warm and dry, the difference of mean temperatures not being more than twenty-five degrees. In the coast region to the east of the Great Dividing Range the mean annual temperature stands higher than on the table-lands. The heat of the summer is here however moderated by the proximity of the ocean. In the vast plains of the interior the alternations of heat and cold are always more distinctly marked. Hot winds are more or less prevalent throughout the low lands during the summer, and whilst they last have been known to raise the temperature to 120° F. Notwithstanding this occasional inconvenience, the climate is universally regarded as both healthy and pleasant, and one of its chief characteristics is a peculiar lightness and purity of atmosphere seldom experienced elsewhere.

PHYSICAL ASPECT.—*Mountains.*—The mountain system of N.S.W. is sufficiently simple. The

mountains extend over an immense area, but their average elevation is probably not more than 3500 feet, although some peaks are much higher. The highest, Mount Kosciusko in the Muniong Range, attains an altitude of 7308 feet—about 700 feet below the line of perpetual snow. The Great Dividing Chain or Cordillera separates the eastern and western watersheds but does not constitute the sole important feature of the system. The mountains may be conveniently distinguished under four different heads:—(1.) *The Interior Ranges*.—The ranges of the interior near the western boundary of the colony form the western watershed of the Darling River. Of these the principal are Grey Range and Stanley or Barrier Range. In Grey Range the chief elevation is Mount Arrowsmith 2000 feet high, and in Stanley Range the chief elevation is Mount Lyell also about 2000 feet high. (2.) *The Great Dividing Chain* has seven main branches, viz:—The New England Range (highest point Ben Lomond 5000 feet); The Liverpool Range (highest point Oxley's Peak 4500 feet); The Blue Mountain Range (highest point Mount Beemarang 4100 feet); The Cullarin Range (highest point Mundoonen 3000 feet); The Gourock Range (highest point Jindulian 4300 feet); The Monaro Range (highest point head of Kybean River 4010 feet); and The Muniong Range (highest point Mount Kosciusko 7308 feet.) These seven main branches are again sub-divided as follows:—(1.) The New England Range into five lateral branches—MacPherson's Range, MacLeay Range, Nandewar or Hardwick Range, Hastings Range, Moonbi Range. (2.) The Liverpool Range into three chief lateral branches—Peel Range, Mount Royal Range and Warrumbungle Range. (3.) The Blue Mountain Range is subdivided into three chief lateral branches—Hunter Range, Mittagong Range, and Macquarie Range. (4.) The Cullarin Range is subdivided into the Western Range and Mundoonen Range. (5.) The Gourock Range, of a rugged and broken appearance, cannot be easily subdivided. (6.) The Monaro Range, is subdivided into the Western Range and the North-western Range. (7.) The Muniong Range the northern portion of the Warragong Mountains of V., contains on the N. side of the frontier the Murrumbidgee Range, the Tumut Range, and the Murray Range. All this series is connected with the Cordillera, dividing the eastern and western watersheds. In one portion of it there is an inland slope at Lake George to the S.W. of Goulburn, where there is no outlet. Here an area of 300 square miles is drained by the Turallo and Butmaroo Creeks. From the Muniong, Monaro, and the South Coast Ranges, the Margalong or Snowy River—having for affluents the rivers Eucumbene, Crackenback, Mowamba, Tongaro, Moyengul, Ingeegoodbee, Wulwye, Bobundarra, MacLaughlan, and lastly the Bombala with its tributaries Cambolong, Columbooka and Maharatta, flows away across the frontier to the S. With these two exceptions all the waters of N.S.W.

either pass away into the ocean on the eastward, or accumulating on the western side of the Great Cordillera fall into the river Murray at Wentworth, which itself reaches the ocean near Adelaide. (3.) *The Coast Ranges*.—On the east side of the Great Dividing Chain and parallel to it for a considerable distance lie ranges which from their situation are called the Coast Ranges. They generally form the edge of the elevated table-land upon which lies the Great Dividing Chain, and are thus distinguished:—The Northern Coast Range, The Illawarra Range, The Currockbilly Range and the South Coast Range. The loftiest peak is Mount Coolungera in the South Coast Range which attains an elevation of 3712 feet. (4.) *Isolated Mountains and Groups*.—The most remarkable of these are Mount Doubleduke, Whoman, Elanie, Yarrahappini, Kibbora, The Three Brothers, Mount Talawah, Dromedary, Mumbulla and Imlay or Baloon 2900 feet high.

RIVERS.—With the comparatively trifling exception of the Snowy River (the Margalong) and its affluents, and the two inconsiderable streams known as Turallo and Butmaroo Creeks, all the rivers of N.S.W. have their sources in the Great Dividing Chain or Cordillera, and flow thence to the sea with a curious variety of direction by the eastern or the western watershed. The great rivers of the western watershed are the Darling and its numerous affluents; the Lachlan and its affluents comparatively few in number; the Murrumbidgee and its affluents; and the Murray or Hume and its affluents. All these great western rivers eventually unite their streams with the Murray, which receives its last tributary the Darling at the frontier town of Wentworth, passing which it flows away into Lake Alexandrina, near Adelaide in S.A. The drainage of the western watershed may be understood by the following analysis:—(1.) *The Darling*.—The Karaula, Calewatta or MacIntyre River rises at the foot of Ben Lomond not far from Stonehenge, in the pastoral district of New England. It first flows in a N.W. direction for about 130 miles, and having received the Severn it reaches the northern boundary of N.S.W. and runs for a considerable distance westerly, receiving successively the Dumaresq, Boomi, Whalan and Gilgil Rivers. Its course thenceforward is for the most part southerly and south-westerly. The united stream is here generally called the Barwon or Upper Darling—almost down to the site of the township of Breewarrina to the N.E. of Bourke. The river then receives as tributaries the Mooni, the Gwydir or Bundarra also called the Kindur, the Namoi or Peel and its affluents, the Castle-reagh, the Macquarie (the Wambool) and its numerous affluents, the Narran, Bokhara, the Culgoa, the Bogan, the Warrego and several other large streams or (as they are generally designated) creeks. From Breewarrina down to Wentworth the main stream is known as the Darling. The estimated length of the Barwon is 510 miles; that of the Lower Darling or Darling properly so called is

650 miles; giving a total of 1160 miles. The Darling falls into the Murray at Wentworth in latitude $34^{\circ} 6' S.$ and longitude $142^{\circ} 2' E.$ The area of basin drained by the Darling and its affluents is 198,000 square miles. The length of the MacIntyre is 350 miles; of the Gwydir 445 miles; of the Namoi 600 miles; of the Castlereagh 365 miles; of the Macquarie 750 miles; and of the Bogan 450 miles. It has been supposed that the River Paroo in the Albert District falls into the Darling but this is somewhat doubtful. (2.) *The Lachlan*.—The River Lachlan or Calare is the next main stream, but much inferior in length and extent of basin to the Darling. It rises on the western side of the Cullarin Range. It receives first the Jerrawa Creek and is then called the Narrawa River and afterwards the Crookwell and Abercrombie, and the river then assumes the name of the Lachlan. The Boorowa and Belubula rivers are the last of its principal affluents. Sweeping round to the W. and S.W. the Lachlan falls into the Murrumbidgee, flowing in the latter portion of its course through vast plains. The total length of the Lachlan is 700 miles; area of basin 27,000 square miles. (3.) *The Murrumbidgee*.—The Murrumbidgee rises in the Muniong Range, and in the neighbourhood of Cooma trends suddenly to the northward. It receives the Umaralla, the Queanbeyan, the Yass, the Goodradigbee, the Tumut, the Adelong, the Nacka Nacka, and the Tarcutta. After the first 300 miles it pursues a westerly course, and joining the Lachlan W. of Maude falls into the Murray twenty miles to the S.W. of Balranald. The estimated length of the Murrumbidgee is 1350 miles and it drains a basin having an area of 25,000 square miles. The Murrumbidgee is navigable for 500 miles. (4.) *The Murray*.—The principal source of the Murray (known also as the Millewa, Hume or Indi) is in the Muniong Range near Mount Kosciusko, not far distant from the head of the Murrumbidgee waters. It flows westerly and north-westerly through the entire breadth of N.S.W. and receives almost all its western waters. The Murray and Murrumbidgee are connected by ana-branches in the lower part of their course. This river has several considerable affluents in the upper portion of its course, and it forms the southern frontier of the colony from Monaro to the south-western limit. Its length is 1120 miles and it drains an area of 270,000 square miles. The width of the stream from Moama to Albury in the summer time is about 240 feet, and it is navigable by small steamers as far as the last-mentioned town. The rivers of the eastern watershed drain an area of not more than 50,000 square miles. They all flow into the Pacific Ocean. The most considerable are the Hawkesbury, the Hunter and the Clarence. The length of the Hawkesbury is 330 miles and it drains an area of about 8700 miles. The length of the Hunter (Coquon) is 300 miles and the area drained about 8000 square miles. The Shoalhaven is 260 miles in length; the Clarence 240 miles; the

Macleay 190 miles; and the Manning 100 miles. The Hastings, the Karuah, the Clyde, the Moruya, the Tuross, the Bega and the Towamba—all more or less navigable—are all less than 100 miles in length. Most of these eastern rivers have sand-bars at their mouths, and their navigation is attended with danger in tempestuous weather. The Hawkesbury (Deernbbum) is remarkable for its singularly tortuous course. Its basin has three distinct slopes in the eastern watershed—a northern, eastern and western slope. The main stream comes from the northern slope and is first called the Wollondilly. It receives the Mulwarree, the Cookbundoon and the Cox rivers, and is then called the Warragamba. When the Cowpasture River has contributed its waters the river is called the Nepean, which name it bears until its junction with the Grose, flowing from the Blue Mountains, and thenceforth it is known as the Hawkesbury, the name first bestowed in order of time upon this stream of many aliases. After receiving the Colo and MacDonald rivers and other minor tributaries the Hawkesbury finally discharges itself into the Pacific Ocean at Broken Bay. Owing to the immense area which it drains and the flatness of the country in the lower portion of its course, but chiefly perhaps in consequence of the confined and tortuous channel below Windsor through which the enormous volume of flood-waters is not discharged with sufficient rapidity, this river is liable to sudden floods. The alluvial lands in the valleys of the Hawkesbury and of the Hunter are renowned for their extraordinary fertility.

PLAINS.—The western interior of the colony almost to the boundary line of S.A. consists of immense level tracts of country. The principal of these are the Liverpool Plains lying between the Liverpool and Nundawar Ranges. These plains, the native name of which was Cobbon Comleroy, contain about 10,000,000 acres or 16,901 square miles of land. This tract was named by Oxley, the discoverer (26th August 1818) after Lord Liverpool, and is supposed to have been at one time the bed of an immense inland lake, with hills and ridges rising like islands, chiefly sandstone or basalt. It is for the most part sparsely watered, and for this reason unsuitable for the purposes of tillage. Another extensive plain or series of plains is known as the Monaro (Manaroo) Plains or Brisbane Downs, consisting of a large tract of fine undulating pastoral country lying between the Murrumbidgee River on the west and the coast range on the east. These plains were discovered by Captain Currie and Brigadier-General Ovens in 1823. The Monaro Plains are not properly speaking plains, but rather a series of gently-swelling undulations, possessing rich and fertile soil and remarkably well watered. They form a plateau of 2000 feet above the level of the sea and are over 70 miles in length. The geological formation is generally made up of various granite rocks disturbing quartz-bearing slates of which the lower portions are partly overflowed by trappean eruptions. There are also extensive plains

on the Hunter River known as South Park and Jerry and Patrick's Plains, all in a high state of cultivation but subject to severe floods, and other plains near Bathurst (the Macquarie) and in the north-western part of the colony, the latter mostly taken up as cattle stations.

LAKES.—The largest lakes are : Lake George, about twenty-five miles S.W. of Goulburn, twenty-five miles in length by eight in breadth ; this is by far the most important inland lake of N.S.W. ; it is situated on the top of the table-land of the Dividing Range 2129 feet above the level of the sea, and is surrounded on its two sides by gigantic towering mountains rising in grassy slopes from the water's edge ; at the two ends of the lake the country is grassy and more level ; there is no outlet for the water, which is consequently saline from the accumulation of salt held in solution, and although unfit for human use is freely drunk by cattle ; for a long time previous to 1852 the lake was dry, but in that year—the year of the great Gundagai flood—it filled up and has been wholly or partially full ever since ; its surface teems with aquatic birds and its waters abound with fish. Lake Bathurst, about ten miles distant from Lake George, with an area of eight square miles ; Tarrago Lake ; Burra Burra Lake ; Lake Macquarie, more properly an inlet of the sea, twenty miles long by three miles wide ; and Lake Illawarra, also formed by the sea.

CAPIES AND BAYS.—The coast is fringed by about twenty-two important capes or headlands which are severally described under their respective heads. The bays and inlets are about eighteen in number ; the largest and most important being Twofold Bay, Jervis Bay, Botany Bay, Port Jackson (on which Sydney is situated,) Middle Harbour (a northerly elongation of Port Jackson of capacious area but little depth of water,) Broken Bay, Port Hunter (on which stands the City of Newcastle,) and Port Stephens.

PASTORAL DISTRICTS.—The first-settled portion of N.S.W. was divided into twenty counties, containing about a million acres each and being generally about forty miles in width by sixty or seventy in length. Nearly a hundred other counties have since been formed, some of which are considerably larger, and there is a portion of the Riverina and Albert districts in the W. still undivided. Those portions of the country beyond the original twenty counties are divided into thirteen pastoral districts as follows :—(1) Albert, comprising the extreme north-western portion of the colony and consisting for the most part of arid plains in which the streams from the mountain ranges lose themselves ; it has an area of about 60,000 square miles. (2) Warrego, in the N., has an area of about 10,000 square miles. (3) Clarence, in the extreme N.E., contains about 5000 square miles. (4) Macleay, on the N.E. coast, is small, containing only 3180 square miles. (5) New England, in the N., is a fine and varied table-land containing 13,100 square miles. (6) Bligh, in the upper valley of the Macquarie River, has

7800 square miles. (7) Liverpool Plains, more to the N., has an area of 16,910 square miles. (8) Gwydir, on the northern boundary, has 11,075 square miles. (9) Wellington, to the W. of the Macquarie River, has an area of 16,695 square miles. (10) Lachlan, in the S.W., has an area of 22,800 square miles. (11) Murrumbidgee, on the southern boundary, has 26,897 square miles. (12) Darling, in the south-western corner of the colony, extends to 50,000 square miles. (13) Monaro is a high table-land in the S. and not far from the E. coast ; it contains 8335 square miles.

TOPOGRAPHY.—The topographical distribution of the vast area of N.S.W. has not followed any uniform system. There are old or proclaimed counties with well-defined, and there are new counties with very ill-defined, boundaries ; and there are pastoral districts, provinces in dimensions, lying beyond these old counties. The colony has been subdivided into 118 counties, but this mode of subdivision is of little topographical importance, and is generally disregarded. Besides the vast extent of country included in the rather vaguely defined areas of some of the more distant inland counties, there are also large unoccupied tracts to be found (as in the Albert District, beyond the River Darling), wherein few counties yet appear even on the map. The old or proclaimed counties near the coast are all more clearly defined, and more densely inhabited, than the new counties of the interior. Towns, villages, homesteads, clearings, cultivated farms, plantations, and other evidences of industry and progress, are of tolerably frequent occurrence, vigorous efforts having been everywhere made to facilitate intercommunication by roads and railways, and by the establishment at convenient distances of post-towns and electric telegraph stations. The following analysis may serve to give some idea of the wide extent of the area embraced by the postal-stations :—One of them, Mount Gipps, is 944 miles ; another, Menindie, is 850 miles ; another, Wentworth, is 835 miles, from Sydney. Two—Louth and Pooncarie—are over 700 miles from the capital, two are over 600 miles, twenty-five are over 500 miles, twenty-six are over 400 miles, and fifty-six are over 300 miles.

CLIMATE.—N.S.W. has the advantage of a climate which with rare salubrity combines an extraordinary variety of temperature. It is a common error to suppose that the people live in a semi-tropical climate, and that the temperature of Sydney is the prevailing temperature of the colony. There is as much difference in this respect between Sydney and some parts of the interior, as between the Midland Counties of England and the moors of Scotland, except that in the colder parts of the colony the winter is not so long in duration. The climate of Sydney has been compared to that of Naples, the difference being only five degrees of greater summer heat and winter cold at Naples than at Port Jackson. Although tropical plants grow in the Sydney gardens, a five hours journey

by rail is sufficient to reach a climate where British fruits, flowers and grapes are cultivated with success. Summer extends from the 1st of December to the end of February, and its mean heat is about eighty degrees; but this great heat is moderated along the coast by the sea breeze which blows regularly from nine in the morning until five, six or seven in the evening, when it is succeeded by the land breeze from the mountains. The spring months are September, October and November; at this time the nights are cold but the days warm and pleasant. The three autumn months are March, April and May. During the winter months of June, July and August the morning and evenings are cold; hoar frosts are frequent, becoming more severe on advancing into the interior. At Sydney the thermometer is rarely below forty degrees. Snow does not lie in the valleys, but in winter the loftiest of the hills and mountains are covered, some of the latter reaching the line of perpetual snow. The healthy character of the climate is shown by the returns of the Registrar, the percentage of deaths comparing favourably with those of any country. Regular observations of the weather have been taken but for a comparatively few years, insufficient to indicate all that is required to be known of the climate of a large tract of country. It has been proved however that the climate of N.S.W. approximates to that of Southern Europe, but so modified by the physical features of different parts that all varieties may be found from the cold of Kiandra, where frost, snow and hail prevail for a considerable portion of the year, to the heat of the inland plains, where the thermometer sometimes reaches 140 degrees in the shade and is for the greater part of the summer over 100 degrees, and where rain enough to wet the ground is sometimes not seen for eighteen months. The temperature of the coast districts is influenced and equalised it is believed by one of the great ocean currents which takes its rise to the north of Australia, and has a steady set south at a distance of four or five miles from the coast with a velocity of one or two miles an hour. This antipodean gulf stream of warm water is only occasionally intercepted for a day or two at a time when there is a strong southerly wind blowing. During the year 1877 the thermometer, in the shade, at Sydney showed the mean temperature to range from 50·5 to 82·9; the highest was 97·4, the lowest 41·6; the mean temperature for the year being 63·8. The total rainfall was 59·517 inches, rain fell on 147 days, the greatest fall in one day was 4·89 inches. The rainfall was 7·996 inches above the average for the preceding eighteen years. The highest reading of the barometer was 30·508 in July, the lowest 29·201 in May. The prevailing wind was W. In 1878 the mean reading of the barometer was 29·831, the highest shade temperature was 102·7 in November, the mean being 83·3; the lowest shade temperature was 38·7 in June, the mean being 49·9, the highest in the sun was 146·2 in February. Rain fell on 129 days, the greatest fall in one day being 7·526 inches.

SOIL.—Owing partly to climatic circumstances and in part to the absence of water there is much land useless for agricultural purposes, though much of this is adapted for pastoral use and is so employed. Of land rich in decayed vegetable matter, containing in great profusion the ingredients and constituents necessary for the formation of plants, there is no great breadth away from the river banks. The most fertile land in the colony, perhaps in the world, is to be found on the margins of the rivers, particularly the bottom lands of the Clarence, Macleay, Manning, Hunter, Hawkesbury and Shoalhaven. This fertility is almost counterbalanced by the liability to inundation, when the year's harvest may in a few hours be swept away. The Northern district is suitable for the cultivation of sugar, maize, the vine and semi-tropical fruits. The area of land watered by the Macleay, Manning and Hastings rivers is largely utilised for maize; the sugar-cane has been extensively cultivated but not found to succeed. The Great Southern line of Railway to Goulburn, 134 miles from Sydney, passes through country much of which has long been under cultivation and in which most of the pursuits of agriculture and horticulture are successfully carried on. At Mittagong, 77 miles from Sydney, rich and extensive deposits of coal and iron exist in close proximity to the railway, and some of the soil of the district is singularly fertile. Indeed with some exceptions it may be said that good arable land occurs nearly all the way to Merulan, 114 miles, where excellent marble is found. Goulburn and much of the country through which the line runs possesses a mild and salubrious climate in which English fruits, vegetables and cereals thrive luxuriantly. The Great Northern Railway in the first portion of its course passes over coalfields of great extent and value, the produce of which it conveys to Newcastle. In nearly its whole length it intersects a good agricultural and grazing country with a soil producing fine crops and luxuriant pasturage. The Great Western line passes by orangeries, vineyards and homesteads; but with the exception of a mile or two westward of Penrith the land is too rugged and mountainous for agricultural purposes until the Bathurst Plains are reached. The land to the southward of Sydney on the coast, the Illawarra district and beyond, is employed for dairy farming purposes and supplies the metropolis with much of its produce of milk, butter and the other accompaniments of the breakfast-table. Large areas are laid down with English grasses which here flourish in all their native luxuriance.

FLORA.—Among the indigenous trees, shrubs and plants of N.S.W. are the Acacias, upwards of one hundred varieties of which are known to flourish. They bear a pretty yellow blossom and are more generally known under the generic name of Wattle. The wood is of little value, except the myall, which has been utilised in the manufacture of pipes and other small articles. The Eucalyptus or Gum-tree is peculiar to A. and abounds in all parts; there are

in all twenty-seven varieties; it is a most valuable wood for many purposes and the red-gum is almost as imperishable as the jarrah wood of W.A. The ironbark is noted for its hardness and in its very dry state is scarcely workable; it is used for ship-building purposes and its life is estimated as exceeding fifty years; the blue and white gums are also of value for constructive purposes. The most valuable timber of all is the Cedar which is found in the northern parts of the colony, its home being principally the alluvial flats of the tributaries of the eastern rivers. For all indoor uses, cabin fittings and decorative purposes the wood is in general requisition. The *Casuarina* tribe, more popularly known under the name of the She Oak (*Shiak*), are very numerous as are also the *Banksia* family which pass usually under the name of honey-suckle. Fig-trees are plentiful and of great variety; the fruit is pleasant but the wood of little use. The cabbage-tree palm is found in the Coast districts; its leaves or fronds are much used in the manufacture of hats. Ferns of large size and endless diversity grow in profusion in the mountain gullies. On the plains the mesembryanthemum or salt bush is largely found. It is a valuable grazing food for both sheep and cattle. The mallee scrub covers some portions of the plains; it is a dense almost impenetrable thicket. With the exception of the quandong and the native cherry there are no indigenous fruits of any kind in the colony; but all the fruits of the temperate zone and many semi-tropical, such as the orange, shaddock, banana, loquat and pine-apple are now grown with abundant results. Wild flowers of great variety and beauty adorn the landscape in the spring; of these the waratah or native tulip, the Christmas tree and varieties of the lily, are the most striking. The conditions necessary for the production of vegetable mould are nearly all absent. The trees are almost universally evergreen and there is consequently no deposit of leaves in autumn. The leaves are destitute for the most part of salts, and when they fall their decomposition into mould is prevented by the heat and dryness of the climate. Thus it is that, as has been already said, there is a large quantity of land of moderate fertility suitable for grazing purposes with a considerable proportion of the worst description (cold clay or loose sand,) useless for either grazing or agricultural purposes.

FAUNA.—Nearly all the larger animals found in N.S.W. are of the marsupial order, that is, having a natural pouch in which they carry their young. The kangaroo takes precedence in size. It is found in various parts and occasionally in such numbers as to seriously incommode the operations of the settlers, consuming the pasture that would support many head of stock. Wallabys and paddymelons are a smaller species, and still smaller varieties are found in the rat family. The bandicoot, a small animal with a head and snout like a pig, the wombat, the opossum, the native bear—a small harmless creature in shape like a bear—the native cat, a pretty but destructive

animal, and the platypus (*Ornithorhynchus paradoxus*) and native hedgehog about exhaust the number of the larger mammalia. Bats are very numerous, from the flying foxes of large size to the flying mouse; like all this tribe they are nocturnal in their habits and are very destructive to fruit trees. Snakes are far too plentiful to be pleasant; five different families exist in N.S.W. The death-adder and the yellow snake are the most dangerous and their bite is frequently fatal. The lizard tribes are well represented the largest of these being the iguana. Birds are remarkable for their variety and so far as the parrot tribe is concerned the beauty of their plumage. The eagle tribe is widely distributed; there are also several species of owls. The great kingfisher, or laughing jacasse, can be met with in most parts, its strange hoot and peculiar so-called laugh making the bush echo in the early morning and at sundown. The magpie is also common and its cry, heard as the day breaks, is very musical. Cockatoos, parrots and paroquets are very plentiful in the coast district. Quails, native pheasants and bush turkey are found. The wild turkey and the emu, the latter the largest biped found on the continent, are now confined to the plains. Among water birds are the native companion and several other species of crane and heron, the black swan being the most graceful and the largest of all. Leeches abound in most of the creeks and lagoons. Insects are prolific almost beyond belief; the mosquito is the most numerous and certainly the most annoying of all, but the locusts are the most noisy and at sundown their shrill whistling fills the air. Ants are of various kinds, the species termed the bull ant being of large size and dangerous to interfere with. Native bees are plentiful. Spiders of all sizes from the tarantula (or tri-antelope as it is more vulgarly called) downwards flourish in all parts. Fish swarm in the rivers that intersect and seas that fringe the colony; among them are the bream, mullet, whiting, schnapper, jewfish, flathead and garfish; crustaceans too abound, while the Sydney oysters are luxuries that are prized throughout the colonies. The oyster beds besides those in the neighbourhood of Port Jackson are in the rivers Hunter, Clarence, Manning and Clyde. Within the last few years numerous animals have been imported from Great Britain and elsewhere and have been found to thrive in their new home; among these are deer, hares, rabbits (these have now become a serious pest) and the familiar songsters of the English hedgerows and fields.

GEOLOGY.—"The mountain ridges and table-lands of N.S.W. consist mainly of the older Palæozoic formations pierced and rent by intrusive igneous rocks of various ages. The older settled districts of the E. coast lie mostly on rocks of the carboniferous formation or on newer deposits of Mesozoic age; while the great western plains and valleys are almost wholly Tertiary sandstone or more recent deposits, with intervening areas covered by overflows of igneous trap rock. The oldest

sedimentary rocks are Silurian, consisting of crystalline sandstones and limestones. Their strike is in a meridional direction, and the quartz veins, or "reefs" as they are locally termed, running N. and S. for miles, serve as a guide to the wandering bushman. These Silurian rocks form the bed on which the gold-bearing gravels are deposited, while its quartz veins or reefs form the matrix from which the gold of the drifts has been derived. These reefs are worked by means of deep mines, and furnish the larger part of the gold now procured. Granitic rocks of various kinds are abundant and are believed to be generally of later date than the Palæozoic rocks. Syenite forms the summit of Mount Kosciusko, the highest mountain in the colony and in Australia. Gold occurs in granite both in quartz veins and in beds of iron pyrites; while the tin of New England is all derived from granite. The carboniferous rocks cover an immense area and are largely coal-bearing, so that the coal-fields of N.S.W. are among the most extensive in the world. These deposits were once thought to belong to the Secondary formation, but they are now ascertained to be Palæozoic and to correspond to the true coal of Britain. Cannel coal and mineral oils are also produced by these carboniferous rocks. The Secondary formation is scantily represented by small patches of trias at the Clarence River, and by some coal-bearing beds near the Parramatta. Tertiary deposits are almost unknown in the E. while to the W. of the Dividing Range they cover enormous areas, forming in many places ranges of flat-topped sandstone hills. There are also immense deposits of sands, gravels, marls and clays of late Tertiary or Post-tertiary age; and these descend far below the present level of the country, as shown by a well sunk at Billebong on a tributary of the Lachlan River, which passed for 160 feet through such deposits without reaching any older rocks. More recent still are the deposits of drifts and boulders, with the red earth deposited in caves, which has yielded abundance of remarkable fossils as already described in our account of the geology of Australia. Igneous rocks occur abundantly and of all ages, from the basalt of the Palæozoic formation to the products of volcanoes of Post-tertiary age. In the southern part of the Dividing Range columnar basalt is abundant and is found as high as 5000 feet above the sea. Greenstone dykes cut through granite at Naas Valley and alter sandstone to Quartzite at Mount Tennant. Trachyte crowns the summit of Mount Lindesay. Igneous dykes at Illawarra, Murrundi and other places, have changed coal into coke. Great outflows of basalt occur at most of the goldfields. Volcanic ashes are found at Mount Lindesay. The number of true volcanic cones and craters is much fewer than in Victoria, nor are there any so perfect. No active volcano is known to exist in the colony."—(*Wallace.*)

PROGRESS.—Originating as a penal settlement in 1788 the colony at first made little progress, so that in 1825 the total population was only 33,675.

In the next nine years it nearly doubled, being 66,212 in 1834, but fully one-third of this number were prisoners. The early governors were often despotic, and persons were liable to disabilities and even to prosecution for the too free expression of their religious or political opinions. In 1836 all such disabilities were abolished, the immigration of free settlers was encouraged and the country rapidly increased in prosperity. In 1840 transportation was abolished, at which time the population had reached 129,463. In 1850 it was 265,503, and the following year V. was established as a separate colony, taking away more than a fourth part of the total population. The gold discoveries at this time diverted the stream of emigration to Melbourne, and it took four years to bring up the numbers of the population to that of the date of separation. Notwithstanding the rivalry of the sister colony and the superior attraction of its gold-fields N.S.W. continued to increase; and although in 1859 Q. was taken from it with 28,000 inhabitants, its population immediately afterwards in 1860 was 348,546. This has since increased with almost equal rapidity, and at the last estimate at the end of 1879 amounted to 734,282. Besides the colonies which have been actually separated from N.S.W. it has sent considerable portions of its population to S.A. and N.Z., standing in some respects in the place of a mother country to all the other Australian colonies. When this is taken into account the steady growth of its population must be considered as highly satisfactory. There is no such mixture of races here as in some of the other colonies. The Chinese number about 7000 or 8000 many of whom are market gardeners or domestic servants. Polynesians have been introduced as labourers, but the experiment was unsuccessful, and there are at present very few in the colony. The indigenous inhabitants are few in number, and are rapidly dying out.

PRODUCTIONS.—The great staple productions of N.S.W. are wool, gold and coal; and in the first and last it is pre-eminent over all the other colonies. In 1879 the number of sheep was 23,967,053, very nearly equal to the number in all the rest of Australia. The wool of N.S.W. is perhaps the finest in the world, the choicest breeds of Europe having been introduced; while the dry climate, the peculiar vegetation, the genial temperature and the absence of beasts of prey, all favour its development. In 1829 only 71,299 lbs. of wool were exported, while in 1878 it reached the enormous amount of 111,833,017 lbs., an increase of more than a thousand-fold in forty-nine years. Accessory products are tallow, skins and preserved meat. In 1872 the export of tallow was 185,233 cwt., more than 300,000 sheep being boiled down to produce it. Hides and leather in the same year realised £239,769. Meat-preserving was commenced only in 1862 by salting; the tinning process only began in 1866 and the freezing still later. The total exports of wool, tallow, meat and live stock in 1871 amounted to £8,598,633. The devotion

to pastoral pursuits implied by these large figures has led to the comparative neglect of agriculture. Tobacco, sugar and wine are also produced in considerable quantities; and these articles will probably soon show a great increase, as the climate and soil seem eminently adapted to them all. In 1876 4700 tons of sugar were produced and 451,000 gallons of wine. The climate is equally suitable to sericulture, and silk will soon be added to the exports. Gold was found at Port Macquarie as early as 1840 and subsequently at several other places, but the first goldfield was announced in 1851 at Ophir on Summerhill Creek, not far from Bathurst. Almost immediately other goldfields were discovered all along the great central range of mountains, and a period of the wildest excitement followed. There are now about eighty goldfields in the colony giving employment to 22,000 miners. In 1852, 962,873 ounces were produced and the yield has never since been so high. In 1873 it was 328,000 ounces. In 1871 there were in the colony 250 puddling machines, 22 hydraulic hoses and 80 crushing machines; and the total yield of gold in the twenty-nine years since 1851 has reached the value of forty millions sterling. The goldfields are most numerous and productive in the western districts. Copper is found abundantly in the Orange district, Monaro, and several other localities, but is not yet extensively worked. Silver-lead is found on the Yass River in the basin of the Upper Murrumbidgee and in other places, and cinnabar has been raised near the Cudgegong River. Iron is abundant but is not much worked owing to the cost of carriage. The Fitzroy mine on the Nattai River in Camden County has however been sold for £60,000. Tin has recently been worked in New England near the Q. border and has proved very rich, and to the end of 1877 £2,376,066 worth was exported. Diamonds are found in the tin streams and in some places they average six to each ton of wash-dirt. The most valuable of all the mineral products of N.S.W. is undoubtedly the coal, which occurs in great profusion and of excellent quality, is capable of vast extension and is the needful basis of so many other industries. The coalfields extend over an area of ten million acres, and in 1878 the coal raised was 1,575,497 tons of the value of £915,228. There are also vast deposits of kerosene shale at Maitland and in the Illawara district, and £57,211 worth was raised in 1878. Plumbago and meerschau have also been discovered; while limestone, slate and granite are abundant. The only manufactured articles exported from N.S.W. are cheese and butter, sugar, tallow, preserved meats and wine. In the year 1878 the exports amounted to £10,716,511, but the total exports were much more, there being a very large trade with the other colonies of Australia as well as with India and foreign countries. The shipping consists largely of steamers plying along the coasts and up the rivers. The number of vessels registered in N.S.W. is 573 with an aggregate measurement of 72,112 tons. Sixty vessels of 3465 tons were built

in 1876. There is a considerable trade between Sydney and the South Sea Islands as well as with the Sandwich Islands and California.

ROADS, RAILWAYS AND TELEGRAPHS.—Compared with the vast extent of the colony and the energy of its people the roads seem deficient. There were in 1873 only 604 miles of properly constructed roads, almost all of which were in the vicinity of the towns, and in addition 1255 miles in process of construction, most of which had then been simply cleared of forest. Long journeys are made over these cleared tracks with tolerable speed and regularity in dry weather; but where there is much traffic these roads become a succession of mud-holes in the wet season, and where possible détours have to be made through the uncleared ground. Regular stage coaches travel along these roads by day and night, passing in and out through the trees, up and down across the creeks, sticking here and there in the mud and sometimes upsetting, in which case the passengers often have to pass the night in the bush as best they can. The average pace is about six miles an hour. The deficiency of roads is due in part to the high price of labour, and in part to the vast distances to be traversed in every direction. It must be considered also that till the gold discoveries in 1851 the country was too thinly peopled and the revenue too small to admit of much expenditure on roads; and during the excitement of the gold fever it was found that an enormous traffic could be maintained to the remotest diggings often without any roads at all. Just at that time too the Government had begun to construct railways, and in these a large amount of capital has been invested. The first railway was commenced in 1850, and by the end of 1877, 598 miles were in operation, having been constructed at a cost of over £9,000,000. On 30th June 1879 there were 718 miles in operation. The net earnings of these lines produced $4\frac{1}{2}$ per cent. on the capital expended. The most important line is that in a south-west direction from Sydney through Goulburn to Wagga Wagga at the head of the Murrumbidgee navigation, with a continuation to Albury on the Victorian frontier which completes the railway communication between Sydney and Melbourne. Another line runs from Sydney across the Blue Mountains to Bathurst with extensions to Blayney and Orange, at heights of more than 2800 feet above the sea. In the N. there is a line from Newcastle to Murrumbidgee, now extended to Tamworth on the Peel River, in a fine pastoral agricultural and mining district. This is intended to be continued by a narrow-gauge line through the table-land of New England to the Clarence River to meet a line of corresponding gauge in Q. Lines are also projected from Tamworth to Tenterfield (220 miles) *via* Barraba, Bundarra, and Wellin-grove; and from Wagga Wagga to Deniliquin (142 miles,) whence a line is already constructed to Echuca on the Victorian frontier; as well as several others both along the coast and inland.

The gauge of all the great lines is 4 feet 8½ inches like that of the British railways. The trunk line from Sydney to Parramatta (14 miles) is double, but from this point the western and southern extensions are single lines. The western line over the Blue Mountains was a great feat of engineering as there is only one available route, and the line has to be zigzagged up and down with gradients sometimes of 1 in 30; and is often carried along the face of precipices, necessitating countless bridges, viaducts, and tunnels. The electric telegraph is also well developed in N.S.W., 11,760 miles having been constructed up to the end of 1878. It extends to every important place in the colony, and there are 154 telegraph stations. There is also communication with V. and S.A., and a submarine cable to N.Z.

AGRICULTURE.—The climate of the colony is highly favourable to the development of the productive properties of the soil. Everything that is grown in England can be grown in N.S.W. Wheat, maize, barley, oats and potatoes are the articles most largely cultivated; and it has been found that tobacco also flourishes. Fruit of all kinds common in England, as well as oranges, lemons, bananas, figs, pine-apples and many other semi-tropical products, are grown in abundance. In the early days of the colony wheat was grown extensively in the valleys of the Hunter and the Hawkesbury and near Campbelltown and Camden; but it is now superseded largely by other crops. It is on the high table-lands to the north that the best wheat-growing districts occur. Orange also in the west, Young in the south-west and Tumut still further south, are centres of extensive tracts of wheat-growing country. These districts are from 2000 to 4000 feet above sea level, and rust which often proves fatal on the coast is unknown in the south. Maize or Indian corn is grown nearly all over the colony, and is largely manufactured into maizena or corn-flour, for which there is a great demand. Attention has lately been directed in many parts of the country to sugar-growing, but the results have not come up to expectation except in the Clarence district. The cultivation of the vine is largely carried on, the wines of Albury on the Murray being famous throughout Australia, and the produce of the Hunter River and New England country having been awarded many medals at the exhibitions of London, Paris and Vienna. The grape flourishes all along the Coast district and is to be found in nearly every garden in the land. Tobacco is grown in the Hunter River district and in small areas on the Clarence and Murrumbidgee. It is still, however, although a steady demand has risen for smoking purposes, much inferior to the Virginia leaf. Barley, oats, rye and other cereal crops are grown on the table-lands, mainly for fodder. Potato disease is unknown in the colony. Arrowroot, olives and capers have been cultivated in the north, but not to any great extent. The orange groves around Sydney and Parramatta are

very prolific, but the finest fruit is perhaps grown on the islands in the lower Hunter River. The agricultural returns for the year ending 31st March 1879 show that there were 37,887 holders of land over one acre (exclusive of those holding land for pastoral purposes) holding 21,471,596 acres, of which 613,642½ acres were under cultivation; 15,903,803½ acres were enclosed, but not under cultivation, and 4,954,150½ acres were unenclosed. Compared with the previous year there is an increase in land under cultivation of 67,086½ acres, and of land enclosed but not tilled 2,111,183½ acres. The area under crop and the yield are reported as under:—Wheat 283,252½ acres, yield 3,439,326 bushels; maize 130,582½ acres, yield 4,420,580 bushels; barley 6152 acres, yield 132,072 bushels; oats 22,129 acres, yield 447,912 bushels; rye 1302 acres, yield 22,563 bushels; millet 254½ acres, yield 5023 bushels; potatoes 16,724½ acres, yield 53,590 tons; arrowroot 27½ acres, yield 47,484 lbs.; sorghum and imphee 47½ acres, yield 1735 cwt.; sugar-cane, productive, 2949½ acres, unproductive, 4489½ acres, yield 18,278,736 lbs. of sugar; tobacco 835 acres, yield 7932½ cwt.; vines 4237½ acres, yield 684,733 gallons of wine, 1102 tons of grapes for table use, besides 2540 gallons of brandy; oranges 4287 acres, yield 3,398,445 doz. Compared with the previous year's returns there is an increase in nearly every instance. The areas under arrowroot and sorghum have been reduced, and there is a consequent decrease in the yield of both these crops. The wine manufactured was also less by 23,698 gallons. The estimated acreage laid out as gardens and orchards is 18,017½. The stock returns for the year ending 31st March 1878 were:—35,661 stock owners, holding 328,150 horses, 2,746,385 cattle, 20,962,244 sheep and 191,677 pigs. For the year 1879 the returns were:—35,435 stock holders, possessing 336,468 horses, 2,771,583 cattle, 23,967,053 sheep, 220,320 pigs. Compared with the previous year's return there is an increase of 8318 horses, 25,198 horned cattle, 3,004,809 sheep and 28,643 pigs.

POPULATION.—The estimated population of the colony on the 31st December 1879 showed a total of 734,282 persons, giving an increase of 40,539 souls, or 5·84 per cent. on the estimated population for the previous year. Males were estimated at 409,665 and females at 324,616, or 55·79 per cent. and 44·21 per cent. respectively, so that males were 11·58 per cent. in excess of females. These figures show a much larger increase to our population than has been recorded for many years past. During the year 1879 there were 5391 marriages celebrated in the colony. The births numbered 26,933 and the deaths 10,200. As compared with the previous year, we find that marriages were in excess by 74, births by 1605, and deaths show a decrease of 563. The number of persons who arrived in the colony seaward during the year 1879 was 44,501, of whom 1979 were children. For every year of the decade we find a steady increase in the population by immigration, except

for the year 1873, when the number was nearly the same as for the previous year. Immigrants at the public expense from the United Kingdom under the assisted regulations numbered 5731, consisting of 2746 males and 2985 females. Of this number adults form 70·61 per cent. and children 29·39 per cent. The native countries and religious persuasions of these immigrants are as follows:—England 2808, Scotland 700, Ireland 1125, other countries 98; total 5731. Protestants 3697, Roman Catholics 2013, other religions 21; total 5731.

CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—The receipts for the year 1879 on behalf of hospitals amounted to £62,247, and also the sum of £7947 on account of new building at Bathurst, which gives a total of £70,194. Of this amount the Colonial Treasury supplied £44,480, and voluntary contributions and other sources £25,714. The number of persons admitted in the year was 6862, and 6046 persons were discharged during the same period. The deaths numbered 755, or 11 per cent. on the admissions. Out-door relief was afforded to 9190 persons. St. Vincent's, in Sydney, was the only hospital which was supported without aid from the Government. Benevolent Asylums show receipts for the year amounting to £25,076, the whole of which, with the exception of £1627, was obtained from the Public Treasury. The admissions for the year were 2356, discharges 1867, and 384 deaths occurred. Relief was afforded in 2540 cases, and also to 16 persons. The returns from these schools give their total receipts for the year as £39,118, obtained as follows:—From Colonial Treasury £30,815, from voluntary contributions, &c., £8303. Five of these institutions were supported entirely by the Government and two by private contributions. The Inspector-General of the Insane furnishes a list of nine establishments. The cost of maintenance for the year, exclusive of expenditure for buildings, repairs, &c., was £68,066. The sum of £1966 was received from relatives and friends for maintenance of patients, and paid into the Treasury. There were 863 patients admitted during the year and 644 discharged, &c. The number of deaths was 123, and there were 2015 inmates at the close of the year. Two other institutions received assistance from the Government to the amount of £1500. The general total amount of receipts on behalf of charitable institutions for the year 1879 was £210,545.

RELIGION.—The number of Church of England ministers for the year 1879 registered under 19 Vic. Nos. 30 and 34 was 219. Salaries and allowances amounted to £8258, and the sum of £3649 was received from church and school estates, making a total of £11,907. The number of churches and chapels was 440, with a total of 70,706 individual sittings. The average attendance is given as 54,855, and all other places used for public worship show an average attendance of 15,695. The ministers of the Roman Catholic Church numbered 173. The amount

received during the year was £6408, viz., £4357 as salaries and allowances, and £2051 from church and school estates. The number of churches and chapels was 282, of individual sittings 40,201, and the average attendance is given as 57,343, exclusive of 7640 at other places used for public worship. There were 75 ministers of the Presbyterian Church of N.S.W. The amount received as salaries and allowances was £1702, and £654 from church and school estates, making a total of £2356. This denomination shows 142 as the number of churches and chapels, with accommodation for 23,600 persons, and an average attendance of 13,355, and 4439 at other places used for public worship. The Wesleyan Methodist Church had a roll of 90 ministers. The amounts received as salaries and allowances and from church and school estates were £1372 and £361 respectively; in all a total of £1733. There were 281 churches and chapels with an average attendance of 24,777, with 39,319 individual sittings. Other places used for public worship show an average attendance of 8488. The remaining denominations received no aid from the State. The total number of Sunday-schools in the colony for the year 1879 was 1285. The number of children on the registers was 92,082 and the average attendance was 69,512. There were 8491 teachers employed.

EDUCATION.—The number of private schools in the colony during the year 1879 was 538, with 18,592 pupils and 1062 teachers. Out of these totals the metropolitan district is shown to have 254 schools, with 10,444 scholars and 562 teachers. The totals of schools &c. under the Council of Education were as follows:—Number of schools 1268, number of scholars 134,624. The total cost for the year was £424,994, of which the sum of £351,766 was paid from the Colonial Treasury (including £2569 from clergy and school estates) and £73,228 were received as fees &c. The total number of scholars receiving instruction during the year 1879 was 155,290.

EDUCATIONAL INSTITUTIONS.—The number of persons who visited the Museum during the year 1879 was 104,594 of which there were 67,990 on week days and 36,604 on Sundays. The expenditure amounted to £5467. The Reference Branch of the Free Public Library received 124,702 visits during the year, and the Lending Branch 27,334. At the close of the year the number of volumes, pamphlets, &c. was 31,701 and 9898 respectively. The number of Schools of Art and institutions of a kindred nature for the year 1879 was 81.

CRIME.—The number of committals to Quarter Sessions for the year was 1437, of trials 1185, of convictions 848 and of acquittals 337. In the Supreme and Circuit Courts there were 1090 convictions. Under the head of Felonies there were 748, and of Misdemeanors 342. The total number of cases in the Magistrates' Courts during the year was 53,870; of these 7611 were discharged for want of prosecution or evidence, 5688 were dismissed on their merits, 38,828 were summarily

convicted and 1743 were committed for trial. The total apprehensions for drunkenness were 17,715, comprising 13,574 males and 4141 females.

TRADE AND COMMERCE.—The imports and exports of the colony for the year 1879 were valued at £27,285,666, of which amount imports formed £14,198,847 and exports £13,086,819. As compared with the previous year imports show a reduction of £570,026 and exports are in excess of the previous year's figures by £120,940. Taking the mean estimated population of the colony for the year the value of imports was £19 17s. 8½d. and of exports £18 6s. 6¾d. per head. The value of the principal export (*wool*) the produce and manufacture of the colony for the year 1879 amounted to £6,491,198, which is an increase of £767,882 on the figures of the previous year. The value of wool exported to the Colony of V. was £2,709,736, and to S.A. £449,803. This trade to these colonies is for the greater part overland and thence no doubt to the nearest port for shipment. The total number of sailing and steam ships which entered the ports of the colony during the year 1879 was 2391; the former class numbering 1479, of an aggregate of 647,124 tons, and the latter 912, with an aggregate of 621,253 tons; the total number of hands employed being 51,141. Outward bound sailing vessels numbered 1500 and steamships 896; in all 2396. The number of vessels built in the colony in the year 1879 was 50; their total measurement being 2335 tons. There were 90 vessels registered, of an aggregate of 9431 tons.

MILLS AND MANUFACTURES.—The number of mills for grinding and dressing grain was 161, with a total of 2580 horse power. By far the larger number of these mills (147) used steam as the motive power. There were 546 persons employed in the mills. The number of mills has been nearly stationary for the last six years, and much lower than the figures of the first four years of the period. The total number of manufactories, works, &c., in the colony which were in operation during the year 1879 was 2499, which gave employment to 24,564 persons, consisting of 21,867 males and 2697 females.

PRODUCTION.—The quantity of gold sent by escort from the several gold-fields of the colony to the mint for coinage during the year 1879 was 70,675 ounces, valued at £264,018. The Western Gold-fields supplied 46,378 ounces, the Southern 18,714 ounces, and the Northern 5586 ounces. As compared with the previous year we find a decrease of 4818 ounces on the total quantity. The total quantity of gold received for coinage amounted to 106,900 ounces, of the value of £396,353. There were 1,583,381 tons of coal raised during the year 1879, valued at £950,879. This sum amounts to a little over 12s. per ton, which is about 4½d. in excess of the previous year's rate. This industry employed 5034 persons. The quantity of shale raised during the year was 32,519 tons, of the value of £66,930, and employment was found for 181

persons. The value of ore and copper produced in the year amounted to £128,246. The weight of ore raised is given at 4572 tons, and there were 104 miners employed. The quantity of tin raised in the year was 4759 tons, of the value of £169,470, and 1992 persons were employed in this industry. The production of iron gave employment to 200 persons, who turned out 200 tons, valued at £10,000.

LIVE STOCK.—The live stock returns for the year 1879 show that there were 360,038 horses, 2,914,210 horned cattle, 29,043,392 sheep and 256,026 pigs. As compared with the previous year we find an increase in each kind of stock as follows:—Horses, 23,570; horned cattle, 142,627; sheep, 5,076,339; and pigs, 35,706. The returns of agriculture show that there were 39,918 holders of land of one acre and upwards. The total area of holding was 22,721,603 acres, of which 20,579,079 acres were freehold and 2,142,524 acres leasehold. The area of leaseholds is exclusive of land leased from the Crown. The extent of land in cultivation comprised 635,641 acres. Land enclosed but not in cultivation embraced an area of 17,578,389 acres, and unenclosed land an area of 4,507,573 acres. The area set apart for each kind of crop under-mentioned and the produce was as follows:—

		Acres.	Produce.
Wheat	{ For grain	233,368	3,613,266 bushels.
	{ For hay	25,280	32,943 tons.
Maize	{ For grain	135,034	4,761,856 bushels.
	{ Green fodder	2,146	
Barley	{ For grain	6,130	131,541 bushels.
	{ For hay	1,838	2,395 tons.
	{ For green fodder	2,784	
Oats...	{ For grain	23,883	516,937 bushels.
	{ For hay	67,876	84,915 tons.
	{ For green fodder	1,933	
Rye ...	{ For grain	1,016	16,873 bushels.
	{ For green fodder	793	
Sown	{ For hay	17,418	42,510 tons.
	{ For green fodder	53,671	

The number of acres set apart for the cultivation of the following crops was:—Potatoes, 19,271 acres; tobacco, 592 acres; sorghum and imphee, 2954 acres; sugar-cane, 7778 acres; arrowroot, 25 acres; vineyards occupied 4266 acres, orangeries, 5106 acres; gardens and orchards, 18,130 acres. The yield of potatoes amounted to 62,228 tons, and of tobacco to 696,793 lbs. The weight of sugar-cane grown was 1,522,390 cwt., and arrowroot produced 38,531 lbs. The quantity of wine and brandy manufactured was 733,576 gallons and 4186 gallons respectively, being the produce of 3091 acres of vines. There are 764 acres of vines used for table purposes, the quantity obtained being 1017 tons. Orangeries yielded 2,763,811 dozens.

MONETARY AND FINANCIAL.—The rate of interest allowed to depositors by the banks in the year 1879 varied from 4 to 4½ and 5 per cent. for three months; for six months the rates ranged from 5 to 5½ and 6 per cent.; and for twelve months from 6 to 6½ and 7 per cent. One banking institution returns its rates for the year from 3 to 7 per cent.

The total amount of coin and bullion in the Sydney branch of the Royal Mint and banks of the colony on 31st December, 1879, was £3,177,583. Of this sum coin represents £3,102,345, and the value of bullion is given as £75,238. The value of notes of the several banks of the colony in circulation on the 31st December amounted to £1,228,056. The return of the New South Wales Savings Bank for the year 1879 shows a business amounting to £1,590,000. The Sydney depositors numbered 27,584, with a total amount of £1,125,556 to their credit. The amount to credit of 7105 country depositors was £285,349. The total amount to credit of all depositors was £1,410,905. The rate of interest paid to depositors on amounts not exceeding £100 was 6 per cent. per annum, and the same rate was charged for money lent on mortgage. At the close of the year 1879 there were 173 Government Savings Banks in the colony. The total balance to credit of depositors amounted to £511,357.

RAILWAYS.—The railway returns for the year 1879 show that the total length of miles of railway was 734½. The total earnings for the year is stated to have amounted to £952,366, and the expenditure for working expenses, £604,721, which leaves the net earnings at £347,645. The number of passengers carried was 443,341; the total earnings amounted to £4416, and the working expenses were £2278, leaving the sum of £2138 as the net amount earned. The number of telegraph stations in the colony at the end of the year 1879 was 273. Telegrams forwarded from these stations during the year numbered 1,175,218, for which the sum of £103,033 was received. The total number of miles of wire constructed was 12,426.

POST-OFFICES.—For the year 1879 the number of post-offices was 884, and there were also 101 receiving-offices. The number of persons employed was 1,452, and the extent of postal lines reached 21,368 miles. The number of letters which passed through was 19,407,300, of which foreign letters numbered 2,442,700; inland 13,772,600; and town 3,192,000. The figures for newspapers are as follows:—Foreign 2,020,000; inland 9,447,100; total 11,467,100. The number of packets and book parcels carried was 595,500. The total income amounted to £171,367, which sum includes the amount of postage contributions of the United Kingdom and the Australian Colonies to the cost of Ocean Mail subsidy. The expenditure is set down as £263,788, which includes the estimated outstanding liabilities of the year. The business of the money order department has been more than doubled during the last ten years. The number of orders issued in the year 1879 was 159,897, representing the sum of £582,423.

IMMIGRATION.—The number of immigrants introduced by the Government and those who arrived under the assisted immigration regulations was 5731. The total outlay in the year on behalf of immigration amounted to £103,765. The various sums which make up this amount are as follows:—

Expenses in England in connection with immigration £38,546; gratuities to surgeon superintendents and others £6073; lodging, maintenance and conveyance, and other expenses of immigrants after arrival £2647; immigration remittances &c. £21,982; passage money £34,187; quarantine expenses £15; miscellaneous £315.

MILITARY.—The general total amount expended for military purposes in the year 1879 was £125,579, which was distributed as follows:—Repairs to buildings and completion of fortifications £40,718; support of permanent and volunteer military forces £76,272. For naval purposes £8589.

MISCELLANEOUS.—The expenditure on railways for the year 1879 amounted to £1,155,136. The total cost of the railways of the colony to the 31st December 1879 was £11,432,987. The sum of £19,109 was expended during the year on telegraph lines. The total sum expended on roads and bridges amounted to £650,929. The harbours and rivers department shows a total outlay of £247,110 for the year under review. The sum of £1,018,261 had been spent up to 31st December 1879. During the year 1879 the colonial architect expended £619,862 on the various public buildings of the colony, and a further sum of £13,884 is shown to have been expended on furniture. The return of the number and amount of transactions in real and leasehold estates &c. registered in the colony during the year 1879 shows that there were 10,556 deeds registered. Of this number there were 9073 representing an amount of £5,275,402, also 402 leases for a period of over three years, the yearly rental of which amounted to £68,599. Assignments for creditors numbered 56, and other miscellaneous deeds 1025. The number of mortgages registered in the year was 2809, securing in the aggregate the sum of £2,461,964. Discharges of mortgages numbered 1235 and represented the sum of £868,524, and there were 223 conveyances under mortgage to the amount of £131,510. The number of preferable liens on wool registered in the year was 1246, securing the sum of £1,005,118, the security consisting of 6,602,742 sheep. The registration of live stock mortgages shows that there were 925 in the year, for which the security given was 3,538,161 sheep, 128,685 cattle, and 9564 horses, the total amount lent being £2,268,850. The discharges of mortgages on live stock were 161 in number for an amount of £1,247,708. The decennial return of liens on growing crops shows total transactions for the year 1879 were 778, which secured the sum of £55,869. The number of applications to bring land under the provisions of the Real Property Act (26 Vic. No. 9) during the year 1879 was 138, which is rather less than one half of the number received ten years since. The total amount of revenue was £8440, of which sum £327 was received on account of the declared value of properties described in applications. The commissioners' fund received £200, and the balance £7912 was paid into consolidated revenue. The number of dealings registered under the Real

Property Act during the year was 6788, representing a value of £5,844,311. Crown grants to the number of 19,655 were registered, the purchase money for which amounted to £3,063,849. The amount of consideration money for transfers under the Real Property Act for the year 1879 was £1,422,547, and the amount secured by mortgage during the same period was £3,414,000. The estimated total value of land under the provisions of this Act to the end of the year 1879 was £14,197,183.

ELECTORS.—The number of electors on the rolls of the several electoral districts at the general election in 1877 was 158,787 exclusive of goldfield electorates. The total number of electors and voters in boroughs and municipal districts of the colony for the municipal year ended 2nd February 1880 was 48,401.

LAND SALES.—The amount received from lands and goldfields of the colony for the year ended 31st December 1879 was £1,061,257. This sum includes £124,162 as balances received on conditional purchases, and £171,148 as interest received on conditional purchases. The general total receipts are stated to be as follows:—

Under Lands Alienation Act	... £1,061,257
Under Lands Occupation Act	... 212,576
Under Goldfields Act	... 18,701
Miscellaneous	... 21,906
	<hr/> £1,314,440

GOVERNMENTAL AND POLITICAL.—The Constitution of N.S.W. (Act 18 and 19 Vict. cap. 54) vests the Government in a Governor representing the Crown, and a Parliament of two Houses, the first called the Legislative Council and the second the Legislative Assembly. The Governor is appointed by the Home authorities, his term of office being seven years. As the vice-regal representative he has the power of assenting to Acts of Parliament or withholding his assent therefrom pending reference to the Imperial authorities. He has also the power of appointing the members of the Upper Chamber, of proroguing and summoning Parliament, and of dissolving the House of Assembly. It is likewise his duty to sign proclamations and to perform various offices minutely set forth in his commission. The Legislative Council consists of a limited number of members nominated by the Crown, the tenure of office being for life, subject to certain conditions (during the session of 1879 resolutions were under discussion for abolishing the nominee principle;) and the Assembly of seventy-three members elected from sixty constituencies, and one from the University. To be eligible for membership for the Lower House a man must be of age, a natural-born subject of the Queen, or if an alien, then he must have been naturalised for five years, and resident for two years before election; the same conditions are required for the voting qualification, which practically amounts to universal suffrage. There

is no property qualification for electors, and the votes are taken by ballot. The Executive is in the hands of a Governor nominated by the Crown, and a Council consisting of the Colonial Secretary, Colonial Treasurer, Minister for Lands, Minister for Mines, Minister for Public Works, and Attorney-General. The Parliaments are triennial. The Imperial laws have effect in the colony, unless superseded by local Acts. All enactments passed by the Houses of Legislature require the sanction of the Queen before becoming legal.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.—For the carrying out of the laws and the settlement of disputes there are a Supreme Court, District Courts, Courts of Quarter Sessions, and Courts of Petty Sessions. The Supreme Court is under the Jurisdiction of four Judges, one being the Chief Justice. The Divorce Court is presided over by the Senior Puisne Judge, and the Admiralty Court by the Chief Justice. Insolvency cases are adjudicated on in the Insolvency Court, which is under the jurisdiction of a Chief Commissioner. The District Courts are presided over by six District Court Judges, who are also Chairmen of the Courts of Quarter Session; in this they are assisted by Justices of the Peace. In all the important towns are stipendiary magistrates, before whom local matters are heard.

HISTORY: (I.) Cook's Discovery.—The history of N.S.W. begins with the discoveries of Cook. This illustrious navigator sailed on his memorable expedition to the Southern Ocean on 26th August 1768, in a barque named the *Endeavour*, to signify the modesty of his intentions. After two years cruising on the west coast of South America and among the South Sea Islands, as they were then designated—during which time he observed the transit of Venus across the disc of the sun and discovered parts of the coast of N.Z. not visited by Tasman—he steered westwards towards the *terra incognita Australis*; which had baffled for upwards of two centuries the combined hydrographic skill of the civilised world to ascertain its configuration. While previous navigators had approached the land from the west and the north, Cook was the first who did so from the east. Hence he calculated his longitude from Greenwich continually west of that standard, until he had arrived at the meridian of 211° W. or as now computed 149° E. On the morning of the 19th April 1770, being in latitude 38° S., his first lieutenant saw the land, which Cook named after him Point Hicks. Steering further west he saw nothing but a low sandy beach which runs for 120 miles in that direction. Turning to the south no land was visible after sailing a considerable distance; this caused him to remark in his journal that he could not determine whether the shore he had discovered was joined to V.D.L. or not. So he steered his course easterly and northerly until he made the great elbow of south-eastern A., where the coast trends to the westward on the one side for 1800 miles and northward on the other for 2000 miles. He

named this point Cape Howe in honour of his admiral. Cook's narrative proceeds:—"We brought to for the night and at four in the morning made sail along shore to the northward. At six the northernmost land in sight bore N.N.W. and we were at this time about four leagues from the shore. At noon we were in lat. $36^{\circ} 51' S.$, long. $209^{\circ} 53' W.$, and about three leagues distant from the shore, the weather being clear gave us a good view of the country which has a very pleasing appearance; it is of a moderate height, diversified by hills and valleys, ridges and plains, interspersed with a few lawns of no great extent, but in general covered with wood; the ascent of the hills and ridges is gentle and the summits are not high. We continued to sail along the shore to the northward with a southerly wind and in the afternoon we saw smoke in several places, by which we knew the country to be inhabited. At six in the evening we shortened sail and sounded; we found forty-four fathom water with a clear sandy bottom, and stood on under an easy sail till twelve, when we brought to for the night and had ninety fathom water. At four in the morning we made sail again at the distance of about five leagues from the land, and at six we were abreast of a high mountain lying near the shore, which on account of its figure I called Mount Dromedary. Under this mountain the shore forms a point to which I gave the name of Point Dromedary, and over it there is a peaked hillock. At five in the evening we were abreast of a point of land which rose in a perpendicular cliff, and which for that reason I called Point Upright. Our lat. was $35^{\circ} 35' S.$, when this point bore from us due west distant about two leagues; in this situation we had about thirty-one fathom water with a sandy bottom. At six in the evening, the wind falling, we hauled off E.N.E. and at this time the northernmost land in sight bore N. by E. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. At midnight being in seventy fathom water we brought to till four in the morning when we made sail in for the land; but at daybreak found our situation nearly the same as it had been at five the evening before, by which it was apparent that we had been driven about three leagues to the southward by a tide or current during the night. After this we steered along the shore N.N.E. with a gentle breeze at S.W., and were so near the land as to distinguish several of the natives upon the beach, who appeared to be of a black or very dark colour. At noon our latitude, by observation, was $35^{\circ} 27' S.$ and longitude $209^{\circ} 23' W.$, Cape Dromedary bore S. $28^{\circ} W.$, distant nineteen leagues, a remarkable peaked hill, which resembled a square dove-house, with a dome at the top, and which for that reason I called the Pigeon House, bore N. $32^{\circ} 30' W.$, and a small low island which lay close under the shore bore N.W., distant about two or three leagues. When I first discovered this island in the morning, I was in hopes, from its appearance, that I should have found shelter for the ship behind it; but when we came near it did not promise security

even for the landing of a boat. I should however have attempted to send a boat on shore if the wind had not veered in that direction, with a large hollow sea rolling in upon the land from the S.E., which indeed had been the case ever since we had been upon it. The coast still continued to be of a moderate height, forming alternately rocky points and sandy beaches; but within, between Mount Dromedary and the Pigeon House, we saw high mountains which except two are covered with wood; these two lie inland behind the Pigeon House, and are remarkably flat at the top, with steep rocky cliffs all round them as far as we could see. The trees, which almost everywhere clothe this country, appear to be large and lofty. We stood to the N.E. till noon the next day, with a gentle breeze at N.W., and then we tacked and stood westward. At this time our lat. by observation was $35^{\circ} 10' S.$, and long. $208^{\circ} 51' W.$ A point of land which I had discovered on St. George's Day, and which therefore I called Cape George, bore W. distant nineteen miles, and the Pigeon House (the lat. and long. of which I found to be $35^{\circ} 19' S.$ and $209^{\circ} 42' W.$) S. $75^{\circ} W.$ We had a fresh breeze at N.W. from noon till three; it then came to the W., when we tacked and stood to the northward. At five in the evening, being about five or six leagues from the shore, with the Pigeon House bearing W.S.W. distant about nine leagues, we had eighty-six fathom water; and at eight, having thunder and lightning with heavy squalls, we brought to in 120 fathom. At three in the morning we made sail again to the northward, having the advantage of a fresh gale at S.W. At noon we were about three or four leagues from the shore and in lat. $34^{\circ} 22' S.$ long. $208^{\circ} 36' W.$ In the course of this day's run from the preceding noon, which was forty-five miles N.E., we saw smoke in several places near the beach. About two leagues to the northward of Cape George the shore seemed to form a bay, which promised shelter from the N.E. winds, but as the wind was with us it was not in my power to look into it without beating up, which would have cost me more time than I was willing to spare. The north point of this bay, on account of its figure, I named Long Nose; its lat. is $35^{\circ} 6'$ and about eight leagues N. of it there lies a point, which from the colour of the land about it I called Red Point; its lat. is $34^{\circ} 29'$ and long. $208^{\circ} 45' W.$ To the N.W. of Red Point and a little way inland stands a round hill, the top of which looks like the crown of a hat. In the afternoon of this day we had a light breeze at N.N.W. till five in the evening when it fell calm. Before it was dark we saw smoke in several places along the shore, and a fire two or three times afterwards. During the night we lay becalmed, driving in before the sea till one in the morning, when we got a breeze from the land, with which we steered N.E., being then in thirty-eight fathom. At noon it veered to N.E. by N., and we were then in lat. $34^{\circ} 10' S.$ long. $208^{\circ} 27' W.$; the land was distant

about five leagues and extended from S. 37 W. to N. $\frac{1}{2}$ E. In this latitude there are some white cliffs which rise perpendicularly from the sea to a considerable height. We stood off the shore till two o'clock and then tacked and stood in till six, when we were within four or five miles of it, and at that distance had fifty fathom water. The extremities of the land bore from S. 28 W. to N. 25° 30' E. We now tacked and stood off till twelve, then tacked and stood in again till four in the morning, when we made a trip off till daylight; and during all this time we lost ground owing to the variableness of the winds. We continued at the distance of between four and five miles from the shore till the afternoon, when we came within two miles, and I then hoisted out the pinnace and yawl to attempt a landing, but the pinnace proved to be so leaky that I was obliged to hoist her in again. At this time we saw several of the natives walking briskly along the shore, four of whom carried a small canoe upon their shoulders. We flattered ourselves that they were going to put her into the water and come off to the ship, but finding ourselves disappointed I determined to go on shore in the yawl with as many as it would carry. I embarked therefore with only Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, Tupia, and four rowers; we pulled for that part of the shore where the Indians appeared, near which four small canoes were lying at the water's edge. The Indians sat down upon the rocks, and seemed to wait for our landing; but to our great regret, when we came within about a quarter of a mile they ran away into the woods. We determined however to go ashore and endeavour to procure an interview; but in this we were again disappointed, for we found so great a surf beating upon every part of the beach that landing with our little boat was altogether impracticable. We were therefore obliged to be content with gazing at such objects as presented themselves from the water. The canoes from a near view seemed very much to resemble those of the smaller sort at N.Z. We observed that among the trees on shore, which were not very large, there was no underwood, and could distinguish that many of them were of the palm kind, and some of them cabbage trees; after many a wishful look we were obliged to return with our curiosity rather excited than satisfied, and about five in the evening got on board the ship. About this time it fell calm, and our situation was by no means agreeable. We were now not more than a mile and a half from the shore, and within some breakers which lay to the southward; but happily a light breeze came off the land and carried us out of danger. With this breeze we stood to the northward, and at daybreak we discovered a bay which seemed to be well sheltered from all winds, and into which therefore I determined to go with the ship. The pinnace being repaired, I sent her with the master to sound the entrance, while I kept turning up, having the wind right out. At noon the mouth of the bay

bore N.N.W. distant about a mile, and seeing a smoke on the shore we directed our glasses to the spot, and soon discovered ten people who upon our nearer approach left their fire and retired to a little eminence whence they could conveniently observe our motions. Soon after two canoes, each having two men on board came to the shore just under the eminence, and the men joined the rest on the top of it. The pinnace which had been sent ahead to sound now approached the place, upon which all the Indians retired farther up the hill except one who hid himself among some rocks near the landing place. As the pinnace proceeded along the shore most of the people took the same route and kept abreast of her at a distance. When she came back the master told us that in a cove a little within the harbour some of them had come down to the beach and invited him to land by many signs and words of which he knew not the meaning; but that all of them were armed with long pikes and a wooden weapon shaped somewhat like a cimeter. The Indians who had not followed the boat, seeing the ship approach, used many threatening gestures and brandished their weapons, particularly two who made a very singular appearance, for their faces seemed to have been dusted with a white powder and their bodies painted with broad streaks of the same colour, which passing obliquely over their breasts and backs looked not unlike the cross-belts worn by our soldiers; the same kind of streaks were also drawn round their legs and thighs like broad garters. Each of these men held in his hand the weapon that had been described to us as like a cimeter, which appeared to be about two feet and a half long; and they seemed to talk to each other with great earnestness. We continued to stand into the bay and early in the afternoon anchored under the south shore about two miles within the entrance in six-fathom water, the south point bearing S.E. and the north point E. As we came in we saw on both points of the bay a few huts and several of the natives, men, women and children. Under the south head we saw four small canoes with each one man on board, who were very busily employed in striking fish with a long pike or spear. They ventured almost into the surf and were so intent upon what they were doing that although the ship passed within a quarter of a mile of them they scarcely turned their eyes toward her; possibly being deafened by the surf, and their attention wholly fixed upon their business or sport they neither saw nor heard her go past them. The place where the ship had anchored was abreast of a small village consisting of about six or eight houses, and while we were preparing to hoist out the boat we saw an old woman followed by three children come out of the wood; she was loaded with firewood, and each of the children had also its little burden. When she came to the houses three more children younger than the others came out to meet her. She often looked at the ship, but expressed neither fear nor surprise.

In a short time she kindled a fire and the four canoes came in from fishing. The men landed, and having hauled up their boats, began to dress their dinner, to all appearance wholly unconcerned about us, though we were within half a mile of them. We thought it remarkable that of all the people we had yet seen, not one had the least appearance of clothing, the old woman herself being destitute even of a fig leaf." The following is his account of Botany Bay and of what took place there :—"After dinner the boats were manned and we set out from the ship, having *Tupia* of our party. We intended to land where we saw the people and began to hope that as they had so little regarded the ship's coming into the bay they would as little regard our coming on shore. In this however we were disappointed; for as soon as we approached the rocks two of the men came down upon them to dispute our landing and the rest ran away. Each of the two champions was armed with a lance about ten feet long and a short stick, which he seemed to handle as if it was a machine to assist him in managing or throwing the lance. They called to us in a very loud tone and in a harsh dissonant language, of which neither we nor *Tupia* understood a single word; they brandished their weapons and seemed resolved to defend their coast to the uttermost, though they were but two and we were forty. I could not but admire their courage and being very unwilling that hostilities should commence with such inequality of force between us I ordered the boat to lie upon her oars; we then parlied by signs for about a quarter of an hour, and to bespeak their good-will I threw them nails, beads and other trifles which they took up and seemed to be well pleased with. I then made signs that I wanted water, and by all the means I could devise endeavoured to convince them that we would do them no harm. They now waved to us and I was willing to interpret it as an invitation; but upon our putting the boat in they came again to oppose us. One appeared to be a youth about nineteen or twenty and the other a man of middle age; as I had now no other resource I fired a musket between them. Upon the report the youngest dropped a bundle of lances upon the rock, but recollecting himself in an instant he snatched them up again with great haste. A stone was then thrown at us upon which I ordered a musket to be fired with small shot which struck the eldest upon the legs and he immediately ran to one of the houses which was distant about a hundred yards. I now hoped that our contest was over and we immediately landed; but we had scarcely left the boat when he returned, and we then perceived that he had left the rock only to fetch a shield or target for his defence. As soon as he came up he threw a lance at us and his comrade another; they fell where we stood thickest, but happily hurt nobody. A third musket with small shot was then fired at them, upon which one of them threw another lance and both immediately ran away; if we had

pursued we might probably have taken one of them; but Mr. Banks suggesting that the lances might be poisoned I thought it not prudent to venture into the woods. We repaired immediately to the huts in one of which we found the children who had hidden themselves behind a shield and some bark; we peeped at them, but left them in their retreat without their knowing that they had been discovered, and we threw into the house when we went away some beads, ribbons, pieces of cloth and other presents which we hoped would procure us the good-will of the inhabitants when they should return; but the lances which we found lying about we took away with us to the number of about fifty; they were from six to fifteen feet long and all of them had four prongs in the manner of a fiss-gig each of which was pointed with fish-bone and very sharp; we observed that they were smeared with a viscous substance of a green colour which favoured the opinion of their being poisoned though we afterwards discovered that it was a mistake; they appeared by the seaweed that we found sticking to them to have been used in striking fish. Upon examining the canoes that lay upon the beach we found them to be the worst we had ever seen; they were between twelve and fourteen feet long and made of the bark of a tree in one piece which was drawn together and tied up at each end, the middle being kept open by sticks, which were placed across them from gunwale to gunwale as thwarts. We then searched for fresh water but found none, except in a small hole which had been dug in the sand. Having re-embarked in our boat we deposited our lances on board the ship, and then went over to the north point of the bay where we had seen several of the inhabitants when we were entering it, but which we now found totally deserted. Here however we found fresh water which trickled down from the top of the rocks and stood in pools among the hollows at the bottom; but it was situated so as not to be procured for our use without difficulty. In the morning therefore I sent a party of men to that part of the shore where we first landed, with orders to dig holes in the sand where the water might gather; but going ashore myself with the gentlemen soon afterwards we found, upon a more diligent search, a small stream more than sufficient for our purpose. Upon visiting the hut where we had seen the children we were greatly mortified to find that the beads and ribbons which we had left there the night before had not been moved from their places, and that not an Indian was to be seen. Having sent some empty water casks on shore and left a party of men to cut wood, I went myself in the pinnace to sound and examine the bay. During my excursion I saw several of the natives, but they all fled at my approach. In one of the places where I landed I found several small fires and fresh muscles broiling upon them. Here also I found some of the largest oyster shells I had ever seen. As soon as the wooders and waterers came on board to dinner, ten or twelve of

the natives came down to the place and looked with great attention and curiosity at the casks, but did not touch them; they took away however the canoes which lay near the landing-place, and again disappeared. In the afternoon, when our people were again ashore, sixteen or eighteen Indians, all armed, came boldly within about a hundred yards of them and then stopped. Two of them advanced somewhat nearer, and Mr. Hicks, who commanded the party on shore, with another, advanced to meet them, holding out presents to them as he approached and expressing kindness and amity by every sign he could think of, but all without effect; for before he could get up with them they retired, and it would have answered no purpose to pursue. In the evening I went with Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander to a sandy cove on the north side of the bay, where in three or four hauls with the seine we took about three hundred-weight of fish, which was equally divided among the ship's company. The next morning before daybreak the Indians came down to the houses that were abreast of the ship, and were heard frequently to shout very loud. As soon as it was light they were seen walking along the beach, and soon after they retired to the woods, where at the distance of about a mile from the shore they kindled several fires. Our people went ashore as usual, and with them Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander, who in search of plants repaired to the woods. Our men who were employed in cutting grass being the farthest removed from the main body of the people, a company of fourteen or fifteen Indians advanced towards them, having sticks in their hands, which according to the report of the sergeant of marines shone like a musket. The grass-cutters upon seeing them approach drew together and repaired to the main body. The Indians being encouraged by this appearance of a flight pursued them. They stopped however when they were within about a furlong of them, and after shouting several times went back into the woods. In the evening they came again in the same manner, stopped at the same distance, shouted and retired. I followed them myself alone and unarmed for a considerable way along the shore, but I could not prevail upon them to stop. This day Mr. Green took the sun's meridian altitude a little within the south entrance of the bay, which gave the latitude 34° S. The variation of the needle was $11^{\circ} 3'$ E. Early the next morning the body of Forby Sutherland, one of our seamen who died the evening before, was buried near the watering place, and from this incident I called the south point of this bay Sutherland Point. This day we resolved to make an excursion into the country. Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, myself and seven others properly accoutred for the expedition, set out and repaired first to the huts near the watering-place, whither some of the natives continued every day to resort; and though the little presents which we had left there before had not yet been taken away, we left others of somewhat more value, consisting

of cloth, looking-glasses, combs and beads, and then went up into the country. We found the soil to be either swamp or light sand, and the face of the country finely diversified by wood and lawn. The trees are tall, straight and without underwood, standing at such a distance from each other that the whole country, at least where the swamps do not render it incapable of cultivation, might be cultivated without cutting down one of them. Between the trees the ground is covered with grass, of which there is great abundance, growing in tufts about as big as can well be grasped in the hand, which stand very close to each other. We saw many houses of the inhabitants and places where they had slept upon the grass without any shelter; but we saw only one of the people, who the moment he discovered us ran away. At all these places we left presents, hoping that at length they might produce confidence and good-will. We had a transient and imperfect view of a quadruped about as big as a rabbit. Mr. Banks' greyhound, which was with us, got sight of it and would probably have caught it, but the moment he set off he lamed himself against a stump which lay concealed in the long grass. We afterwards saw the dung of an animal which fed upon grass, and which we judged could not be less than a deer, and the foot-steps of another which was clawed like a dog, and seemed to be about as big as a wolf. We also tracked a small animal whose foot resembled that of a polecat or weasel. The trees over our head abounded with birds of various kinds, among which were many of exquisite beauty, particularly loriquets and cockatoos, which flew in flocks of several scores together. We found some wood which had been felled by the natives with a blunt instrument, and some that had been barked. The trees were not of many species; among others there was a large one which yielded a gum not unlike the *sanguis draconis*; and in some of them steps had been cut at about three feet distance from each other for the convenience of climbing them. From this excursion we returned between three and four o'clock, and having dined on board we went ashore again at the watering-place, where a party of men were filling casks. Mr. Gore, the second lieutenant, had been sent out in the morning with a boat to dredge for oysters at the head of the bay; when he had performed this service he went ashore, and having taken a midshipman with him and sent the boat away, set out to join the waterers by land. In this way he fell in with a body of two-and-twenty Indians, who followed him and were often not more than twenty yards distant. When Mr. Gore perceived them so near he stopped and faced about, upon which they stopped also, and when he went on again continued their pursuit. They did not however attack him, though they were all armed with lances, and he and the midshipman got in safety to the watering-place. The Indians who had slackened their pursuit when they came in sight of the main body of our people halted at about the distance of a quarter of

a mile, where they stood still. Mr. Monkhouse and two or three of the waterers took it into their heads to march up to them; but seeing the Indians keep their ground till they came pretty near them, they were seized with a sudden fear very common to the rash and foolhardy, and made a hasty retreat. This step, which insured the danger that it was taken to avoid encouraged the Indians, and four of them running forward, discharged their lances at the fugitives with such force, that flying no less than forty yards, they went beyond them. As the Indians did not pursue, our people, recovering their spirits, stopped to collect the lances when they came up to the place where they lay; upon which the Indians in their turn began to retire. Just at this time I came up with Mr. Banks, Dr. Solander, and Tupia; and being desirous to convince the Indians that we were neither afraid of them, nor intended them any mischief, we advanced towards them, making signs of expostulation and entreaty; but they could not be persuaded to wait till we could come up. Mr. Gore told us that he had seen some of them up the bay, who had invited him by signs to come on shore, which he, certainly with great prudence, declined. The morning of the next day was so rainy that we were all glad to stay on board. In the afternoon however it cleared up, and we made another excursion along the sea-coast to the southward: we went ashore, and Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander gathered many plants; but besides these we saw nothing worthy of notice. At our first entering the woods we met with three natives, who instantly ran away. More of them were seen by some of the people, but they all disappeared with great precipitation as soon as they found that they were discovered. By the boldness of these people at our first landing, and the terror that seized them at the sight of us afterwards, it appears that they were sufficiently intimidated by our firearms; not that we had any reason to think the people much hurt by the small shot which we were obliged to fire at them when they attacked us at our coming out of the boat, but they had probably seen the effects of them, from their lurking-places, upon the birds that we had shot. Tupia, who was now become a good marksman, frequently strayed from us to shoot parrots; and he had told us that while he was thus employed he had once met with nine Indians, who, as soon as they perceived he saw them, ran from him in great confusion and terror. The next day twelve canoes, in each of which was a single Indian, came towards the watering-place, and were within half a mile of it a considerable time. They were employed in striking fish, upon which, like others that we had seen before, they were so intent that they seemed to regard nothing else. It happened however that a party of our people were out shooting near the place, and one of the men, whose curiosity might at length perhaps be roused by the report of the fowling-pieces, was observed to haul up his canoe upon the beach and go

towards the shooting party. In something more than a quarter of an hour he returned, launched his canoe, and went off in her to his companions. This incident makes it probable that the natives acquired a knowledge of the destructive power of our firearms when we knew nothing of the matter, for this man was not seen by any of the party whose operations he had reconnoitred. While Mr. Banks was gathering plants near the watering-place, I went with Dr. Solander and Mr. Monkhouse to the head of the bay, that I might examine that part of the country, and make farther attempts to form some connection with the natives. In our way we met with eleven or twelve small canoes, with each a man in it, probably the same that were afterwards abreast of the shore, who all made into shoal water upon our approach. We met other Indians on shore the first time we landed, who instantly took to their canoes and paddled away. We went up the country to some distance and found the face of it nearly the same as that which has been described already, but the soil was much richer; for instead of sand I found a deep black mould, which I thought very fit for the production of grain of any kind. In the woods we found a tree which bore fruit that in colour and shape resembled a cherry: the juice had an agreeable tartness though but little flavour. We found also interspersed some of the finest meadows in the world: some places however were rocky, but these were comparatively few: the stone is sandy and might be used with advantage for building. When we returned to the boat we saw some smoke upon another part of the coast, and went thither in hopes of meeting with the people, but at our approach these also ran away. We found six small canoes and six fires very near the beach with some muscles roasting upon them and a few oysters lying near: by this we judged that there had been one man in each canoe, who having picked up some shell fish had come ashore to eat it and made his separate fire for that purpose. We tasted of their cheer and left them in return some strings of beads and other things which we thought would please them. At the foot of a tree in this place we found a small well of fresh water supplied by a spring, and the day being now far spent we returned to the ship. In the evening Mr. Banks made a little excursion with his gun and found such a number of quails resembling those in England that he might have shot as many as he pleased, but his object was variety and not number. The next morning as the wind would not permit me to sail I sent out several parties into the country to try again whether some intercourse could not be established with the natives. A midshipman who belonged to one of these parties having straggled a long way from his companions met with a very old man and woman and some little children; they were sitting under a tree by the water side, and neither party saw the other till they were close together. The Indians showed signs of fear but did not attempt

to run away. The man happened to have nothing to give them but a parrot that he had shot ; this he offered, but they refused to accept it, withdrawing themselves from his hand either through fear or aversion. His stay with them was but short, for he saw several canoes near the beach fishing, and being alone he feared they might come ashore and attack him. He said that these people were very dark-coloured but not black, that the man and woman appeared to be very old, being both grey-headed, that the hair of the man's head was bushy and his beard long and rough, that the woman's hair was cropped short, and both of them were stark naked. Mr. Monkhouse the surgeon and one of the men who were with another party near the watering place also strayed from their companions, and as they were coming out of a thicket observed six Indians standing together at the distance of about fifty yards. One of them pronounced a word very loud which was supposed to be a signal, for a lance was immediately thrown at him out of the wood, which very narrowly missed him. When the Indians saw that the weapon had not taken effect they ran away with the greatest precipitation ; but on turning about towards the place whence the lance had been thrown he saw a young Indian whom he judged to be about nineteen or twenty years old come down from a tree, and he also ran away with such speed as made it hopeless to follow him. Mr. Monkhouse was of opinion that he had been watched by these Indians in his passage through the thicket and that the youth had been stationed in the tree to discharge the lance at him upon a signal as he should come by ; but however this may be there could be no doubt but that he was the person who threw the lance. In the afternoon I went myself with a party over to the north shore, and while some of our people were hauling the seine we made an excursion a few miles into the country, proceeding afterwards in the direction of the coast. We found this place without wood and somewhat resembling our moors in England. The surface of the ground however was covered with a thin brush of plants about as high as the knees. The hills near the coast are low, but others rise behind them, increasing by a gradual ascent to a considerable distance with marshes and morasses between. When we returned to the boat we found that our people had caught with the seine a great number of small fish which are well known in the West Indies, and which our sailors call leather-jackets because their skin is remarkably thick. I had sent the second lieutenant out in the yawl a striking, and when we got back to the ship we found that he also had been very successful. He had observed that the large sting-rays, of which there is great plenty in the bay, followed the flowing tide into very shallow water ; he therefore took the opportunity of flood and struck several in not more than two or three feet water. One of them weighed no less than two hundred and forty pounds after his entrails were taken out. The

next morning as the wind still continued northerly I sent out the yawl again and the people struck one still larger, for when his entrails were taken out he weighed three hundred and thirty-six pounds. The great quantity of plants which Mr. Banks and Dr. Solander collected in this place induced me to give it the name of Botany Bay. It is situated in lat. 34° S., long. $208^{\circ} 37'$ W. It is capacious, safe and convenient, and may be known by the land on the sea-coast which is nearly level and of a moderate height ; in general higher than it is farther inland with steep rocky cliffs next the sea, which have the appearance of a long island lying close under the shore. The harbour lies about the middle of this land, and in approaching it from the southward is discovered before the ship comes abreast of it ; but from the northward it is not discovered so soon ; the entrance is a little more than a quarter of a mile broad and lies in W.N.W. To sail into it the southern shore should be kept on the larboard till the ship is within a small bare island which lies close under the north shore ; within this island the deepest water on that side is seven fathom shallowing to five a good way up. At a considerable distance from the south shore there is a shoal reaching from the inner south point quite to the head of the harbour ; but over towards the north and north-west shore there is a channel of twelve or fourteen feet at low water for three or four leagues up to a place where there is three or four fathom ; but here I found very little fresh water. We anchored near the south shore about a mile within the entrance for the convenience of sailing with a southerly wind, and because I thought it the best situation for watering ; but I afterwards found a very fine stream on the north shore in the first sandy cove within the island, before which a ship might lie almost land-locked and procure wood as well as water in great abundance. Wood indeed is everywhere plenty, but I saw only two kinds which may be considered as timber. These trees are as large or larger than the English oak, and one of them has not a very different appearance ; this is the same that yields the reddish gum like *sanguis draconis*, and the wood is heavy, hard and dark-coloured like lignum vitæ ; the other grows tall and straight something like the pine, and the wood of this, which has some resemblance to the live oak of America, is also hard and heavy. There are a few shrubs and several kinds of the palm ; mangroves also grow in great plenty near the head of the bay. The country in general is level, low, and woody as far as we could see. The woods as I have before observed abound with birds of exquisite beauty, particularly of the parrot kind ; we found also crows here exactly the same as those in England. About the head of the harbour where there are large flats of sand and mud there is great plenty of water-fowl, most of which were altogether unknown to us ; one of the most remarkable was black and white, much larger than a swan and in shape somewhat

resembling a pelican. On these banks of sand and mud there are great quantities of oysters, muscles, cockles and other shell-fish, which seem to be the principal subsistence of the inhabitants who go into shoal water with their little canoes and pick them out with their hands. We did not observe that they ate any of them raw, nor do they always go on shore to dress them for they have frequently fires in their canoes for that purpose. They do not however subsist wholly upon this food for they catch a variety of other fish, some of which they strike with gigs and some they take with hook and line. All the inhabitants that we saw were stark naked; they did not appear to be numerous nor to live in societies, but like other animals were scattered about along the coast and in the woods. Of their manner of life however we could know but little, as we were never able to form the least connection with them; after the first contest at our landing they would never come near enough to parley, nor did they touch a single article of all that we had left at their huts and the places they frequented on purpose for them to take away. During my stay in this harbour I caused the English colours to be displayed on shore every day, and the ship's name and the date of the year to be inscribed upon one of the trees near the watering-place. It is high-water here at the full and change of the moon about eight o'clock, and the tide rises and falls perpendicularly between four and five feet." The place where Cook landed on the shores of Botany Bay, being one of the few spots in Australia to which any historical interest attaches, is worthy of being marked by some appropriate memorial. About sixty years ago an attempt was made on the part of a few gentlemen of Sydney who called themselves the Philosophical Society of Australasia, to commemorate Cook's discovery of the colony and to mark the spot where he landed. At the place where it was supposed Cook first stepped on shore they affixed to the rock a brass plate on which the following singular inscription was engraved:—"A.D. MDCLXX. Under the auspices of British Science these shores were discovered by James Cook and Joseph Banks, the Columbus and the Mæcenas of their time. This spot once saw them ardent in the pursuit of knowledge. Now to their memory this tablet is inscribed in the first year of the Philosophical Society of Australasia. Sir Thomas Brisbane, K.C.B., and F.R.S.L. and E., Corresponding Member of the Institute of France, President." The plate on which this inscription was engraved was fastened to the rock about fifteen feet above high water mark and there it still remains. The first year of the Philosophical Society of Australasia means A.D. 1822. On 20th March in that year the brass plate was placed at Botany Bay. An attempt was made to find an aboriginal native who had seen and remembered Cook's landing fifty-two years previously. And an old man was found who was said to have been the very youth who opposed

Cook's landing so vigorously. But the grounds for the belief that the old man of 1822 was identical with the young man of 1770 were somewhat vague and shadowy. A native of Sydney who had frequent opportunities in his youth in the early part of the present century of acquiring information from the Botany Bay blacks, and who always took much interest in all that related to them, was able to glean some information from their old men on the subject of Cook's landing. As the *Endeavour* was the first ship, and Cook and his crew the first white men they had ever seen, it is reasonable to suppose that the circumstance must have made a strong impression upon their memory. The gentleman referred to states that the aborigines known to have been contemporary with Captain Cook's landing were Yadyer, Bullmayne, Dolmoik, Kurrul, Bluitt and Potta (two brothers.) All agreed in their statements respecting this great event. They said that when the ship first appeared off the coast they were on the north shore of the bay, at a spot called by the aborigines Kooriwall, but afterwards known to the colonists as the Frenchman's Gardens. Yadyer said that on seeing the ship he went down to a corner of the beach, where a portion of the tribe were encamped, and told them what he had seen. They all thereupon went up the hill to look. Some of them thought the ship was a large bird. But as the object of their amazement approached the heads of the bay, they came to the conclusion that it was a large canoe with people on board. Shortly afterwards they saw two boats leave the ship and go to the rocks at Kundel, the point where the brass plate was put up in 1822. Three persons from one of the boats landed just below that point. The boats went round the rock into a little harbour, and the three persons who had landed went round in the same direction to a spot within forty yards of the run of water which flows close to the south side of where Kundel House now stands. The boats landed at a small gap where there was a fine run of fresh water. After staying there some time the boats came over to the north side of Botany Bay, and landed on the beach at Kooriwall. Three persons then landed from one of the boats; one of these had on his head something like a "bang-alle." [The bang-alle is a vessel used by the blacks for carrying water, made of bark drawn together at the ends and fastened with thongs so as to resemble a cocked hat.] These three men walked along the beach, the boats pulling close to the land till they came to Bumbera Point, half a mile from Kooriwall due north. The blackfellows made their appearance on the bank above the beach with spears and wommeras, but made no attempt to throw a spear at the strangers. When the aborigines appeared the second time two guns were fired from the boats, on which they drew back into the bush. When the three persons who landed came to Bumbera Point they got into the boat, and after staying there a short time went back to the ship, which was then anchored just inside the heads,

Either that evening or the following morning two boats came up again to the north side at Bumbura Point, and hauled a seine twice and then returned to the ships. Such is the report of the landing of Captain Cook as told by the aborigines about forty years afterwards. The *Endeavour* sailed from Botany Bay on the 6th May, and at noon says Cook "we were abreast the entrance of a bay or harbour in which there appeared to be good anchorage, and which I called Port Jackson." They did not enter but continued their voyage along the coast, and at sunset discovered a bay, which from the irregular and broken appearance of the land was named Broken Bay. The next place named was Port Stephens; the entrance to the River Hunter, one of the largest streams of Eastern Australia, having been passed without notice. Cape Hawke, the hills called the Three Brothers, Smokey Cape, Cape Byron, Mount Warning, and Point Danger, were all seen and their present names conferred by Cook within the next few days. Point Danger, in 28° 8' south, is the northern extremity of the present colony of N. S. W. On 16th May the ships still keeping near to the coast, Cook writes:—"The shore forms a wide open bay, which I called Moreton's Bay, in the bottom of which the land is so low that I could but just see it from the topmast head." The name of Cape Moreton was also given, "it being the north point of Moreton's Bay." The hills called the Glass-houses, Indian Head, Breaksea Spit, Harvey's Bay, and Bustard Bay were also seen and named during the next few days. At the last bay they landed and shot a large bird which weighed seventeen pounds and a half, and was a species of bustard. "We all agreed," he continues, "that this was the best bird we had eaten since we left England; and in honour of it we called this inlet Bustard Bay." Standing along the coast, Cape Capricorn, Cape Manifold, Kepple Bay, Cape Townshend, Broad Sound, Cape Palmerston, Cape Hillsborough, Repulse Bay, Cape Gloucester, Cape Upstart, Edgumbe Bay (now Port Denison,) Cape Cleaveland, Halifax Bay, Rockingham Bay and other remarkable bays and headlands were seen and the names given by which they are still known. The part of the coast which they were now on was a very dangerous one, and the crew of the *Endeavour* met and surmounted difficulties of no ordinary kind. Their ship on one occasion struck suddenly upon a coral rock and was in danger of sinking. Of the means by which this was prevented Cook's narrative gives the following interesting account:—"To those only who have waited in a state of such suspense death has approached in all his terrors, and as the dreadful moment that was to determine our fate came on every one saw his own sensations pictured in the countenance of his companions; however the capstan and windlass were manned with as many hands as could be spared from the pumps, and the ship floating about twenty minutes after ten o'clock the effort was made and she was heaved into deep water. It was however impossible long

to continue the labour by which the pumps had been made to draw upon the leak, and as the exact situation of it could not be discovered we had no hope of stopping it within. In this situation Mr. Monkhouse, one of my midshipmen, came to me and proposed an experiment that he had once used on board a merchant ship which sprung a leak that admitted above four feet of water an hour, and which by this experiment was brought safely from Virginia to London; the master having such confidence in it that he took her out of the harbour knowing her condition and did not think it worth while to wait till the leak could be otherwise stopped. To this man therefore the care of the expedient, which is called fothering the ship, was immediately committed, four or five of the people being appointed to assist him, and he performed it in this manner: he took a lower studding-sail, and having mixed together a large quantity of oakum and wool chopped pretty small, he stitched it down in handfuls upon the sail as lightly as possible, and over this he spread the dung of our sheep and other filth. When the sail was thus prepared it was hauled under the ship's bottom by ropes, which kept it extended, and when it came under the leak the suction which carried in the water carried in with it the oakum and wool from the surface of the sail which in other parts the water was not sufficiently agitated to wash off. By the success of this expedient our leak was so far reduced that instead of gaining upon three pumps it was easily kept under with one. On the 17th June the ship having been run aground in a harbour where the tide left her at low water it was discovered that 'the rollers made their way through four planks and even into the timbers; three more planks were much damaged, and the appearance of these breaches was very extraordinary; there was not a splinter to be seen, but all was as smooth as if the whole had been cut away by an instrument. One of the holes, which was big enough to have sunk us if we had had eight pumps instead of four and been able to keep them incessantly going, was in a great measure plugged up by a fragment of the rock, which after having made the hole was left sticking in it; so that the water which had at first gained upon the pumps was what came in at the interstices between the stone and the edges of the hole that received it. We found also several pieces of the fothering which had made their way between the timbers and in a great measure stopped those parts of the leak which the stone had left open." To this harbour the name of Endeavour Bay was given, and here Cook remained refitting and obtaining information from June until the following August. During their stay here the first kangaroos were seen, of which circumstance Cook gives the following account:—"With the first dawn they set out in search of game, and in a walk of many miles they saw four animals of the same kind, two of which Mr. Banks' greyhound chased, but they threw him out at a great distance

by leaping over the long thick grass which prevented his running : this animal was observed not to run upon four legs but to bound or hop forward upon two. It is called by the natives kangaroo." They had at first great difficulty in inducing the natives to come near them, but at last they grew bolder, and at length became mischievous. Cook's narrative proceeds :—"On the 19th, in the morning, we were visited by ten of the natives, the greater part from the other side of the river, where we saw six or seven more, most of them women, and like all the rest of the people we had seen in this country they were stark naked. Our guests brought with them a greater number of lances than they had ever done before, and having laid them up in a tree they set a man and a boy to watch them ; the rest then came on board and we soon perceived that they had determined to get one of our turtle, which was probably as great a dainty to them as to us. They first asked us by signs to give them one, and being refused they expressed both by looks and gestures great disappointment and anger. At this time we happened to have no victuals dressed ; but I offered one of them some biscuit which he snatched and threw overboard with great disdain. One of them renewed his request to Mr. Banks, and upon a refusal stamped with his foot and pushed him from him in a transport of resentment and indignation. Having applied by turns to almost every person who appeared to have any command in the ship without success they suddenly seized two of the turtles and dragged them towards the side of the ship where their canoe lay. Our people soon forced them out of their hands and replaced them with the rest. They would not however relinquish their enterprise, but made several other attempts of the same kind, in all which being equally disappointed they suddenly leaped into their canoe in a rage and began to paddle towards the shore. At the same time I went into the boat with Mr. Banks and five or six of the ship's crew, and we got ashore before them, where many more of our people were already engaged in various employments. As soon as they landed they seized their arms, and before we were aware of their design they snatched a brand from under a pitch-kettle which was boiling, and making a circuit to the windward of the few things we had on shore they set fire to the grass in their way with surprising quickness and dexterity. The grass which was five or six feet high and as dry as stubble burnt with amazing fury, and the fire made a rapid progress towards a tent of Mr. Banks' which had been set up for Tupia when he was sick, taking in its course a sow and pigs, one of which it scorched to death. Mr. Banks leaped into a boat and fetched some people from on board just time enough to save his tent by hauling it down upon the beach ; but the smith's forge, at least such part of it as would burn was consumed. While this was doing the Indians went to a place at some distance where several of our people were washing

and where our nets, among which was the seine and a great quantity of linen were laid out to dry ; here they again set fire to the grass, entirely disregarding both threats and entreaties. We were therefore obliged to discharge a musket loaded with small shot at one of them, which drew blood at the distance of about forty yards, and thus putting them to flight we extinguished the fire at this place before it had made much progress ; but where the grass had been first kindled it spread into the woods to a great distance. As the Indians were still in sight I fired a musket charged with ball abreast of them among the mangroves to convince them that they were not yet out of our reach. Upon hearing the ball they quickened their pace and we soon lost sight of them. We thought they would now give us no more trouble ; but soon after we heard their voices in the woods and perceived that they came nearer and nearer. I set out therefore with Mr. Banks and three or four more to meet them. When our parties came in sight of each other they halted, except one old man who came forward to meet us ; at length he stopped, and having uttered some words which we were very sorry we could not understand he went back to his companions and the whole body slowly retreated. We found means however to seize some of their darts and continued to follow them about a mile. We then sat down upon some rocks, from which we could observe their motions, and they also sat down at about a hundred yards distance. After a short time the old man again advanced towards us carrying in his hand a lance without a point ; he stopped several times at different distances and spoke ; we answered by beckoning and making such signs of amity as we could devise, upon which the messenger of peace as we supposed him to be turned and spoke aloud to his companions, who then set up their lances against a tree and advanced towards us in a friendly manner. When they came up we returned the darts or lances that we had taken from them, and we perceived with great satisfaction that this rendered the reconciliation complete. We found in this party four persons whom we had never seen before, who as usual were introduced to us by name ; but the man who had been wounded in the attempt to burn our nets and linen was not among them ; we knew however that he could not be dangerously hurt by the distance at which the shot reached him. We made all of them presents of such trinkets as we had about us and they walked back with us towards the ship. As we went along they told us by signs that they would not set fire to the grass any more ; and we distributed among them some musket-balls and endeavoured to make them understand their use and effect. When they came abreast of the ship they sat down, but could not be prevailed upon to come on board ; we therefore left them and in about two hours they went away, soon after which we perceived the woods on fire at about two miles distance. If this accident had happened a very little while sooner the

consequence might have been dreadful, for our powder had been aboard but a few days, and the store-tent with many valuable things which it contained had not been removed many hours. We had no idea of the fury with which grass would burn in this hot climate, nor consequently of the difficulty of extinguishing it; but we determined that if it should ever again be necessary for us to pitch our tents in such a situation our first measure should be to clear the ground round us." The aborigines could only be satisfied by actually feeling the hands and faces of their visitors that they were made of flesh and blood like themselves. Respecting the natives of this part of the coast Cook says:—"The men are well made, of the middle size, and active in a high degree, but their voices are soft even to effeminacy. Their colour is chocolate, but they were so covered with dirt as to look almost as black as negroes. The chief ornament of these people is the bone that is thrust through the nose which the sailors whimsically termed the spritsail-yard. Some few of them had an ornament of shells hanging across the breast. Besides these ornaments they painted their bodies and limbs white and red in stripes of different dimensions, and they had a circle of white round each eye and spots of it on the face. Their huts were built with small rods, the two ends of which were fixed into the ground so as to form the figure of an oven, they are covered with pieces of bark and palm leaves. The door of this building, which is only high enough to sit upright in, is opposite to the fire-place; they sleep with their heels turned up towards their heads, and even in this posture the hut will not hold more than four people. They produce fire and extend the flames in a very singular manner; they reduce one end of a stick into an obtuse point, they place this point upon a piece of dry wood and turning the upright stick very fast backward and forward between their hands the fire is soon produced, nor is it increased with less celerity." The *Endeavour* sailed from this place on 13th August 1770, and "succeeded in getting into the open sea in safety after having been surrounded by dreadful shoals and rocks for three months." The explorers still continued their voyage to the northward until the extreme point of the Australian Continent, which they named Cape York, was reached. They then steered westward through Torres Straits naming the channel through which they passed into the Indian Ocean Endeavour Strait. Cook concludes his account of N.S.W. as follows:—"As I was now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland, which I had coasted from latitude 38° south to this place (latitude 10½ south,) and which I am confident no European had ever seen before, I once more hoisted English colours; and though I had already taken possession of several particular parts I now took possession of the whole eastern coast in right of His Majesty King George the Third by the name of New South Wales, with all the bays, harbours, rivers, and islands situated upon it; we

then fired three volleys of small arms which were answered by the same number from the ship." Cook, upon leaving the Australian coast, thus speaks of the country and its aboriginal inhabitants:—"New Holland or, as I have now called the eastern coast, New South Wales, is of a larger extent than any other country in the known world that does not bear the name of a continent. The length of coast along which we sailed reduced to a straight line is no less than twenty-seven degrees of latitude, amounting to near 2000 miles, so that its square surface must be much more than equal to all Europe. To the southward of 33° or 34° the land in general is low and level; farther northward it is hilly, but in no part can be called mountainous; and the hills and mountains taken together make but a small part of the surface in comparison with the valleys and plains. It is upon the whole rather barren than fertile, yet the rising ground is chequered by woods and lawns, and the plains and valleys are in many places covered with herbage; the soil however is frequently sandy, and many of the lawns or savannahs are rocky and barren, especially to the northward, where in the best spots vegetation was less vigorous than in the southern part of the country; the trees were not so tall, nor was the herbage so rich. The grass in general is high but thin, and the trees where they are largest are seldom less than forty feet asunder; nor is the country inland, so far as we could examine it, better clothed than the sea-coast. The banks of the bays are covered with mangroves to the distance of a mile within the beach, under which the soil is a rank mud that is always overflowed by a spring-tide. Farther in the country we sometimes met with a bog upon which the grass was very thick and luxuriant, and sometimes with a valley that was clothed with under-wood. The soil in some parts seemed to be capable of improvement, but the far greater part is such as can admit of no cultivation. The coast, at least that part of it which lies to the northward of 25° S., abounds with fine bays and harbours, where vessels may lie in perfect security from all winds. The number of inhabitants in this country appears to be very small in proportion to its extent. We never saw so many as thirty of them together but once, and that was at Botany Bay, when men, women and children assembled upon a rock to see the ship pass by. When they manifestly formed a resolution to engage us they never could muster above fourteen or fifteen fighting men, and we never saw a number of their sheds or houses together that could accommodate a larger party. It is true indeed that we saw only the sea-coast on the eastern side, and that between this and the western shore there is an immense tract of country wholly unexplored, but there is great reason to believe that this immense tract is either wholly desolate or at least still more thinly inhabited than the parts we visited. It is impossible that the inland country should subsist inhabitants at all seasons without cultivation; it is extremely

improbable that the inhabitants of the coast should be totally ignorant of arts of cultivation which were practised inland; and it is equally improbable that if they knew such arts there should be no traces of them among them. It is certain that we did not see one foot of ground in a state of cultivation in the whole country, and therefore it may well be concluded that where the sea does not contribute to feed the inhabitants the country is not inhabited. The only tribe with which we had any intercourse we found where the ship was careened. It consisted of one-and-twenty persons—twelve men, seven women, one boy and one girl. The women we never saw but at a distance, for when the men came over the river they were always left behind. The men here and in other places were of a middle size, and in general well made, clean limbed, and remarkably vigorous, active and nimble. Their countenances were not altogether without expression, and their voices were remarkably soft and effeminate. They appeared to have no fixed habitations, for we saw nothing like a town or village in the whole country. Their houses, if houses they may be called, seemed to be formed with less art and industry than any we had seen, except the wretched hovels at Tierra del Fuego, and in some respects they are inferior even to them. At Botany Bay, where they were best, they were just high enough for a man to sit upright in, but not large enough for him to extend himself in his whole length in any direction. They are built with pliable rods about as thick as a man's finger, in the form of an oven, by sticking the two ends into the ground and then covering them with palm leaves and broad pieces of bark. The door is nothing but a large hole at one end, opposite to which the fire is made, as we perceived by the ashes. Under these houses or sheds they sleep, coiled up with their heels to their head, and in this position one of them will hold three or four persons. As we advanced northward and the climate became warmer we found these sheds still more slight; they were built, like the others, of twigs and covered with bark, but none of them were more than four feet deep, and one side was entirely open. The close side was always opposed to the course of the prevailing wind, and opposite to the open side was the fire, probably more as a defence from the mosquitos than the cold. They were set up occasionally by a wandering horde in any place that would furnish them for a time with subsistence, and left behind them when, after it was exhausted, they went away; but in places where they remained only for a night or two they slept without any shelter except the bushes or grass, which is here near two feet high. The only furniture belonging to these houses that fell under our observation is a kind of oblong vessel made of bark, by the simple contrivance of tying up the two ends with a withy, which not being cut off serves for a handle. These we imagined were used as buckets to fetch water from the spring, which may be supposed sometimes to be at a

considerable distance. They have however a small bag about the size of a moderate cabbage net, which is made by laying threads loop within loop somewhat in the manner of knitting used by our ladies to make purses. This bag the man carries loose upon his back by a small string which passes over his head. It generally contains a lump or two of paint and resin, some fish-hooks and lines, a shell or two out of which their hooks are made, a few points of darts, and their usual ornaments, which includes the whole worldly treasure of the richest man among them. Their fish-hooks are very neatly made, and some of them are exceedingly small. For striking turtle they have a peg of wood, which is about a foot long and very well bearded; this fits into a socket at the end of a staff of lightwood, about as thick as a man's wrist and about seven or eight feet long. To the staff is tied one end of a loose line about three or four fathoms long, the other end of which is fastened to the peg. To strike the turtle the peg is fixed into the socket, and when it has entered his body and is retained there by the barb the staff flies off, and serves for a float to trace their victim in the water; it assists also to tire him till they can overtake him with their canoes and haul him ashore. One of these pegs, as I have mentioned already, we found buried in the body of a turtle, which had healed up over it. Their lines are from the thickness of a half-inch rope to the fineness of a hair, and are made of some vegetable substance, but what in particular we had no opportunity to learn. Their food is chiefly fish, though they sometimes contrive to kill the kangaroo and even birds of various kinds, notwithstanding they are so shy that we found it difficult to get within reach of them with a fowling-piece. The only vegetable that can be considered as an article of food is the yam, yet doubtless they eat the several fruits which have been mentioned among other productions of the country, and indeed we saw the shells and hulls of several of them lying about the places where they kindled their fire." The further progress of the expedition belongs rather to the history of navigation than to the history of the colony. After many hair-breadth escapes Cook and his officers piloted the crazy *Endeavour* safely through the Great Barrier Reefs of the Coral Sea and sailed round Cape York, anchoring in safety among a cluster of isles to the westward. On one of these they landed, as Cook relates:—"We immediately climbed the highest hill, which was not more than three times as high as the mast head and the most barren of any we had seen. From this hill no land could be seen between the S.W. and W.S.W., so that I had no doubt of finding a channel through. As I was now about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland (which I had coasted from lat. 38° to this place, and which I am confident no European had ever seen before) I once more hoisted English colours, and though I had taken possession already of several particular parts I now took possession of

the whole eastern coast from lat. 38° to this place 10° 30' south in right of His Majesty King George III. by the name of New South Wales with all its bays, harbours, rivers and islands situated upon it. We then fired three volleys of small arms, which were answered by the same number from the ship. Having performed this ceremony upon the island we called it Possession Island." When these facts were published in London together with the long roll of discoveries, accompanied by charts of the most correct character, determining the great geographical problem in which every maritime state was interested the whole of Europe by tacit consent acknowledged England's claim to the territory comprising nearly one half of this vast island-continent.

(II.) *The First Fleet*.—After Cook's visit no voyage was undertaken to the coast of Australia, with which the history of N. S. W. is connected, excepting that of La Perouse, to be mentioned subsequently. Prior to Cook's discovery British offenders against the laws were banished to the American plantations. This system originated in 1619 during the reign of James I. of England. At that time the exiles were sent to Virginia where the planters during its first settlement were greatly in want of labourers to clear away the impenetrable forests which impeded cultivation. These were chiefly criminals whom the courts of law deemed not sufficiently guilty for capital punishment. The planters hired their services for a limited term, under the superintendence of contractors who were obliged to prove that they were properly disposed of; they received a remuneration of twenty pounds each convict from the employer. This system with various modifications, was continued among the other settlements as the colonists required labour; but there not being a sufficient supply of labour of that class, the colonists adopted the cruel system of enforced negro slave labour. The contest between the American colonies and the mother country issued in their separation from Great Britain, and the traffic in felons ceased after the declaration of Independence on 4th July 1783. The mother country having been relieved by this system of transportation from the burthen of subjects who were not only useless but pernicious at home, it became an important object to know where they should next be sent to. The British Parliament discussed the question in much the same temper and spirit as it has more recently discussed the kindred question as to what should be done with incorrigible criminals. All kinds of expedients were proposed and several tried, amongst which was transportation to the coast of Africa; but this expedient was abandoned on the consideration "that what was meant as an alleviation of punishment too frequently ended in death." Consequently one of the chief reasons that recommended N.S.W. to the British Parliament and Government was Cook's report of the salubrity of the climate of that part of Australia. The proposition to

establish a penal colony there was strongly but vainly opposed by John Howard, the eminent philanthropist, and upon amply sufficient grounds. The Order in Council for the establishment of the settlement was dated 6th December 1786. At this day when care for the health, education, and religious instruction of criminals is carried to even an extreme length, it is with amazement and horror that we look back on the cool careless indifference with which the ministers of George III. in 1797 set about founding a penal settlement at the opposite side of the world. Cook and his companions had passed a few days on the intended site of the proposed colony and had found a small river, a profusion of curious plants, and an indifferent harbour. They had not seen any plains of pasture fit to feed live stock; they had found no large edible animals such as deer, or buffaloes, or pigs. They had no means of ascertaining whether the soil was capable of carrying crops for the support of a considerable population; and the nearest land at which live stock and dry stores could be procured was the Cape of Good Hope, a colony in the possession of the Dutch. As little judgment, as little forethought, as little common humanity were displayed in selecting the colonists as the colony. The first detachment consisted of the first Governor, Captain Arthur Phillip, R.N., with a guard of marines, viz., a major-commandant, twelve subalterns and twenty-four non-commissioned officers, one hundred and sixty-eight rank and file, with forty women, their wives. These were the unconvicted section of the intended colony. The prisoners were five hundred and forty-eight men and two hundred and thirty women, the latter being not only the most abandoned of their sex, but many of them aged, infirm, and even idiotic. This disproportion of sexes was maintained, and even increased, until the proportion of men to women was as six to one, and the results became too horrible to be recorded. This "goodly company" was embarked in a frigate, the *Sirius*, an armed tender, three store-ships, and six transports, under the command of Captain Hunter. At the last moment, by an afterthought, one chaplain was sent on board. There was no schoolmaster, no superintendent, or gaolers, or overseers, except marines with muskets loaded in case of revolt. No agriculturist was sent to teach the exiles to plough, and delve, and sow. No system of discipline was planned, nothing beyond mere coercion was attempted. Even the supply of mechanics required for erecting the needful houses and stores was left a matter of chance dependent on the trades of the six hundred felons, and as it turned out there were not half a dozen carpenters, only one bricklayer, and not one mechanic in the whole settlement capable of erecting a corn-mill. The *First Fleet* sailed on 13th May 1787, and after a voyage of eight months, during which they touched at the Cape de Verd Islands, Rio de Janeiro and the Cape of Good Hope, being everywhere received with the greatest attention and

courtesy, anchored in Botany Bay on 20th January 1788. Collins writes thus:—"Under the blessing of God was happily completed in eight months and one week a voyage which, before it was undertaken, the mind hardly dared venture to contemplate, and on which it was impossible to reflect without some apprehension as to its termination. Heavily in clouds came on the day which ushered in our arrival." Tench remarks:—"To us it was a great and important day, though I hope the foundation, not the fall, of an empire will be dated from it." The deaths in the fleet on the way out were few, being one marine out of two hundred and twelve, and twenty-four convicts out of the seven hundred and seventy-eight which were put on board in England. Within four-and-twenty hours after landing Governor Phillip ascertained that Botany Bay was quite unsuitable for the site of a colony, that a sufficient quantity of cultivable agricultural land and of fresh water were wanting, and that the harbour was unsafe for ships of burden. Without disembarking his charge he set out with a party of three boats to explore the coast to the northward, and particularly Broken Bay, an inlet favourably mentioned by Cook, distant about eighteen miles from Botany Bay; but as he sailed along the barrier of cliffs which line the shore he decided to examine the narrow cleft which Cook had named Port Jackson. The day was mild and serene. The expedition sailed along the coast near enough to see and hear the wild cries of the astonished natives who followed them as far as the rugged nature of the land would permit. As they approached Port Jackson the coast wore such an appearance that Phillip fully expected to find Cook's unfavourable impressions realised; but he was destined to be most agreeably disappointed. The first tack carried the expedition out of the long heavy swell of the Pacific Ocean into the smooth water of a canal protected by two projecting "heads;" and soon they came within sight of a vast land-locked lake stretching as far as the eye could reach dotted with small islands whose shores sloped forest-covered down to the water's edge. Black swans and other rare water-birds fluttered up as the white strangers sailed on charmed with a scene in which every feature was beautiful yet strange. They had discovered one of the finest harbours in the world. Coasting round the shores of this great natural basin Phillip determined to plant his colony on a promontory where a small clear stream trickled into the salt water. After three days spent in exploration he returned to Botany Bay. On the morning of 25th January as they were working out the English fleet were astonished by seeing two strange ships of war sailing into the bay. These were the *Boussole* and *Astrolabe*, the French expedition of discovery under the command of M. de la Pérouse which had left France in 1785. La Pérouse "had sailed into Botany Bay by Captain Cook's chart which lay before him on the binnacle. Having heard at Kamtschatka of the intended settlement

he had expected to have found a town built and market established." Thus it was probably but by a few days that the honour of discovering Port Jackson fell to England. The French squadron remained until 10th March to refresh and refit, and then departing were never heard of more until in 1826 Dillon discovered at the Manicolo Islands traces of arms and ornaments which proved their mournful fate—shipwrecked and murdered by savages. A monument has been erected to the memory of La Pérouse and his crew in Botany Bay.

III. *Foundation of the Colony.*—On the 26th January the English fleet having been brought round anchored in deep water close along the shore of Sydney Cove, so called after Lord Sydney, one of the lords of the Admiralty. A formal disembarkation took place—a detachment of marines and blue jackets leaping from their boats into the shades of a primeval forest. After hoisting British colours "near where the colonnade in Bridge-street now stands," the proclamation and commission constituting the colony were read, a salute of small arms was fired, and the career of the province of N.S.W. commenced. The whole party landed amounted to one thousand and thirty souls, who encamped under tents and under and within hollow trees "in a country resembling the more woody parts of a deer park in England." Such were the accidents of the foundation and such the founders of the British colonial empire in Australia. Collins describes the event in the following language:—"The spot chosen for this purpose was at the head of a cove near a run of fresh water which stole silently through a very thick wood, the stillness of which had then for the first time since the creation been interrupted by the rude sound of the labourer's axe and the downfall of its ancient inhabitants—a stillness and tranquillity which from that day were to give place to the noise of labour, the confusion of camps and towns, and the busy hum of its new possessors. That the greater part of these did not bring with them 'minds not to be changed by time or place' was fervently to have been wished, and if it were possible that on taking possession of Nature in her simplest garb as they had thus done they might not sully that purity by the introduction of vice. In the evening of this day the whole of the party then present were assembled at the point where they had first landed in the morning, and on which a flagstaff had been purposely erected and an union jack displayed; when the marines fired several volleys between which the healths of His Majesty and the Royal Family, with success to the new colony, were most cordially drunk." No sooner had the colonists been disembarked and the erection of the necessary buildings commenced than the want of a sufficient body of artificers was experienced. The ships furnished sixteen, and the prisoners twelve, carpenters; and by a piece of unexpected good fortune which caused much rejoicing "an experienced bricklayer was discovered among the convicts. He was at once placed at the

head of a party of labourers, with orders to construct a number of brick huts; in the meantime the Governor occupied a tent." This first example is a fair specimen of the manner in which the penal discipline in the colony was conducted for a long series of years. A useful man was placed in authority and allowed a variety of indulgences quite irrespective of his moral qualities. The greatest ruffians became overseers and occupied places of trust. Men of no use—mere drudges—were treated worse than beasts of burden. In the month of May the entire live stock of the colony public and private consisted of two bulls, five cows, one horse, three mares, three colts, twenty-nine sheep, nineteen goats, seventy-four pigs, five rabbits, eighteen turkeys, twenty-nine geese, thirty-five ducks, two hundred and ten fowls. The cattle were of the Cape breed, humpy on the shoulders and long-horned—a fact which it afterwards became of consequence to remember. In the ensuing month it is recorded as a public calamity that two bulls and four cows wandered away from the herdsman who had them in charge and were lost in the woods. In the sequel it was shown that the cattle were better colonists than their owners. The entrance to Port Jackson is through projecting capes, or two heads, which conceal and shelter the far extent of the harbour. A channel about two miles in breadth opens a land-locked harbour about fifteen miles in length of irregular form, the shores jagged with inlets, coves and creeks which, when the first adventurers landed, were covered to the water's edge with the finest timber. At the western extremity a current of fresh water mingling with the sea tide gave signs of the winding Parramatta River, navigable for vessels of small burden for eighteen miles. The settlement was planted on the banks of an inlet or "cove," about half a mile in length and a quarter in breadth, which received a considerable stream of fresh water at the upper end. The native blacks, who then swarmed along the whole coast from Botany Bay and far beyond in either direction, came to meet the white strangers naked, armed with the shield, the spear, and the boomerang, which the settlers at first took for a wooden sword. From the circumstance of the aborigines not being subject to the authority of any sort of government except that of the strongest man, from the imperfection of their arms and their mental incapacity for combination, their communications and skirmishes with the white intruders do not occupy that place in the history of the colony which is filled by the Red Indian tribes in the history of North America, or the semi-civilised Peruvians and Mexicans in that of Spanish South America.

IV. *Governor Phillip*.—On 7th February 1788 the king's commission for the government of the "territory of N.S.W. and its dependencies" was read. By this instrument the colony was declared "to extend from the northern extremity of the coast called Cape York in the latitude of $10^{\circ} 37'$ to the southern extremity of South Cape in the

latitude of $43^{\circ} 39'$ including all adjacent islands within those latitudes and inland to the westward as far as the 135th degree of east longitude." At the same time were read the letters patent issued under the 27th George III. cap. 56 for establishing courts of civil and criminal judicature in the colony. Under these the Governor—or in his absence, the Lieutenant-Governor—was authorised whenever and only when he saw fit, to summon a court of criminal jurisdiction, which was to be a court of record and to consist of the Judge-Advocate and six such officers of the sea or land service as the Governor should nominate by presents under hand and seal. This court was empowered to inquire into and punish all crimes of whatever nature; the punishment to be inflicted according to the laws of England as nearly as might be, considering and allowing for the circumstances and situations of the settlement and its inhabitants; the charge to be reduced to writing; witnesses to be examined upon oath; the sentence of the court to be determined by the opinion of the majority; but the punishment not to be inflicted unless five members of the court concurred, until the king's pleasure should be known; the Provost-Marshal to cause the judgment under the Governor's warrant. In this court the Judge-Advocate was president (there was no provision that he should be a man of legal education;) he was also to frame and exhibit the charge against the prisoner, to have a vote in the court, and to be sworn like members of it. The military officers were to appear in the insignia of duty—sash and sword; they had the right to examine witnesses as well as the Judge-Advocate; he alone centred in his person the offices of prosecutor, judge and jury. There was also a civil court consisting of the Judge-Advocate and two inhabitants of the settlement who were to be appointed by the Governor, "empowered to decide in a summary manner all pleas of lands, houses, debts, contracts and all personal pleas with authority to summon parties upon complaint being made, to examine the matter of such complaint by the oath of witnesses, and to issue warrants of execution under the hand and seal of the Judge-Advocate." From this court an appeal might be made to the Governor, and from him (where the property exceeded the value of three hundred pounds) to the King in Council. To this court was likewise given authority to grant probates of wills and administration of the personal estates of intestate persons dying within the settlement. A vice-admiralty court was also established for the trial of offences committed on the high seas. The Governor was Captain-General and Vice-Admiral, with authority to hold general courts-martial to confirm and set aside sentences. Powers equal to those of the first Governor of N.S.W. if held, have never been exercised by any other official in the British dominions. He could sentence to five hundred lashes, fine five hundred pounds, regulate customs and trade, fix prices and wages, remit capital as well as other sentences, bestow grants of

land and create a monopoly of any article of necessity. All the labour in the colony was at his disposal ; all the land, all the stores, all the places of honour and profit ; and virtually all the justice, as the case of Governor Bligh afterwards proved. The Governor's subjects consisted of his subordinates, officers—for as Captain-General the commandant of the troops was under his orders—of the few who resorted to N.S.W. to trade (whose profits were at his disposal,) and the convicts—outcasts without civil rights. The distance from England, the few means of communication, the indifference of the English public to the fate of the inhabitants of a penal or any other colony, rendered the Governor so far as the control of law extended actually irresponsible. As there was no law so there was no publicity and no public opinion to restrain the exercise of the despotism which was the only possible government in such a penal settlement. The chief officers were naval and military of the old school ; not the school of Cook and Keppel, Nelson and Collingwood, Wolfe and Cornwallis, but of that school which, by its tyranny, its abuse of power, its neglect of common honesty, of common decency and common humanity in the treatment, the wages, the clothing and the food of the sailors, created the alarming mutinies of Portsmouth and the Nore. The powers vested in the Governor were exercised without the restraining influence of council or law adviser until 1822. Feelings of amazement and horror overcome us when we look back on the early days of N.S.W. Under the absolute government described the settlers were crowded together on a narrow space—a promontory cleared of a dense forest. The soil was a barren sand ; every yard required for cultivation had to be gained by removing enormous trees of a hardness that tried the temper of the best axes wielded in skilled hands. On one side was an unknown shore and a shipless sea ; on the other an apparently limitless country inhabited by savages in which not a step could be taken without danger of being totally lost ; a country which produced no wild fruit or root fit for the sustenance of man ; and with the exception of a wandering kangaroo or a shy, swift emu, no game of any size fit for food. The want of enterprise which marked the early career of the colonists and left them so long in ignorance of the rich districts on which, after a long interval the colony became self-supporting cannot but be attributed to the form of government and to the moral blight caused by the composition of the society. The mass of the community were slaves—slaves without the contented spirit of negroes or Russian serfs—for they had been born in a free country and could not learn to submit and be happy even if in the matter of food and lodging they had been well provided, instead of being burned with heat, perished with cold, and always half starved. They were slaves too, labouring hard but scarcely producing anything. The long voyage was a bad preparation for useful labour. The convicts were

heaped on board ship without selection, the vilest and most venial criminals chained together. No classification of degrees of crime or for the purposes of useful labour was attempted. The overseers were prisoners selected by favouritism or for their bodily strength, and the work was divided between personal service on the officers, handicraft and mere drudgery. One chaplain of the Church of England enjoyed a salary for preaching occasionally to an uninstructed multitude, of whom one-third were Roman Catholics transported for political or agrarian offences. Far from all civilising humanising influences, in such society the finest natures became brutalised into tyrants, while the criminals under their command dragged on a miserable existence or rebelled with all the recklessness of despair. Although the chief records of the early days of the colony are drawn from the writings and reports of officials who were naturally inclined to put the best face on a system of which they were the paid instruments, and whose eyes, ears, consciences were seared by constant contact with misery and tyranny, yet there is more than enough testimony of the cruel and stupid despotism which prevailed. A singular succession of serious, pitiable, ludicrous and disgraceful incidents mark the history of the settlement from the day of proclaiming the king's commission to the end of the year 1800, which has been minutely recorded by Collins. At one time "a person named Smith on his way to India professing some knowledge of agriculture" is engaged by the government and created a peace officer at Rosehill, the site of the future town of Parramatta, the said Smith being apparently the only freeman with any claims to the kind of knowledge on which the subsistence of the colony was likely to depend. At another time one Bryant, a Devonshire prisoner employed in his calling of a fisherman, is detected in secreting and selling large quantities of fish and is severely punished ; but "being too useful a person to part with and send to the Brick Cart" he is retained to fish for the settlement. This man afterwards escaped with his family and a party of other prisoners in an open boat to the Island of Timor ; he was there captured by a man-of-war and carried to Batavia, where he died. His wife was conveyed to England, tried and confined in Newgate until the term of her original sentence expired. Then we find convicts "when little more than two years had elapsed" claiming their discharge on the ground that the time of their sentence had expired, which was possible, as it would date from the day of their sentences. When in answer to these claims inquiries are made for the documents containing the particulars "it is found that they have been left in England, and that therefore it is impossible to affirm or deny the claims." Consequently the prisoners are told they must wait for an answer to a despatch to be sent by the first opportunity to England, a period of two or three years. One of the prisoners not very well pleased with the prospect of such delay expressed himself

disrespectfully of the Lieutenant-Governor in the presence of the governor. Thereupon he was seized, tried by a criminal court, found guilty and sentenced to receive six hundred lashes and wear irons for the space of six months. About the same time a soldier having been found guilty of a criminal assault on a female child, his sentence is commuted to banishment for life to the auxiliary agricultural settlement of Norfolk Island. These are but a few specimens of the judicial system by which N.S.W. was ruled for nearly the first quarter of a century of its existence. The sufferings of the first settlers as may well be imagined were intense. More than a third of their number were ill with scurvy and other diseases—sixty-six lay in the little hospital which had been set up, and many of them never recovered. Those who were well enough to work began to clear the land for cultivation, but as soon as everything was ready for the ploughing to begin the amazing fact was discovered that no one knew anything of farming, and had it not been that Phillip had with him a servant who had once learnt something of agriculture their labour would have been of little avail. As it was, the farming was of the rudest kind; one man even if he had been a highly experienced person could do very little to instruct so many. The officers and soldiers were smart enough on parade but useless on a farm; the convicts instead of trying to learn expended their ingenuity in picking each other's pockets or in robbing the stores. They would do no work unless an armed soldier was standing behind them, and if he turned away for a moment they would deliberately destroy the farm implements in their charge, or do whatever damage the most stupid and purposeless malice could suggest. Thus only a trifling amount of food was obtained from the soil; the provisions they had brought with them were nearly finished, and when the news came that the *Guardian* transport, on which they were depending for fresh supplies, had struck on an iceberg and had been lost the little community was filled with the deepest dismay. Soon after a ship arrived with a number of fresh convicts but no provisions; in great haste the *Sirius* was sent to the Cape of Good Hope and the *Supply* to Batavia; these vessels brought back as much as they could get, but it was all used in a month or two. Starvation now lay before the settlement; every one, including the officers and the Governor himself, was put on the lowest rations which could keep the life in a man's body, and yet there was not enough of food even at this miserable rate to last for any length of time. Numbers died of starvation; the Governor stopped all the works as the men were too weak to continue them. The cattle and sheep which they had brought with so much trouble to become the origin of herds and flocks were all killed for food, with the exception of two or three which escaped to the woods and were lost from sight. On the 14th February 1788 Philip Gidley King, second lieutenant

of the *Sirius*, with twenty-five men, was sent to Norfolk Island, a spot recommended by Cook as a place of settlement. Phillip intended to use this island both as a store-house and a place of banishment for refractory prisoners. King landed and at once commenced to grow cotton, corn, and flax. The island was most fertile, and King's report was so favourable that Phillip sent him a reinforcement of sixty-nine people. Early in March the French ships which had been waiting for favouring breezes set sail. They left behind them a melancholy record of their visit in the shape of the body of Father Le Receveur, who had come out in the *Astrolabe* as naturalist to the expedition and who died from the effects of wounds received in a conflict with the natives of the Navigators Islands. Phillip erected a memorial over his burial place. His was the second white man's grave in Australia. The coast to the northward of Sydney Heads was speedily explored and friendly relations were entered into with the natives. Two expeditions into the interior confirmed the good opinion formed of the land, but the natives having been attacked by some of the settlers retaliated by spearing some men who were cutting rushes. This encounter, which was the first of a series of hostilities between the colonists and aboriginals, took place in the month of May at a place called Rushcutters' Bay. The result of Phillip's explorations was the settlement of the adjacent country. The tract of land which he inspected he named County Cumberland. It was bounded on the west by Carmarthen and Lansdown Hills and on the south by Botany Bay. A serious loss now occurred. The whole of the horned cattle—four cows and two bulls—escaped into the bush and were lost. It is necessary to note this fact because the event, though the cause of much privation to the first settlers, was afterwards the means whereby some of the most fertile lands in the colony were discovered and utilised. The rest of the year was spent in the formation of the City of Sydney. Streets were traced, sites appropriated for public buildings, and a farm was established at Parramatta. As no lime had been yet discovered the first houses were built of cabbage-palm wood or of wattle boughs interlaced and daubed with clay. In December the keel of the first vessel built in the colony was laid. She was designed for conveying provisions to Parramatta and was called the *Rose Hill Packet*. A prisoner (one James Daley) at this time asserted that he had found gold on the land between the settlement and the bay and was severely punished for alleged deceit. The month of July in the following year (1789) was made remarkable by the discovery of a large river named the Hawkesbury. The joy with which this discovery was hailed soon disappeared before the anxiety consequent upon a succession of misfortunes. Sickness prostrated as many as 500 persons at one time. In February a violent tornado had occurred at Norfolk Island. Whole forests were uprooted. The public granary was levelled to the

ground and the vale which formed part of the gardens flooded with water. The news of this untoward event induced Phillip to put the colony on short allowance of food. Provision for two years had been landed and stored but the rats had destroyed much of the stock, and the devastation at Norfolk Island gave reasonable grounds for the apprehension of famine. The entire live stock of the colony at this time consisted of 2 bulls, 5 cows, 1 horse, 3 mares, 3 colts, 29 sheep, 19 goats, 74 pigs, 5 rabbits, 18 turkeys, 29 geese, 35 ducks, and 210 fowls. It had been arranged in England before the departure of the fleet that the settlement should never be left without twelve months provisions in the Government stores, so that the arrival of the store-ship was daily looked for. The anxiety of the colonists took visible form in the shape of the *first signal staff* erected in the colony. No ship arriving Phillip relieved the demand made upon the stores at Sydney by despatching 280 persons to Norfolk Island in the *Sirius*. The voyage proved fatal to the vessel which had borne the Governor to the scene of his operations. The *Sirius* was driven on the rocks and destroyed, passengers and crew being saved. On hearing of this fresh disaster Phillip sent the *Supply* to Batavia with orders to purchase provisions from the Dutch. The voyage was expected to last six months and there was in the public store but provision for eight months. A council was held. It was resolved that all live stock be held the property of the State for the common use; that all private boats be surrendered and employed in fishing; that all suspected persons be locked up from sunset to sunrise; and that martial law be proclaimed, justice being administered by a court of officers, the concurrence of five being necessary to pass sentence of death. Nor did Phillip himself shrink from bearing his share of the public calamity. He surrendered his private stock of flour for public use, and when a visiting officer went to dine at Government House he was expected to bring his loaf with him! During the year 1790 four ships arrived filled with convicts, of whom the greater number were in a dying state: 261 had died at sea; 200 were brought on shore in the last stage of exhaustion from scurvy, dysentery, fever, bad food, and foul air. In order to save the parties in charge trouble the men had been chained together in rows and confined below nearly throughout the voyage. On board one of the ships, the *Neptune*, several of the prisoners had died in irons; their companions concealed their deaths in order to share the extra allowance of provisions, and so slight was the supervision that the fact was not discovered until betrayed by the offensiveness of putrefaction. Many years elapsed before a system was adopted by which the preservation of the health of prisoners and troops became the interest as well as the duty of the surgeon in charge. At that time the more and the sooner prisoners died the more profitable the transaction was to the contractor; so they

commonly died like rotten sheep. Those were the days in which transportation really was a punishment almost as terrible as death. N.S.W. was then an awful over-sea gaol offering no prospect of advancement or liberation; where the will of a prisoner-turnkey was law, where death was the punishment of the most trifling crimes, and a reproachful look was punished with the lash. A few days before the four ships landed 1000 male and 250 female convicts the arrival of one store-ship, the *Justinian*, saved the whole colony from perishing of famine. The *Guardian* laden with a great supply of provisions, stores, and live stock, under the command of Riou, "the gallant good Riou," of Campbell's "Battle of Copenhagen," had struck on an iceberg, and after almost all the cargo had been thrown overboard was with difficulty carried into the Cape of Good Hope. For weeks before the arrival of the *Justinian* the whole settlement had been put on short allowance. "The Governor," says Collins, "had thrown his store, 300 lbs. of flour, into the common stock." The weekly allowance of each prisoner had been reduced to 2 lbs. of salt pork, $2\frac{1}{2}$ lbs. of flour, and 2 lbs. of rice. Labour stood suspended for want of energy to proceed; the countenances of the people plainly bespoke the hardships they underwent. Garden-robbing became prevalent; the most severe measures were employed to repress the crime caused by, and yet increasing, the effects of the scarcity but in vain. A man caught by the clergyman stealing potatoes was sentenced to 300 lashes, to have his rations of flour stopped for six months, and to be chained for that period to two others caught robbing the Governor's garden; but this and many similar punishments produced no more effect than the clemency of the Governor who remitted 300 out of 400 lashes to which one man was sentenced. The proverb that "hunger will break through stone walls," was exemplified night and day. "So great was the villainy of the people, or the necessity of the times, that a prisoner lying at the hospital from the effects of punishment, part of which he had received, contrived to get his irons off one leg and in that state was caught robbing a farm;" but the historian reports that at Rosehill, where they had vegetables in abundance, no thefts were committed. The *Justinian*, which brought relief from this state of destitution, was driven off Sydney Heads when within hail: it was for some hours doubtful whether she would not strike and become a total wreck on the reefs of Broken Bay. Had that event occurred, and the 1250 additional convicts safely made the port, death by starvation or in a struggle for food must have been the fate of the whole settlement. Could it be wondered if—under such a system of despotism, without discipline in the colony, and in the face of such neglect at home—the descendants of these men had grown fiercely disloyal and anti-British? But yet it is not so. The Australians are a loyal, order-loving, law-obeying race, as they have recently proved

more than once. It was not until five years after Governor Phillip's landing that a temporary church was erected and divine service performed on 25th August 1793. The founders of New England did not let a week elapse without making permanent arrangements for religious worship and education which endure to this day, and have spread their humanising influences all over the wide empire of the American republic. In N.S.W. under the rule of a Sovereign whom some are accustomed to glorify as a specially Christian king the penalties of the lash, the pillory, the gallows, were administered as freely as teaching and preaching were neglected. It sounds strangely in this age to hear that "the clergyman complaining of non-attendance at divine service," which was generally performed in the open air, alike unsheltered from wind and rain as from the fervour of the summer's sun, "it was ordered that 3 lbs. of flour should be deducted from the ration of each overseer and 2 lbs. from each labouring convict who should not attend prayers once on each Sunday, unless some reasonable excuse for absence should be assigned." In April 1791 Schaffer, a German, arrived from England as superintendent of convicts; but on discovery that as he spoke no English he was unable to discharge his duties, he retired and accepted a grant of land of 140 acres at Rosehill. One cannot help feeling curious to know under whose patronage and for what services a German, not speaking English, was sent as superintendent of convicts at the antipodes. At the same time James Ruse received a grant of a similar quantity of land as a reward for being the first settler who declared he was able to support himself on a farm he had occupied fifteen months and to dispense with an allowance from the Government stores. These incidents, with the arrival in two detachments of a regiment raised for the purpose of serving in the colony under the title of the N.S.W. Corps, are the most remarkable events during the latter years of the reign of Governor Phillip. The formation of this corps was both in a moral and political sense a most ill-advised measure. In process of time "owing to the system of traffic in rum members of the corps were," says Dr. Lang, "banded together on every suitable occasion to maintain by violence or injustice what they had obtained by the sacrifice of honour." This statement may appear harsh but the corps necessarily filled a large space in the public eye and it is well known how patronage was at that time suffered to disgrace the profession of arms. Relieved from the prospect of death by hunger, Phillip had to encounter other dangers. The prisoners and the natives both became troublesome. The former endeavoured to escape—not unfrequently succeeding—and the latter displayed a marked hostility to the settlers. Several skirmishes took place, and on one occasion the Governor himself while attempting to pacify some turbulent blacks was wounded in the neck by a spear. The work of settlement, however, still progressed. Grants of land were

made to deserving persons. Several prisoners were set free. The first freed received two acres of cleared land and a house built at the Government expense. Despite a brief season of privation early in the year 1791, agriculture flourished; 1000 bushels of wheat and 500 bushels of maize were reaped at Norfolk Island, and at Parramatta 700 acres of land were under cultivation. At the end of 1791 when the settlement had been established four years the public live stock consisted of 1 aged stallion, 1 mare, 2 young stallions, 2 colts, 16 cows, 2 calves, 1 ram, 50 ewes, 6 lambs, 1 boar, 14 sows and 22 pigs. The cultivated ground at Sydney and Parramatta amounted to nearly 1000 acres of which 300 acres were under maize, 40 of wheat, 6 of barley, 1 of oats, 4 of vines and 86 of garden ground, besides 17 under culture by the soldiers of the colonial corps. An abundant harvest followed in this year, and the first warrant of emancipation was issued to the celebrated pickpocket George Barrington, whose remarkable story has made him the hero of more than one work of fiction. At the end of 1792 there were sixty-seven settlers holding under grant three thousand four hundred and seventy acres, of which four hundred and seventeen acres were in cultivation and a hundred more cleared. We have no means of ascertaining where all these grants were situated but the greater part is now occupied as building land, and was miserably barren for agricultural purposes, although covered with gigantic gum-trees. This summary of the cultivation by free or freedmen settlers is interesting because it marks the first step towards rendering the colony self-supporting. These settlers were if they required victualled and clothed from the public store for eighteen months from the time of their going on their grants, furnished with tools and implements of husbandry, grain to sow their grounds, such stock as could be spared from the public, and at the discretion of the Governor the use of as many convicts as they would undertake to clothe, feed and employ. Every free or freed man had a hut erected on his farm at public expense. On ground of ordinary fertility with settlers of average industry, these terms would have insured early independence; but the greater part of the district was and is as barren as the sea-shore, and the majority of the settlers who were not idle were perfectly ignorant of agriculture. The difficulties of cutting down and removing the forest were so great that without the use of compulsory convict labour for a quarter of a century the Sydney district never could have been cleared. During this period the Government was obliged to carry on cultivation as well as he could on public account, although with indifferent success. A principle as old as the first step the first tribes made toward civilisation—which however many statesmen and economists even now appear not to understand—was forcibly illustrated in the answer of a settler reproached with not having worked so well for the joint-stock account as he did on his own grant of

land—"We are working for ourselves now." The following were the prices of agricultural stock and produce at the close of 1792:—Flour 9d. per lb.; potatoes 3d. per lb.; sheep (the Cape breed,) £10 10s. each; milk goats £8 8s.; breeding sows £7 7s. to £10 10s.; laying fowls 10s.; tea 8s to 16s. per lb.; sugar 1s. 6d. per lb.; spirits 12s. to 20s. per gallon; porter 1s. per quart. At these famine prices the mortality among the convict population was fearful. Between the 1st January and the 31st December 1792 there died two persons of the civil department, six soldiers, four hundred and eighteen male convicts, eighteen female convicts and seventy-nine children. An impression prevailed amongst the prisoners that the nearest place to the colony was China, so that if they could only get upon the right track to it they would soon reach that land of tea. At one time forty-four men and nine women were lost in endeavouring to find this path or to seek for some imaginary settlement. Many of these people after wandering about the woods and existing on roots or anything that would deaden the pangs of hunger perished miserably. Others found their way back to the settlement after being absent several weeks, and reported the fate of their wretched companions. One instance is recorded of an Irish convict who had wandered about for several days in search of a road to China, or the colony where no labour was required. On being questioned how he found his way back he said: "That a paper compass which had been given to him was of no use at all at all; he therefore kept his face towards the place where the sun came from; but if the Lord had not been on his side he should have been lost." To show the absurdity of this attempt the nearest point of China to Sydney in a straight line is 4550 miles, while Paddy's greatest distance was but *fifteen*! From this time forward the colony progressed with rapidity and soon left its leading strings to walk alone. Phillip who had nursed it from the cradle with anxious solicitude was the first to rejoice at the success of this infant dependency of the mother country; and seeing that his presence was not urgently required, while his health had suffered from the cares and responsibilities of his post, he determined after a service of five years in the colony to return to England. Without detracting from the merits of succeeding Governors, it is only just to state that no one under the trying circumstances could so courageously yet kindly, so strictly and yet so benevolently, have performed the arduous task of founding the settlement. Phillip was a man pre-eminently qualified for the task by his superior natural abilities which had raised him, like his great contemporary Cook, from the fore-castle to the command of the quarter-deck. While displaying the higher qualities of administrative talent and decision he exhibited the rare combination with it of a gentle and benevolent disposition. The latter qualities were especially manifested in his orders that the natives should be treated with every kindness, their persons and

property, however trifling, respected, and that all should endeavour to gain their confidence and esteem. Notwithstanding his laudable attempts to civilise these savages they shunned the spot wherever the people went. Several collisions between them and the convicts ended in disaster to both parties, which on investigation showed that the white men were the first offenders. At last he adopted the expedient of capturing some of them, and by kind treatment endeavoured to show their fellows that no injury would be done them. Out of three thus caught only one was prevented from escaping, and he became so attached to the Governor that he remained with him until he went to England. But all efforts were fruitless in the attempt to preserve amity between the natives and the convicts; strifes constantly arose which ended in many being killed on both sides. On his departure on 11th December 1792 the reins of government were handed over to Lieutenant Grose, a son of Francis Grose the famous antiquary. When Phillip arrived in England he represented to the Government the necessity of sending out free settlers, both as affording the best means of controlling and superintending the convicts by the formation of a magistracy and police, and likewise of creating within the colony the first elements of constitutional government. He showed that as there were none but convicts to fill offices of trust, in whose eyes property had never previously been sacred, it was manifest that moral anarchy must prevail. But many difficulties opposed themselves to a compliance with Phillip's suggestions. Amongst others may be enumerated the extreme length of the voyage, which at that period frequently occupied from eight to twelve months. Besides this the unfavourable accounts of the soil around Sydney, the failure of the crops, together with the great hardships and privations, naturally operated as serious discouragement to voluntary emigration. Consequently while ship after ship discharged its freight of convicts on the shores of Port Jackson there was no counteracting force of honest and industrious emigrants to share the work of colonisation, and by their presence to neutralise the evil effects of the convict element. The only free settlers who obtained grants of land for many years were those transports who through lapse of time or special good conduct had become emancipated and a few of the military whose time of service had expired. The latter accepted the government offer to remain in the country on advantageous terms to employ convict labour in agriculture.

V. *Lieutenant-Governor Grose*.—Major Grose was commandant of the N.S.W. corps; and one of his first acts was to issue an order transferring the authority hitherto held by the civil officers, five in number, to the military officers. Collins assigns this act to the partiality of a military man for his own profession. In January 1793 the *Bellona* arrived with a small number of immigrant families, to whom grants of land were given in the

neighbourhood of Sydney at a place named Liberty Plains. On the 12th March two Spanish vessels engaged in a scientific expedition arrived in Port Jackson. These were the *Descovieta* and *Atrévila* commanded by Don Alexandro Malaspina. They remained about a month taking astronomical and terrestrial observations. Grose administered the affairs of the settlement during two years. Under his rule the colony made steady progress, though the uncertain arrival of store-ships on one or two occasions reduced the ration issued from the Government stores to starvation point, and the fact that Great Britain was at war with France rendered the seas dangerous for vessels flying the English flag. Grose, baffled in an attempt to despatch a ship to Bengal, succeeded in getting supplies from Batavia; and towards the end of the year an American vessel from Rhode Island which had brought a cargo of provisions and stores the year previous returned with a consort similarly laden. At the end of 1793 there had been 2470 acres of land transferred to settlers, and of this area 1012 acres were under cultivation. In January 1794 the first settlers established themselves on the Hawkesbury River. Unsuccessful attempts were at various times made by Lieutenant Dawes, Captain Trench, Captain Paterson, Hacking and others to pass the Blue Mountains which confined the colony to a limit of some forty miles. It was reported to the Government in May that the population had increased to 4414. In September the four gentlemen generally known as the "Scotch Martyrs"—Muir, Palmer, Skirving and Margarot—arrived in the colony under sentence of the law for sedition. Favourable intelligence was received from Norfolk Island. Some skirmishes on the Hawkesbury between the settlers and the natives, in which several of the latter were killed, occurred towards the close of the year. On 13th December Grose embarked for Europe, having received information that Captain John Hunter had been appointed Governor of the colony. He pardoned some prisoners in detention for light offences and granted to several of them small tracts of land. The duties of Lieutenant-Governor were temporarily committed to Captain William Patterson of the N.S.W. Corps, whom Lang describes as a highly intelligent and amiable man, who held the reins of Government with a slack hand. No incident of moment occurred during the few months that he administered the affairs of the colony.

VI. *Governor Hunter*.—Governor Hunter arrived on the 7th September 1795, bringing with him Bass and Flinders. By this time affairs had passed their crisis and were beginning to be favourable. About sixty convicts whose sentences had expired had received grants of land, and now that they were working for themselves had become successful farmers. Hunter brought out a number of free settlers to whom he gave land near the Hawkesbury; and after a time more than six thousand acres were covered with crops of wheat and maize.

There was now no fear of famine, and the settlement grew to be comfortable in most respects. Unfortunately the more recent attempts to import cattle with which to stock the farms had proved more or less unsuccessful; so that the discovery of a fine herd of sixty wandering through the meadows of the Hawkesbury was hailed with great delight. These were the descendants of the cattle which had been lost from Phillip's herd some years before. But Hunter, with provident foresight, gave orders that large stores of maize and foreign grain should be husbanded to prevent the recurrence of famine. Even in after years when there was scarcely a chance of it (from the increase of live stock) the dread of such an event caused the Governors to increase the store of grain and preserve it in deep pits excavated out of the solid rock on an island in the harbour. These were plastered round with compost and hermetically sealed, after the manner in which the ancient Egyptians constructed their *siloes* or underground granaries. One of Hunter's first acts was to order a general numbering of the population of Sydney, Parramatta and the Hawkesbury. In November a small printing press which had been brought to the colony by Phillip was first made use of to print official orders. The printer was a young man named George Howe. The result of his labours—the first book printed in the colony—is known as the "Acts and Orders of Governor King." At this period the price of a cow was about £80; a horse £90; a sheep of the Cape breed £7 10s.; a breeding sow £5; geese and turkeys fetched £1 1s. each; ducks 10s. a couple; mutton was 2s. a pound, goats' flesh 1s. 6d., butter 3s.; wheat sold for 12s. a bushel, barley for 10s.; green tea was 16s. a pound, raw sugar 1s. 6d., soap 2s. So late as March 1798 22s. were paid at a public sale for a common cup and saucer! In January 1796 the first dramatic performance took place. Two American vessels, one from Rhode Island and one from Boston, brought provisions and merchandise, which were eagerly purchased. Police arrangements were perfected and a log prison erected. The next year saw the first windmill and a strong bridge over the Duck River. The year 1797 is also notable for the foundation of the business of sheep-breeding, to which A. owes so much of her consideration and wealth. John Macarthur, who had come to the colony in 1790 as paymaster of the N.S.W. Corps, imported from the Cape three rams and five ewes. His success induced him to shortly afterwards seek and obtain the aid of the British Government. In 1803 this "Father of the Colony," as he was styled, brought to England packed in casks the first sample of Australian wool. In 1811 only 167 lbs. were exported. In 1834, when Macarthur died, the export had reached 4,347,610 lbs. The River Hunter was discovered by Lieutenant Shortland, and a coalfield, afterwards a source of great gain to its owners, was named Newcastle. During the next two years there is little to record of social interest, save

contests with the natives and the unceasing but generally ineffectual efforts of some of the prisoners to escape from confinement, under the wild idea that they might reach China overland ! Hitherto the convicts were chiefly employed in and around the settlements of Sydney and Parramatta, between which places there grew up considerable traffic both by land and water. Passage boats were used on the river, or rather inlet, leading from the Cove ; and as the intervening lands became settled it was found necessary to make a good road. This was the main route into the interior. Hence large parties were employed laying out a turnpike road which in time equalled that of any in the mother country. This was the commencement of the road system in Australia which, till the introduction of railways, was deemed the most important and expensive of all the public works. The construction of roads throughout N.S.W. by convict labour, at the expense of the parent state, prepared the way for free colonisation. With roads came traffic ; with traffic came commerce, industrial pursuits, and manufactures. With roads came markets for the sale of live stock and agricultural produce. Towns sprung up from the facilities of communication thus afforded. With roads came the occupation of the far interior ; and the formidable barrier of the Blue Mountain range at last succumbed to the pick and hammer. The lines of traffic were gradually rendered easy and safe ; while they all converged to the first settlement and made Sydney a flourishing city. Under successive Governors this capital of the new colony grew in importance ; edifices of elegant structure arose, built of the native stone. Fortunately its very site was a freestone quarry out of which a vast metropolis could be reared. The builder had only to excavate a foundation in the rock to erect a house when he obtained the material for half-a-dozen in doing so. Streets of white stone buildings soon displaced the huts of the pioneers. Warehouses and shops were opened and all the bustle and traffic of an English city was seen in Sydney. In 1797 the first school building was erected for the benefit of 300 children, and the chaplain, the Rev. Mr Johnson, began to catechise them after the service on each Sunday. The years 1796 to 1799 mark an important epoch in the history of the settlement, the epoch of maritime discovery by the colonists themselves. The splendid achievements of Bass and Flinders, culminating in the great discovery of the Straits dividing the continent from V.D.L. need not be recounted here. The full narrative of the labours of these heroic men will be found under the respective articles devoted to them. In the latter part of 1799 and the early part of 1800 there had arrived in the Colony of N.S.W. a great number of persons who, though prisoners of the Crown, were men of superior station guilty only of offences against the Government policy as distinguished from offences against social law. These men and

their descendants played so important a part in the future career of the colony that their arrival is a matter to be noted. Among them may be singled out for recollection Henry Fulton, a clergyman of the Church of England ; William Harold, a clergyman of the Church of Rome ; and Joseph Holt, one of the leaders of an army of Irishmen who, in 1797-8, had risen against the British rule in Ireland. These banished men met with others of their class, and together formed a society superior to that of the convicts but inferior to that of the military officers and free settlers. The arrival of these men caused the establishment of the first volunteer corps. Two companies of fifty men each were embodied, one at Sydney and the other at Parramatta. They were called the Loyal Associated Corps, and a captain and two lieutenants were appointed to each. At this period, and for more than twenty years, spirits were the ordinary currency of the colony. Almost all extra work was paid for in spirits, and it was thought quite proper to stimulate the diligence of prisoners in unloading a vessel laden with Government stores by giving half a pint of spirits to each. Among free and bond drunkenness was a prevailing vice. The tyranny of the overseers was so great that the best-inclined convicts were goaded to recklessness and crime. Criminal assaults on women were so common that "the poor unfortunate victims were designated by a title expressive of the insults they had received." Officers were allowed the use of ten prisoners for agriculture and three for domestic services, and so on in a diminishing scale to every description of settler down to the emancipist, who was allowed the use of *one* prisoner to assist in tilling his grant. All these servants were fed and clothed by the Crown. It is not surprising, taking these circumstances into account, that revolts of the prisoners were frequent incidents during those early days. But a detailed history of such occurrences would serve no good purpose. Twelve years after the foundation of the colony its population amounted to between six and seven thousand persons. These were all settled near Sydney, but attempts had been made to penetrate to the west, though without success. The rugged chain of the Blue Mountains was an impassable barrier. The Hunter had been discovered by Lieutenant Shortland while in pursuit of some runaway convicts who had stolen a boat. Signs of coal having been seen near its mouth convicts were sent up to open mines, and these proving successful the town of Newcastle rapidly formed. In 1800 Hunter returned to England on business, intending to come out again ; but he was appointed to the command of a war-ship, and Captain King was appointed to take his place. Hunter was a man of great practical ability, justice and humanity, and his departure was much regretted by all classes in the colony.

VII. *Governor King.*—Philip Gidley King was a post-captain in the Royal Navy and had been

the first commandant of Norfolk Island in Phillip's time. Lang asserts that the population he was called upon to govern "consisted chiefly of those who sold rum, and of those who drank it." The chief traffickers in the liquor, and in the demoralisation it caused, were the officers of the N.S.W. Corps, upon whose delinquencies Lang dwells at needless length. King attempted at first to stem the current of immorality; but finding his efforts useless he abandoned them in disgust. As one result of the general dissolution of morals, bands of bushrangers traversed the country in all directions, entering the houses of the defenceless settlers in open day and perpetrating fearful atrocities. At length, in March 1804, occurred the Castle Hill Rebellion, an insurrection of the convicts stationed at a Government agricultural establishment midway between Windsor and Parramatta. They numbered 233 men, and had armed themselves with muskets, pikes, swords and other weapons plundered from the settlers. They were headed by a man named Cunningham, emboldened by their numbers and inflamed by the oratory of a number of political exiles. They flung away their hoes and spades, removed their irons and marched towards the Hawkesbury, expecting to be there reinforced by so many additional convicts that they would be able to overpower the military. Major Johnstone with twenty-five men of the N.S.W. Corps, and Lieutenants Davis and Brabyn with sixty others were despatched by the Governor, who had himself gone up to Parramatta on the first alarm, to put down the revolt. The rebels were met at a spot near Toongabbee named Vinegar Hill, and after an attempt at parley, were fired upon by the troops. The fire broke their ranks and they fled in all directions. A pursuit ensued: Cunningham their leader was captured and hanged instantly; about sixty others were slain; some were taken, tried and executed; many who surrendered were punished by flogging or confinement in chain-gangs; the remainder were permitted to return to their employment. Meantime, in 1801, a great flood had occurred in the Hawkesbury destroying grain and other property to the value of nearly £23,000. This was a serious blow to the colony as provisions were very scarce at the time. The following year Grimes was sent to survey Port Phillip. The harbour of Western Port was surveyed, and the first cargo of coal from the Coal River, now the Hunter, was sent out of the colony. It was sold at the Cape of Good Hope and fetched £6 a ton. The year 1803 saw the first issue of the *Sydney Gazette*. It was conducted by George Howe, and was merely the medium for the utterance of Government orders and the publication of such intelligence as the Government judged fit should be known. In this year V.D.L. was colonised from Sydney, and Collins attempted to make a settlement at Port Phillip, but abandoned it after a time and sailed with his expedition to V.D.L. Flinders, in the *Investigator*, surveyed the southern and eastern

coasts of the continent in 1802-3. In 1805 the settlement of Norfolk Island was abandoned and the population, over 1000 in number, were much against their will conveyed to V.D.L. Notwithstanding a second disastrous flood on the Hawkesbury, which destroyed crops and property to the value of £35,000 and sent wheat up to £6 the bushel, the prosperity of the colony continued. The population had largely increased; 48,000 acres of land were settled and 1280 under crop, while the live stock had accumulated to 37,400. Sealing and the whale fishery were carried on with energy; and several free Scotch immigrants had arrived and settled on the Hawkesbury. The Hawkesbury district was the granary of the colony. When therefore the great March flood occurred this year and destroyed the crops, food rose in Sydney to famine prices. The coarsest maize and meal flour sold at 2s. 6d. a lb., and the 2-lb. loaf was 5s. For months together whole families ate no bread. At a later period when the settlers looked to "the King's Store" for everything, the very dogs were destroyed that no useless mouth should be maintained. "Kill your dog, sir," said the Governor, "and I will order you a pig from the store!" On 13th August 1806 King resigned his office to his successor Bligh, and the same day embarked for England. He reviewed the local corps the previous day, and was attended with military honours to the ship. The customary valedictory address was presented to him, and responded to in the usual formal manner. He was a man of much ability, but of rather *brusque* manners, and he lacked the force of character requisite to control such a lawless and demoralised community as he was sent to govern. His rule in this respect must be pronounced a failure. One anecdote illustrative of the state of things under his rule may be mentioned. He had preferred charges against a gentleman in the colony, and prepared despatches to be forwarded to the Secretary of State. The officer who had charge of them incautiously mentioned the circumstance to some friends of the gentleman in question, and when he arrived in Downing-street the despatch-box was found to contain only a bundle of newspapers, the lock having been picked and the papers abstracted.

VIII. *Governor Bligh*.—The selection of Bligh as the successor of King was owing to the fortitude which he displayed on the occasion of the mutiny on board the *Bounty*. This vessel had been sent out by the British Government in 1787 for the purpose of transplanting the bread fruit of the South Sea Islands to the West Indies, and examining during the voyage the surrounding seas. The sailors mutinied, seized the ship, and set Bligh and his officers adrift in the launch. After a dangerous voyage of nearly 4000 miles Bligh succeeded in bringing himself and comrades safely to Timor, whence they obtained a passage to England. But his name is handed down with infamy to posterity for his tyrannical treatment of Christian and his

comrades, which caused the mutiny. A man of so arbitrary and cruel a disposition ought never to have been placed in the responsible position of Governor of a penal settlement. In appointing him the Imperial Government spoiled an excellent seaman to make a very inefficient Governor. Bligh had not been long in the colony when he found himself in bad odour with the colonists. It had long been the custom for the leading citizens and more especially the military officers of the settlement to derive a profit from the sale, or rather the exchange, of certain articles. Coined money was exceedingly scarce, and the coinage of all nations was indiscriminately used. A guinea passed current at £1 2s.; a Johannes at £4; a ducat at 9s. 6d.; a gold mohur at £1 17s. 6d.; a pagoda 8s.; and a Spanish dollar 5s. The settler could purchase only from the Government stores or from his neighbours, and the only neighbours rich enough to have any superfluities were the military officers and those whom they befriended. Bligh on his arrival found the more needy among the settlers suffering greatly from the high prices which they were compelled to pay for necessaries, while he discovered that it was the common practice to pay for labour in rum instead of in goods or money. He therefore himself regulated the prices at which articles should be sold from the King's Stores, and prohibited the barter of rum altogether. This measure gave great offence to those settlers who were thus deprived of a means to fortune, and a party consisting of the N.S.W. Corps and the wealthy free citizens was formed in opposition to the Governor. The leader of this party was John Macarthur, who had established himself as a sheep-breeder on the Cowpastures, and who at the time of Bligh's arrival was one of the most prosperous men in the colony. Soon after Bligh landed King introduced him to Macarthur, who invited the new Governor to visit Camden and inspect his flocks, the result of the crosses from the King's merinos. The answer was a refusal in the language of the forecastle, expressive of Bligh's contempt for all such occupations. This was characteristic of the man. When the mother and uncle of young Heywood (a boy midshipman on board the *Bounty*, who received a free pardon and afterwards rose to distinction in the navy,) entreated his aid in obtaining mercy for one whose only crime had been not forcing his way through and springing into the overladen boat, he answered in a few lines:—"I very much regret that so much baseness formed the character of a young man I had a real regard for him, and I hope to hear that his friends can bear his loss without much concern." Macarthur, in common with the rest, had trafficked in rum, and his London agent, getting an order from Captain Abbot for a still, bethought him of sending another to Macarthur. These stills were ordered by the Governor to be seized; but the coppers being found packed with medicine were conveyed to Macarthur's store, who having got them refused to

give them up. The Governor directed that they should be removed at all risks, and removed they were. Macarthur prosecuted the officer who made the capture and used violent language at the trial, but to no purpose. About the same time a schooner of which Macarthur was part owner arrived from Tahiti. A convict had escaped in this vessel, and some Englishmen at Tahiti sent a letter to Bligh complaining that the man had been left among them. A trial was had, and the court ordered the customary penalty for harbouring convicts to be enforced against the owners of the vessel. Macarthur appealed to the Governor, but Bligh refused to interfere, and in consequence of the non-payment of the fine the cargo of the schooner was seized. Macarthur sent notice to the captain and crew that he abandoned the vessel and would have nothing further to do with them. It was forbidden to seamen to land, but the crew went ashore and justified their proceeding by asserting that the owner of the craft had ordered them to leave her. The Judge-Advocate, Richard Atkins, by direction of the Governor, summoned Macarthur to appear and explain his conduct. Macarthur refused, and even disdained to obey a formal warrant afterwards issued. On the 17th December he was arrested, brought before a bench of magistrates, and committed for trial. On the 25th January 1808 the trial took place. The court was crowded, not only by the many partisans of the Governor, but by many soldiers of the N.S.W. Corps, eager to see what would befall their officer and comrade. Macarthur was charged with retaining the boilers of the stills in defiance of the strict orders of the Governor, of raising a spirit of sedition by inducing the crew of the schooner to come ashore in violation of the regulations, and showing contempt for the authority of the Governor and the Judge-Advocate by the manner in which he had treated the message and messengers sent to him. Atkins, the Judge-Advocate, was a man of indifferent character and a known personal enemy to Macarthur, but it was a moot point whether he could legally sit to try a case in which he was at once judge, juror and prosecutor. Macarthur therefore so soon as the six officers who formed the court had been sworn, entered a protest against Atkins; Atkins asserted that there could be no court without him, and threatened to commit Macarthur for contempt. The officers however supported their old comrade. The protest was read, and Atkins asserting that he "adjourned the court" quitted the building. The six officers then sent a letter to the Governor requesting him to appoint another judge-advocate in the place of Atkins. Bligh refused. The six officers then declared the court adjourned until the following day. Receiving intelligence at 5.30 p.m. of this determination Bligh despatched a message to Major Johnston, commanding the N.S.W. Corps, requesting that officer to come and see him at once. Johnston was ill, and sent a message that he could not come. The next

morning Macarthur was apprehended on Atkins' warrant as being illegally at large, and lodged in jail. The six officers informed of this wrote to the Governor enclosing an attested copy of Macarthur's objections to the Judge-Advocate, and requesting Macarthur's restoration to bail. No answer being received, they adjourned again at 3 p.m. The Governor, in the meantime, on the persuasion of Atkins, issued orders to each of the six officers to appear before him at Government House the next day to answer for their conduct, and wrote again to Johnston suggesting the prudence of his attendance to command the troops. Upon the receipt of this letter Johnston, who was suffering from a fall from his chaise, came to town at 5 p.m., but went first to the barracks. Here all was in commotion. The six officers considered that the Governor intended to set aside the criminal court altogether, and urged their commander to usurp the government and depose Bligh. Johnston resolved at all events to liberate Macarthur, and sent an order to the jail for his release. This order, signed George Johnston J.P. Lieutenant-Governor, and Major commanding the N.S.W. Corps, was obeyed. Macarthur thus freed returned to the barracks, drew up a requisition desiring Johnston to place Bligh under arrest, signed his own name first at the foot of it, and procured seven or eight more signatures. Thus fortified with something which might serve as an expression of the will of the people, Johnston got his regiment under arms, formed them in the barrack-square, and marched down to Government House—a verandah cottage in O'Connell-street—with bayonets fixed, band playing, and colours displayed. It was then about half-past six in the evening and quite light. Lieutenant Bell, who commanded the Governor's guard, ordered his men to prime and load. They did so, but immediately afterwards joined their comrades. The Governor's daughter, the widow of Lieutenant Putland of the navy, alone attempted to resist the entrance of the officers, and in a few minutes Johnston was in possession of the building. All who were in the house were arrested—the Provost-Marshall, the Governor's secretary, the chaplain, and several magistrates. After some time Bligh himself was found in his bedroom, whither he had gone to fetch papers of importance, intending to evade his pursuers and take horse for the Hawkesbury, believing that the settlers there would remain loyal to his person. He was brought down into the drawing-room, presented with a letter announcing the fact of his arrest and confronted with Johnston himself. Johnston confirmed the letter, proclaimed martial law, locked up Bligh's papers and the great seal of the colony, and stationed a guard round the house to prevent escape. The deposition of Bligh occurred on the 26th January 1808, the twentieth anniversary of the founding of the colony. The next morning a proclamation announced the change of government, Bligh was kept under close arrest,

Atkins was suspended from his office as judge-advocate and Captain Abbott appointed in his stead. The magistrates were replaced by gentlemen known to be unfriendly to the deposed Governor; the Provost-Marshall and others who had assisted Atkins in his proceedings were punished by imprisonment; and bonfires and illuminations were made by a large number of the townspeople. On the second of February Macarthur was tried before a tribunal composed of his own friends, Grimes the surveyor-general acting as judge-advocate. He was unanimously acquitted, and ten days afterwards made a magistrate and Secretary of the colony. Towards the end of July, Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph Foveaux who had been absent on leave returned from England and superseded Major Johnston. Foveaux upon being informed of the rebellion determined to take no steps until he should hear from the British Government, to whom he transmitted full accounts of the proceedings of all concerned. Bligh was still kept under arrest, but next year Colonel Paterson returned from Port Dalrymple in T. and superseded Foveaux. Paterson considered it desirable that Bligh should go to England as soon as possible, and as Major Johnston, by recent promotion lieutenant-colonel, accompanied by Macarthur were about to proceed thither to justify themselves as best they might in the inquiry which they knew would be made, Paterson was for sending Bligh in the same vessel. To this Bligh objected, and in deference to his feelings Paterson allowed Johnston and his friend to go alone, and consented to place the *Porpoise* at the late Governor's disposal on certain conditions. These conditions were that Bligh should embark with his family, put to sea and go straight to England without touching at any part of the territory until he received the instructions of the British Government, and that while he remained he would not interfere in the government of the colony. Bligh pledged himself to these conditions but did not keep his word. He not only sent about letters and papers calling on his friends in the town to rise and aid him, but so soon as the vessel was out of Sydney Harbour he had her taken straight to T. where was the new settlement under Collins. Having solemnly pledged his honour as an officer and gentleman to the unequivocal observance of the stipulations made by Lieutenant-Governor Paterson, Bligh no sooner put foot on the deck of the *Porpoise* than he threw his promises to the winds. Lieutenant Kent was the commander of that vessel, and Bligh instantly ordered him to batter down the town of Sydney, and to direct his guns against the merchant ship *Admiral Gambier*, then ready for sea, and in which Johnston and Macarthur had taken passage for England. Kent refused to obey these shameful orders and was placed by Bligh under arrest, ostensibly for having taken the *Porpoise* to Hobart Town to fetch Paterson to Sydney. Kent was in confinement for two years before his trial by court martial took place in

England, when he was acquitted. When the *Porpoise* first reached Hobart Town, Collins went on board and urged Bligh to perform his engagement to put to sea and proceed to England. He also urged him not to interfere in the government of T. This last Bligh promised not to do. Collins vacated Government House and gave it up to Bligh, leaving the usual guard over it. When the deposed Governor had been on shore some days, he caused to be posted on the stumps of some old trees on the parade ground near Government House written papers, inviting all persons who felt themselves in any way aggrieved to apply to him. Collins hearing of this, withdrew the guard from Government House, when Bligh left it, went back on board the *Porpoise* and so remained in the Derwent, or on the coast, till the arrival of Macquarie in December 1809. In the middle of January 1810 Bligh returned and was received with due honours. The colonists seemed glad to have got out of the difficulty into which they had hastily plunged, and the town was given up to feasting and gaiety of all kinds. In May Bligh left for England. Before leaving, his daughter Mrs. Putland was married to Lieutenant O'Connell of the 73rd Regiment (afterwards Sir Maurice O'Connell, and in 1846 Acting Governor of N.S.W.,) and a congratulatory address from 460 colonists and subsequent promotion to the rank of Admiral, served to console him in some degree for the contempt in which his authority had been held. The official inquiry into the circumstances of the rebellion was held in 1811. Colonel Johnston was tried by court-martial and cashiered. He died at his estate, Annandale, near Sydney in 1823. Macarthur who had long quitted the service was interdicted from returning to the colony for eight years. Each party had its supporters, and the publicity given by the trial to the condition and prospects of the colony contributed to bring about a great change in its government and social condition. This change was inaugurated under the rule of Macquarie. Lang takes a more lenient view than the other historians of the colony do of Bligh's character. He insists on it that Bligh was not without kindly feeling; his generous treatment of the Hawkesbury farmers who were ruined by a flood in 1806 showed him to have been warm-hearted in his way; he exerted himself to the utmost both with time and money to alleviate their distress, and he received the special thanks of the English Government for his humanity. But his arbitrary and unamiable manners and his frequent cruelties completely obscured all these better qualities. He caused the convicts to be flogged without mercy for faults which existed only in his own imagination; he bullied his officers, and throughout the colony repeated the same mistakes which had led to the mutiny of the *Bounty*. Lang asserts that Bligh died of a broken heart, worn down by the incessant persecution of his enemies who had "exhausted all the means that the ingenuity of malignity could desire to

ruin his character and render him an object of universal detestation." During the temporary rule of Foveaux and Paterson no incident of any consequence occurred, excepting two floods in the Hawkesbury in May and August 1809, by which great damage was done to property and several lives were lost.

IX. *Governor Macquarie*. — Colonel Lachlan Macquarie arrived on 28th December 1809, accompanied by Ellis Bent, the new Judge-Advocate, and Lieutenant O'Connell with a detachment of the 73rd Regiment. The following extract from his first despatch describes the state of the colony on his arrival:—"I found the colony barely emerging from infantine imbecility, suffering from various privations and disabilities; the country impenetrable beyond forty miles from Sydney; agriculture in a yet languishing state, commerce in its early dawn, revenue unknown; threatened with famine, distracted by faction; the public buildings in a state of dilapidation, the few roads and bridges almost impassable; the population in general depressed by poverty; no credit, public or private; the morals of the great mass of the population in the lowest state of debasement, and religious worship almost totally neglected." Macquarie was the first man of decided talent appointed to office in Australia. The Imperial Government had instructed him to re-instate Bligh for a period of twenty-four hours, in order to indicate that the authorities in England would not suffer the colonists to dictate to them in these matters; but that they reserved completely to themselves the right to appoint and dismiss the Governors. However, as Bligh had by this time gone to T., Macquarie was forced to content himself on his arrival with merely proclaiming what had been his intentions. He at once applied himself with energy and determination to the much-needed reforms and improvements. It was his foible to have his name attached to public works and buildings, but they remain a lasting memorial of his good service to the colony. He insisted on a muster of all the convicts in the Government service in the market-place every Sunday, and marching them attended by their superintendents to church. He commenced an hospital and caused proper burial places to be set apart. The Courts of Law were re-modelled, the town divided into police districts, and tolls were levied to keep the country roads in repair. The great floods which had occurred in 1806 and 1809 had devastated the country; but inducements were held out to foster agriculture and cattle-breeding, and various townships on the Hawkesbury were established during a tour he made in the district. An ardent feeling of philanthropy gave a kindly turn to his restless activity. He built churches and schools; he took the warmest interest in the progress of education and religion; he neglected nothing that could serve to elevate the moral tone of the community. He had sarcastically remarked on one occasion soon after his arrival that the colony consisted of

those "who had been transported and those who ought to have been." Yet Macquarie uniformly showed a kindly disposition towards the convicts. He settled great numbers of them as free men on little farms of their own, and if they did not succeed as well as they might have done it was not for want of advice and assistance from the Governor. The most important result of all this activity was the opening up of new country. He had quite a passion for road-making, and though on his arrival in the colony he found only forty-five miles of what were little better than bush tracks, yet when he left there were over three hundred miles of excellent and substantial roads spreading in all directions from Sydney. He marked out towns—such as Windsor, Richmond and Castlereagh—in suitable places; then by making roads to them he encouraged the freed convicts to leave Sydney and form little communities inland. But his greatest achievement in the way of road-making was the highway across the Blue Mountains. This range had for years presented an insurmountable barrier. Many persons, including the intrepid Bass, had attempted to cross it, but in vain. The only one who succeeded even in penetrating far into that wild and rugged country was a gentleman called Cayley, who stopped at the edge of an enormous precipice, where he could see no way of descending. He erected a pile of stones at this place, which is now called Cayley's Repulse. But in 1813 Wentworth, Lawson and Blaxland succeeded in crossing. After laboriously piercing through the dense timber which covers some of the ranges they traversed a wild and desolate country, sometimes crawling along naked precipices and sometimes lost in stern and bleak ravines, but at length emerging on the beautiful plains to the west. On their return Macquarie sent Surveyor Evans to examine the pass, and the report being favourable he lost no time in commencing to construct a road over the mountains. The difficulties in his way were immense; for fifty miles the road lay through the most rugged country where yawning chasms had to be bridged, and oftentimes the solid rock had to be cut away. Yet in less than fifteen months a good carriage highway stretched from Sydney across the mountains, and the Governor was able to take Mrs. Macquarie on a trip to the fine pasture lands beyond, where he founded a town and named it Bathurst after Lord Bathurst the Secretary of State. This was a measure of great importance to the colony, for the country between the mountains and the sea was too limited and too much subject to droughts to maintain the two hundred and fifty thousand sheep which the prosperous colonists possessed. By his energy new life was infused into all ranks. The port-dues of Sydney rose in the period of his administration—1810 to 1822—from £8000 to £30,000 per annum. Public buildings falling into ruin and a few wretched roads gave place to commodious and substantial works. The corner was turned. Men went home with

fortunes made in much-maligned Botany Bay. People who had gone out poor emigrants counted their acres and their flocks by thousands, and the colonists generally were comparatively opulent and happy. The first church erected in Australia by voluntary subscriptions, at a cost of more than £400, was the work of a dozen free-emigrant families of Presbyterians who had settled in 1809 on their hundred-acre grants at Portland Head on the banks of the Hawkesbury. It was situated on a rising ground on the edge of the forest, and overlooking a beautiful and romantic reach of the noble river, and the fertile fields around for thirty years after gave successive crops of wheat every year. In November 1811 Macquarie paid a visit to Hobart Town and marked out the site of George Town at Port Dalrymple, as Launceston was then called. On his return he landed at Port Stephens and Newcastle. In the month of March another destructive flood occurred at the Hawkesbury, which destroyed the maize crops; and great storms also prevailed in the following year by which several small coasting craft were lost. The trade in seal skins, which had risen to an important item of revenue, falling off, some temporary inconvenience in the currency was felt, owing to the constant drain on the sterling coin caused by the necessary purchase of supplies for the colony. This scarcity of money depreciated the currency as low as 15s. in the pound, and as an expedient five shilling promissory notes, payable in copper coin were issued; a circular piece punched out of the centre of the Spanish dollar and known as a "dumps," passing current at 15d.—the remainder of the coin known as the "holey dollar" representing 5s. In 1814 some convicts employed in cutting a road to Bathurst are said to have found a considerable quantity of gold, and were only compelled to keep silence on the point by menaces and flogging, such was the horror of the anticipated effects of a gold mania under the circumstances of the colony. At this time the colony was divided into two parties, who hated each other with an intense bitterness. Macquarie gave great offence to the free settlers (or "Pure Merinos") by his encouragement of deserving individuals amongst the emancipist class. The first individual selected for favour was a Scotchman, Andrew Thompson, transported at sixteen years of age, probably for some trifling offence. He had not only attained wealth and developed new sources of commerce for the colony by building coasting vessels, by establishing salt-works and other useful enterprises, but had distinguished himself by his humanity and general good conduct. In the *Sydney Gazette* of 11th May 1806 we find Thompson permitted to purchase brewing utensils from the Government stores at the usual advance of fifty per cent. on the invoice price, with the privilege of brewing beer, in consideration of his useful and humane conduct in saving the lives and much of the property of sufferers by repeated floods of the Hawkesbury, as well as of his general demeanour. Macquarie

within two months after his arrival created Thompson a magistrate, and repeatedly invited him and other emancipists of similar success and conduct to dine at Government House, in spite of the remonstrances of the free inhabitants, of the officers of the 43rd Regiment (which succeeded the 73rd,) and hints from the Colonial Office. Macquarie commenced by employing the convict labourers not required by settlers in making roads and erecting and repairing public buildings. On the first harvest after his arrival, to the horror of the martinets, he permitted the privates of the 73rd Regiment to hire themselves out as reapers, to be paid in grain or money, the price of wheat at that time being £1 3s. 6d. a bushel. At the same time he patronised amusements which the high price of provisions did not prevent the wealthier classes from establishing. The *New South Wales Gazette* of October contains an account of three days' racing, conducted in Newmarket style, followed by an ordinary and two balls, the principal prize, a lady's cup, being "presented to the winner by Mrs. Macquarie." The whole proceedings are related in a style which would leave nothing to be desired in the *Little Pedlington Gazette*. For instance:—"The subscribers' ball on Tuesday and Thursday night was honoured with the presence of His Excellency the Governor and his lady, His Honor the Lieutenant-Governor and lady, the Judge-Advocate and lady, the magistrates and other officers, civil and military, and all the beauty and fashion of the colony. The business of the meeting could not fail of diffusing a glew of satisfaction—the celebration of the first liberal amusement instituted in the colony in the presence of its patron and founder." A supper followed the ball:—"After the cloth was removed the rosy deity asserted his pre-eminence, and with the zealous aid of Momus and Apollo chased pale Cynthia down into the Western World; the blazing orb of day announced his near approach, and the god of the chariot reluctantly forsook his company; Bacchus dropped his head, Momus could no longer animate. The *bons vivants*, no longer relishing the tired deities, left them to themselves!" In December 1810 the first brick church built in Sydney (St. Philip's) was consecrated on Christmas Day by the Rev. Samuel Marsden—a name from that time forward constantly occupying a conspicuous place in the annals of the colony. In 1812 a committee of the House of Commons, appointed to inquire into the state of the colony, after examining a number of witnesses, including the ex-Governors King and Bligh, printed a report from which it appears that the population amounted to 10,454, distributed in the following proportions:—The Sydney district 6158; Parramatta 1807; Hawkesbury 2389; Newcastle 100; of these 5513 were men, and 2200 women; military 1100; of the remainder one-fourth to one-fifth was actually bond; the rest being free or freed by servitude or pardon. In addition 1321 were living in V.D.L., and 177 in Norfolk

Island, but orders had been sent out to compel the voluntary settlers who had adhered to that island after the government establishment had been removed to withdraw. The ground in actual cultivation was 21,000 acres and 74,000 were held in pasture. The stock in the hands chiefly of the settlers was considerable, but it was still necessary to continue the importation of salt provisions. The currency of the colony was in government paper and copper money, but barter was the principal medium of sale; and wheat and cattle had been recognised by the court of justice as legal tenders in payment of debts. The exportations of the colony consisted principally of whale oil, seal skins, coals and wool. The iron ore of which there was abundance had not been worked. The trade in skins and coal was limited by the monopoly of the East India Company. Sheep were not sufficiently numerous to make wool an article of large exportation. The culture of hemp had been less attended to than might have been expected. An illegal trade in sandal-wood had at times been carried on with the South Sea Islands and China. Mercantile speculation had been discouraged by impolitic regulations. For many years a maximum price was imposed by the Governor upon all imported merchandise, often too low to afford a fair profit to the trader; at this price the whole cargo was distributed amongst the civil and military officers of the settlement who alone had liberty to purchase; and articles of the first necessity were afterwards retailed by them at an enormous profit to the poorer settlers. The imposition of a maximum price on imported articles, and on the price of grain and butcher's meat had been discontinued, and the attempt to limit the price of labour had failed. The trade in spirits was reported as a great difficulty. The defects of the system of criminal jurisdiction by court-martial, and civil jurisdiction without legal assistance or juries are described; and the report states that the Governor uncontrolled by any council had power to pardon all offences except treason and murder; to impose customs duties, to grant lands, and to issue colonial regulations; and for the breach of these regulations to inflict a punishment of 500 lashes and a fine of £100. The Committee recommended that a council should be given to the Governor. With regard to grants of land they reported that, according to evidence, a retiring Governor had granted 1000 acres to his successor, who had returned the compliment by a similar grant immediately after being installed in office. Free settlers latterly had not been permitted to emigrate to N.S.W. without giving proof that they were possessed of a certain capital. On their arrival they usually received a grant of land in proportion to their means. This report, which also entered at considerable length into the treatment of convicts, directed public attention to the colony, and the result was to induce the Imperial Government to appoint a judge, with two magistrates chosen in rotation,

who composed a supreme court *in civil and criminal cases; and in V.D.L., as well as N.S.W., a fifty-pound civil court with appeal was formed, with the Judge-Advocate as sole judge. This was the first step toward meliorating the absolute despotism under which the free settlers had hitherto lived. Measures were also taken for removing the restrictions on commerce with V.D.L., and abolishing trade monopolies; but Macquarie's protests against the interference or assistance of a council prevailed, and he was enabled to pursue his plans with that concentrated vigour which is the one advantage of an enlightened despotism. To enumerate all the public works which Macquarie executed would be tedious. It is sufficient to state that while he erected many substantial if not elegant buildings in Sydney, he took care by well-devised roads to render available all the cultivable land and pastures to be found within as much of the territory as had been explored. The settlers imbibed his spirit of progress and imitated his energy; flocks and herds increased to a great extent, although the sheep were for the greater part of an inferior breed, a mixture of the hairy Bengal and heavy-tailed Cape, whose wool was worthless for export. But Macarthur, whose efforts had been neglected and repressed by previous Governors, was steadily pursuing his great idea of naturalising the "noble race," or Spanish merino on the plains of A. In December 1812 the *Sydney Gazette* reports that ten rams of the merino breed, lately sold by auction from the flocks of John Macarthur, produced upwards of 200 guineas; and that "several coats made entirely of the wool of N.S.W. are now in this country, and are of most excellent quality." He also established in 1816 the almost equally profitable pursuit of vine-growing. Having visited France in 1815, he acquired information as to the rural economy of the provinces of Southern Europe, particularly as regards the cultivation of the vine and olive. He collected cuttings from the most celebrated vineyards of Burgundy, Champagne and Languedoc, as well as olive trees of the finest varieties, and planted the first Australian vineyard in his estate at Camden Park. Australian wine soon became favourably known, and says Therry, "at the great exhibition in Paris in 1851 wine made from the muscat grape of Camden ranked high among the best wines of the continent." The successful expeditions of Evans across the Blue Mountains inspired the colonists to undertake similar enterprises in other directions. Hamilton Hume and his brother in 1814 and Oxley in 1817 and 1818 opened up large breadths of new territory to settlement. In 1816 the lighthouse at South Head, Sydney, was commenced. The same year the Bank of New South Wales was established. The natives were very troublesome, and a law was passed prohibiting their approach to any town in larger numbers than six at one time. From the foundation of the colony to the end of Macquarie's administration about 400,000 acres of land were

granted to private individuals. Of these, in course of time, many town lots became of enormous value, as likewise some of the country land; but much was barren and not worth cultivation when better land was rendered accessible by roads. In 1817 the first Judge, Baron Field, arrived; a branch of the Bible Society was established; and a Roman Catholic priest, Father O'Flynn, landed and spent some time in the colony, but not having been duly authorised by the Home Government he was compelled to return. In 1819 arrived a commissioner of inquiry, John Thomas Bigge and his secretary, Thomas Hobbs Scott. He remained until February 1821, having collected a body of evidence, which was afterwards printed for the use of the House of Commons. It contains many curious stories. The publication of this report had a considerable effect in directing the attention of the British public to the resources of Australia, and eventually caused the influx of a superior class of emigrants. But it was not until Governor Darling's time that the demand for convict labourers on terms then in force began to exceed the supply. Colonists, chiefly the Scotchmen, discovered the advantage of agricultural pursuits in a colony in which, with a grant of land, they became entitled to rations for twelve months for themselves and their wives, and convict labourers at the rate of one for each thirty acres, who were also rationed by the government for the space of eighteen months. The inquiry by Commissioner Bigge was partly owing to the representations made in the work published by William Wentworth during a visit paid to England for the purpose of being called to the bar. Among other subjects that came under the notice of the commissioner was the ecclesiastical government of N.S.W. The report of Bigge recommended the appointment of an archdeacon. Mr. Scott, the secretary, lost no time in taking orders, and in 1825 reappeared in the colony as Archdeacon Scott. In the year that the royal commissioner quitted the colony a Wesleyan chapel was opened and the foundation stone of a Roman Catholic cathedral was laid by the Governor at the request of Father Therry, who shared with Parson Cowper the respect and affection of the poorer colonists, and of the prisoner population whom they faithfully tended. The element policy of Macquarie had borne fruit, and the colonists still kept up their two factions. It has been said that he found a garrison, and left the deep and broad foundations of an empire. Before his time the settlements were huddled camps. At the close of his administration in December 1821, after a government of twelve years, the weight of his personal influence and his unceasing efforts had carried the day against the opponents of his more merciful views. His conduct in the appointment of magistrates has already been noticed. The case of Redfern illustrates the difficulties he encountered in giving effect to his policy. Redfern was a young surgeon on board a ship at the Mutiny at the Nore. He had expressed

some sympathy with the mutineers, was tried, and sent out for life. His breeding and attainments entitled him to favourable consideration, and his conduct in the colony had been exemplary. Macquarie made him a magistrate and invited him to his table, as also did the Colonel of the 48th Regiment. But some of the young officers refused to sit at mess with him. Hence arose a bitter feud, in which the Rev. Samuel Marsden took a leading part against the Governor. So deeply were party feelings aroused that the bitterest things were said on both sides. The feud resulted in the Governor striking Marsden's name out of the commission of the peace, to the great joy of his opponents. In 1821 there was a population in the colony of nearly 30,000, of whom the great proportion had been expatriated for offences against the law. This class had now become possessed of property to a large amount. In 1820 the Emancipists had nearly 93,000 acres of land under cultivation and owned 40,000 head of horned cattle and 221,000 sheep. In short, to them the Governor said N.S.W. "owed its existence as a colony." But the general state of morals in the colony it must be added was shocking, almost beyond description. Macquarie was superseded by Sir Thomas Brisbane in December 1821. Towards the end of his government he was beset with the incessant efforts of Marsden and others to depreciate his capacity as a ruler. The causes of his removal are stated to have been his excessive expenditure on what was called "the ornamental architecture of Botany Bay"—the waste in the public stores, and the disregard of cleanliness, propriety and decency in prison management. The public works of Macquarie in Sydney and in V.D.L. excite astonishment. In his administration 276 miles of roads were constructed, and along these substantial wooden bridges were placed where required. The list of works includes barracks for troops, stores for provisions, hospitals, public offices, churches, school-houses, quays, wharfs, watch-houses and police-offices. It fills ten closely-printed pages of a Parliamentary Report and includes not fewer than 250 items. "In short," says Lang, "if bricks and mortar could have insured immortality Macquarie erected public buildings enough to render his colonial fame imperishable." The rapidly-increasing wealth of the colony and its vast resources became the theme of constant allusion in the mother country. Bigge's reports; an able history of N.S.W. written by W. C. Wentworth; speeches in the House of Commons; and the brilliant writings of the Rev. Sydney Smith, contributed to this not a little. On 1st December 1821 Major-General Sir Thomas Brisbane, who had arrived in the *Royal George*, read his commission as Governor in Hyde Park, Sydney, and Macquarie bade the colonists farewell in a speech that showed his regret at leaving a country for which he had done so much, and the wound his pride had received in the manner of leaving it. He departed

in February 1822, and died in Scotland in 1824 apparently never having recovered his equanimity. Macquarie was distinguished by his self-reliance and constant energetic action. If the comparison had not been vulgarised, one might liken him, comparing small with great, to Napoleon. His was the same order of mind—views narrow but clear—essentially a materialist in politics. In N.S.W. wealth was the visible sign of success, and Macquarie rewarded success wherever he found it. He made roads, erected public buildings, and again and again traversed the whole length and breadth of the colony, following closely on the footsteps of new explorers, distributing grants to skilful settlers, planning townships, and pardoning industrious prisoners. His activity was untiring, his vanity boundless. He seldom condescended to ask advice, and when he did generally followed his own opinion. With charming *naïveté* he observes, in answer to a despatch from the Secretary of State, informing him that it was *not* the intention of the Government to appoint a council to assist the Governor, as had been recommended: "I entertain a fond hope that such an institution will never be extended to this colony." Even the recommendations of Secretaries of State he disregarded; and as he was successful he was permitted to pursue his own course. He infused his own active spirit into the settlers, and under its influence the material progress of the colony was extraordinary. But the moral, not to say the religious tone of the settlement owed little to his care. One instance will suffice. He requested in one of his despatches that as many men convicts as possible should be transported, as they were useful for labour, but as few women, as they were costly and troublesome; thus losing sight altogether of the inevitable demoralisation which must be the result of a community of men.

X. *Governor Brisbane*.—The successor of Macquarie was Major-General Sir Thomas Brisbane, K.C.B., who assumed the reins of Government on the 1st December 1821. Sprung from an ancient family of high standing in the west of Scotland, of approved valour and ability as a General officer in the army, and distinguished amongst military men and men of rank by the fame of his scientific acquirements in the department of astronomy, his appointment was universally regarded as a circumstance of the happiest omen in the colony, and the most sanguine anticipations were formed of its rapid progress and general advancement under his administration. Dr. Lang remarks that he was a sharer in these anticipations, all the more that his forefathers had been possessed of a property which had originally formed a part of the estate of the Brisbane family. He adds that he is reluctantly compelled to acknowledge that his high anticipations of the blessing to follow from Brisbane's rule were but indifferently realised. Under any circumstances the task before the new Governor would have been a difficult one. The division of classes in the colony was broadly

marked, and the mutual hatred of the two factions was more intense than ever. The colonists besides were beginning to feel the desire for freedom from the bonds that held them in political slavery. From the day of Macquarie's departure a struggle commenced between the people and the Government, which was carried on until the concession of full powers of self-government and self-taxation to the Australian colonists. The epoch of purely military despotism was fast passing away. Even commercial liberty yet remained to be gained. The East India Company claimed the monopoly of trading in the Indian seas, and repeatedly asserted their right by confiscating vessels loaded with produce for Port Jackson. In 1824 the captain of a man-of-war actually seized the ship *Almorah*, with a valuable cargo of tea and rice, at anchor in Sydney Cove, and sent her as a prize to Calcutta in charge of his lieutenant. Brisbane had acquired a high reputation as a soldier in the Peninsula; but his government, which lasted four years, was unpopular, and the political concessions made rendered further concessions inevitable. To this fire was added the fuel of grievances which went home to the pockets of almost all the settlers and traders; and an insult which deeply offended a powerful, united and intelligent religious community. The Scotch Presbyterians applied in 1823 for assistance to build a Presbyterian Church in Sydney, and referred pointedly to the support afforded the Roman Catholics. The tone of the application appears not to have pleased either the Governor or his secretary, and he returned a bitter reply, of which the following is the concluding paragraph:—"When therefore the Presbyterians of the colony shall have advanced by private donations in the erection of a temple worthy of religion; when in the choice of their teachers they shall have discovered a judgment equal to that which has presided at the selection of the Roman Catholic clergymen; when they shall have practised what they propose, 'To instruct the people to fear God and honour the king;' when by endeavouring to 'keep the unity of the spirit in the bond of peace' in a colony requiring it more than all others, they shall have shown through their lives the influence of the holy religion they profess, then assuredly will the colonial executive step forward to extend its countenance and support to those who are following the Presbyterian Creed." The Governor it is said acted under the advice of his secretary a gentleman of the old Tory school. The Scotch gentlemen applied to the Home Government, and the Governor received a severe reprimand and the Presbyterians the aid they required. Brisbane's financial measures were equally unfortunate, yet there is no reason to question the purity of his motives. It had been usual under previous Governors to purchase the surplus grain from farmers at the current price of the day. The colonial Government was almost the only purchaser, and to Government the corn-growers

looked for a certain share of their profits. Among the smaller settlers, the only cash they received in the course of the year was from the commissariat. This was the latter phase of a system which began with rationing the whole community, and gave liberty to prisoners who undertook to support themselves, which in its second stage willingly provided a free and emancipated settler with land and prisoner labour, and purchased the produce of land so tilled to feed the prisoners whom the settlers could not employ. Brisbane, who arrived with Commissioner Bigge's report hanging over him, adopted the ordinary contract system and invited tenders for the quantity required at the lowest price. The small farmers unused to calculate the effects of open competition, rushed forward to the stores with such eagerness that wheat fell from 10s. and 7s. 6d. a bushel to 3s. 9d. Abstractly Brisbane was right, practically he was wrong; so serious a change required care and time. About the same time the Governor established a colonial currency which raised the pound sterling twenty-five per cent., and proceeded to pay Government debts in colonial money to parties who had contracted debts in sterling currency;—a revival of the system of depreciating the circulating medium obsolete in England, but still practised by continental monarchs. The colonists seeing the price at which wheat was transferred to the Government stores took it for granted that the harvest had been redundant, proceeded to feed pigs, and otherwise expended the unsold proceeds of their harvest. As the season advanced it was discovered that the harvest so far from being plentiful was deficient. Wheat rose to £1 4s. a bushel. Those who had sold cheap had to buy at a high price. The tampering with the currency added to the severity of the crisis. A great flood swept away the finest crops on the Hawkesbury. A famine followed; the Government by proclamation required that cabbage-stalks should not be rooted up. A large body of small farmers became so insolvent that their farms were sold to pay their debts, and passed into the hands of money-lenders and grogshopkeepers. The discontent of the colonists reacted on the Home Government, and Brisbane was recalled on the 1st December 1825. Four very important discoveries were made during his administration. In 1823 the Maneroo Plains, situated between two and three thousand feet above the level of the sea, separated from Twofold Bay by a lofty range of mountains over which there is now a dray-track, were explored by Captain Currie R.N. who named them Brisbane Downs, but they have since reverted to their native name. In the same year Oxley the Surveyor-General by order of Brisbane explored Moreton Bay and discovered the navigable river Brisbane. In the following year Hovell and Hume made their overland journey to Port Phillip; and in 1825 Allan Cunningham, one of the most enterprising and accomplished of Australian explorers, discovered Pandora's Pass, a cleft than

which the Alps offer nothing more wild, more imposing or more picturesque, affording the only practicable road from the Upper Hunter to the pastoral uplands of Liverpool Plains. But during the rule of Brisbane great strides were made. The export in wool, which in 1820 amounted to less than 100,000 lbs. weight, rose in two and a-half years to nearly half a million of pounds. The free settlers who now began to pour into the colony, allured by the cheapness of labour and the grants of land commensurate with the capital brought with them, clustered on the country adjoining the Cowpastures, on the Bathurst plains, or along the rich banks of the Hunter and its tributaries. The very distance from the old country brought out a more enterprising class of colonists than those who flocked to America. Ten ships left the ports of N.S.W. this year freighted with colonial produce. At Sydney the Agricultural Society and the Sydney Institution were founded, and the Governor, as President of the Philosophical Institute, affixed a tablet at Botany Bay commemorative of the landing of Cook and Banks. A pair of merino rams were sold for £500. The net cost of the colony to the Crown, including the transportation account, was £366,000. The year after his arrival Brisbane gave effect to his taste in the foundation of the Parramatta Observatory, of which Carl M. Rümker was the first director; the Governor himself assisting at the catalogue of the stars in the clear southern skies, a work which gained him the medal of the Astronomical Society and the warm commendation of Herschel. The Observatory was dismantled in 1847, and astronomy received little attention till Governor Denison, in 1855, brought the matter before the Legislature. A liberal sum was voted, a National Observatory erected, and the Rev. W. Scott, M.A., was appointed the first astronomer. In 1858 a transit circle was obtained from England, and regular observations commenced in June 1859. The reports of the cedar-log woodcutters had induced the Government in 1822 to form a small settlement for doubly-convicted offenders at Port Macquarie, at the mouth of the Hastings, where at present there is a thriving sugar-growing industry; but subsequently the establishment was removed. In searching for a suitable place, Oxley in December 1823 met at Moreton Bay with a white man among the natives named Pamphlet, who had been cast away eight months previously. From him he learned of the existence of the fine river which he proceeded to explore, and named the Brisbane. In the August following a detachment under Lieutenant Miller, and a large number of prisoners, formed the intended penal settlement at that place. A new settlement was formed in February at Wellington Valley. In October 1823 the Royal Veterans—a remnant of the old N.S.W. Corps—were disbanded and replaced by the 3rd Regiment, only four soldiers of the old corps availing themselves of the offer to return home. Several vineyards were planted. In July the old court with

its military functions was superseded, and the great boon of a Supreme Court and trial by jury was granted by an Imperial Act (4 Geo. IV., c. 96.) In the following year Mr. Forbes, afterwards Sir Francis Forbes, arrived to carry out its provisions. Bannister the new Attorney-General; Lalcombe the new Colonial Treasurer; and Sir. T. L. Pedder, and Gellibrand the new Chief Justice and Attorney-General for Hobart Town, arrived this year; as also the Rev. Dr. Lang. In September 1824 a settlement was formed, with Captain Barlow as Commandant, by Captain Sir Gordon Bremer of H.M.S. *Tamar* on Melville Island, which after a languid existence had to be abandoned from the unhealthiness of the locality in 1829. Meantime another settlement had been made in Raffles Bay under Captain Barker, which after a struggle of three years against terrible difficulties, had to be given up, and in 1829 the whole north coast of Anstralia was abandoned, and so remained until a recent date. An important step towards constitutional freedom in N.S.W. was made by the institution of a Legislative Council in August 1824. The members nominated were Stewart, Lieutenant-Governor; Forbes, Chief Justice; Goulbourn, Colonial Secretary; Bowman, Principal Surgeon; Oxley, Surveyor-General; and John Macarthur, in compliment to the civilians. In the following October another important event took place in the formal concession of the liberty of the Press; and Howe's journal, the *Sydney Gazette*, was speedily rivalled by the *Australian*, edited by Dr. Wardell and W. C. Wentworth; and the *Monitor*, conducted by Mr. Hall. Brisbane being desirous of ascertaining if any large rivers disembogued on the eastern coast, an expedition was planned with the purpose of reaching Western Port. Thus began the first Overlanders. Brisbane's four years term of office having expired, the reins of government were temporarily transferred to Colonel Stewart of the 3rd Regiment, and arrangements were made to bid him farewell by some of the leading civil and military colonists, known in those days as the "exclusionists," "aristocrats," or "pure merinos." Offended at their exclusion, the other party also invited him, and the first banquet fell through. Brisbane sailed in December 1825, and three weeks later his successor, Lieutenant-General Ralph Darling, arrived. Lang credits Brisbane with good intentions, but adds that he was constitutionally disinclined to business and singularly deficient of that energy of mind which was requisite to carry his purposes into action. The blame of the acts of injustice and oppression that occurred during his rule is ascribed to his having entrusted the business of administration to irresponsible inferiors, destitute of integrity. A despicable system of espionage sprung up. Servility and treachery were fostered and encouraged. In every respect, it must be admitted, the administration of Brisbane was a failure.

XI. *Governor Darling*.—Lieutenant-General Sir Ralph Darling, seventh Governor, assumed office

on 19th December 1825. His administration lasted six years, and was singularly and deservedly unpopular. He was a man of forms and precedents, of the true red-tape school, exact, punctual, industrious, arbitrary, commonplace. He laboured hard to reduce into order the confusion he found in the public offices of the colony, and substituted a system which became quite as corrupt and more dilatory. It was like changing from the court of a Turkish *cadi* to the Court of Chancery. He obstinately evaded the control intended to be imposed on him by the secret official and nominee council, and perpetrated one act of tyranny which has no parallel in English history since the time of Charles I. and the Star Chamber. The red-tape tendencies of Darling were shown in his management of the waste lands of the colony. N.S.W. became in the last year of Brisbane's rule the subject of the operations of a great company, incorporated by charter and by Act of Parliament, with a directorate including the "best men" of the city of London, a capital of a million sterling, a grant of a million acres, and various other privileges and pre-emptions, of which a monopoly of the working and sale of coal eventually proved the most profitable to the shareholders and offensive to the colonists. Under Darling the agents of this Australian Agricultural Company selected, took possession, and commenced operations on their grant. The directors of the company, in their original prospectus, represented N.S.W. as well calculated for the growth of "timber, wheat, tobacco, hemp, flax and fruits, amongst which are the olive, grape, fig, mulberry, guava, almond, peach, citron and orange." They derived their information chiefly from the reports of Commissioner Bigge; and from the same source rested great hopes of profit from the growth of fine merino wool, the breeding of cattle and other live stock, and the raising corn, tobacco, &c., for the supply of persons resident in the colony; the production at a more distant time of wine, olive oil, hemp, flax, silk, opium, &c., as articles of export to Great Britain; a progressive advance in the value of land as it becomes improved, and by an increased population. The grant of land was made on the ground that the colony would derive advantage from the importation of so large a capital invested in cattle, horses, and sheep of the Cheviot breeds; in the cultivation of the produce of southern Europe; and that the mother country would be saved the cost of maintaining a certain number of convicts. At that period it was still so much an object with the Government to relieve itself of the cost of the maintenance of criminals, that it was agreed that the company should be relieved of quit-rent on condition of their employing a certain number of prisoners. But from the period of the grant to the company the value of convict labour rose so rapidly that they were never able to obtain the stipulated number of servants. In 1830 the editor of the *Sydney Monitor* proposed that convicts should be sold on arrival to the highest

bidder, and anticipated that they would realise, in lots of two hundred, £100 a-year each for five or ten years! In the course of the correspondence with the company, the Secretary of State for the Colonies announced that in future, "instead of giving grants of land free, lands were to be put up to sale according to a valuation of the Surveyor-General, similar in many respects to the system adopted in the United States of America." This plan had been suggested by Commissioner Bigge, with a price of 10s. an acre for lands near towns and 5s. an acre in the country. Unfortunately the example of the company infected many Members of Parliament and other persons of influence, who hastened to obtain grants which cost the minister nothing and appeared to the granters of immense value—a delusion on both sides. The precedent became most embarrassing to the Government, while many of the huge blocks were of very little money value to the absentees and of great disadvantage to the colony. As to the company, their proceedings created, in the then state of the colony, a financial revolution. They sent out from England a numerous staff of officers, with cargoes of implements and breeding stock on a most costly scale, and purchased ewes and heifers in the colony so largely that prices were raised nearly two hundred per cent. "The company with the long pocket" was a popular toast at colonial dinners, and sellers were never wanting as long as they had any money to invest. A reaction followed; but the colony derived advantage from the introduction of the Company's capital and superior stock in sheep, horses, and cattle. The grand ideas of vineyards, olive oil, opium, silkworm cultivation and orange groves, which formed applauded passages in speeches in the House of Commons and the courtroom of the company, were never extended beyond the resident manager's gardens. Unfortunately the beneficial influences were neutralised by a further grant which not only handed over the large tract of coal seams which had been unprofitably worked by the Government, but actually created a monopoly which precluded the colonists from working on any terms any coal which might happen to be found under their estates. In the same perverse spirit the authorities and merchants at Sydney up to 1826 compelled every ship to enter and break bulk at Sydney before calling at the ports of V.D.L. Under Darling emigration from England of persons of moderate capital increased. But a vicious system was established in the surveyor's office for the benefit of favoured or feeing parties, by which surveys of waste land were kept secret from the uninitiated. In 1830 the author of "A Letter of Advice to Emigrants" recommends "every settler to bring out an order from the Secretary of State to be allowed to inspect charts and maps in the surveyor's office;" and adds, "from being denied such inspection emigrants wander about the interior of the colony at great expense but to little purpose." Darling ruled the convicts with a rod of iron. The times

of the "first fleeters," with flogging and short allowances of food, were revived. A penal settlement was formed at Moreton Bay; and there it is affirmed the prisoners were so badly treated that they committed murder in order to be sent for trial to Sydney. County magistrates were permitted to award any number of lashes for insolence, idleness, or other indefinite offences. As it was not lawful for a man to flog his own assigned servants he exchanged compliments with a neighbour. Considering the class of persons who were then frequently selected for magistrates in the colonies it may easily be conceived to what brutal excesses such irresponsible authority led. But year by year the civilising elements of society made way. In 1826 a dispensary was opened; in the following year a great public meeting was held, with the sheriff in the chair, to petition the King and both Houses of Parliament for the civil rights of trial by jury and a House of Assembly; and the next year a general post-office throughout the colony, and an Australian jockey club, were established. The editor of a newspaper was found guilty of libel, and two gentlemen fought a bloodless duel. The two last years of Governor Darling present events and contrasts still more remarkable. A Legislative Council, being a step in advance of the Executive Council established by the charter of 1824, held its first meeting in 1829. This was the check against which Macquarie so earnestly protested. The Council consisted of Archdeacon (the late Bishop) Broughton, who superseded Mr. Scott, the Commander of the Forces, the Chief Justice, Attorney-General, and Colonial Treasurer, Alexander Macleay, afterwards (at eighty years of age) the first speaker of the first Australian Legislative Assembly, and four members selected by the Governor. The proceedings of this Council were secret, under an oath administered to that intent; and the Governor had an absolute veto. The majority were officials totally unacquainted with the colony; and looking at the minority in which the nominees of the Government were constantly found in the subsequent open Legislative Assembly, it is not extraordinary that this Council gave no satisfaction to the colony. It must however be confessed that in 1829 N.S.W. did not possess the materials for representative institutions. The first act of the Council was to establish trial by jury in civil cases. In the following year, on 31st March 1831, the first steam-boat in Australia was launched; two other steam-boats came into use within a few months. The revenue of the colony had reached in 1825, the sum of £71,682 and the expenditure £82,000. Sixteen ships of 5500 tons had cleared out during the previous year from Sydney and Hobart Town for Great Britain, with cargoes of produce valued at £100,000. The imports in 1825 reached £300,000. The population was 33,675. The number of sheep was 237,622, and of horned cattle 134,519. The land in cultivation was 45,514 acres and the wool exported was 411,600 lbs. Nearly thirty whalers

sailed out of Sydney, and many others were employed in collecting sandal-wood, pearl-shells, *bêche-de-mer* and other produce of the islands of the Pacific. On assuming the government of the colony Darling's first act was to re-model and re-organise all departments of the public service. He was perhaps harsh in his proceedings and this and many other acts were viewed with disfavour by the "emancipists." In 1825 the mania for joint-stock companies occurred in England, and its effects were felt in the colony in an eager desire to enter into speculations in stock. "The soldier unbuckled his belt to become a keeper of sheep, and the priest forsook his altar to become a herdsman of cattle." A drought of three years ensued, a financial crash followed, and cattle fell from pounds to shillings. The Governor reduced the compulsory scale of rations issued to assigned servants, in consequence of the scarcity, and of course became still more unpopular. The history of Darling's administration reads more like that of one of Napoleon's pro-consuls than that of an Englishman reigning over Englishmen. The case of Sudds and Thompson is an instance which stands out in the history of the colony as a sort of landmark indicating the termination of the Algerine system of government, and affording a singular example of the state of society in which such an outrage on law, justice and constitutional rights could be not only done but defended. These were two soldiers of the 57th Regiment who committed a theft for the express purpose of getting themselves convicted, thinking thus to better their condition. They were sentenced to seven years at Moreton Bay. Darling fearing that the example of insubordination might spread ordered them to be taken from the civil power, changed their sentence to seven years hard labour in irons, and directed that they should be sent back to the regiment at the expiration of their term of imprisonment. They were then stripped of their uniform before their assembled comrades, dressed in prison clothes, and iron collars with projecting spikes riveted round their necks attached to fetters and chains on their legs. "The projecting irons," says Thompson, "would not allow me to stretch at full length on my back—I could only sleep on my back and sides by contracting my legs. I could not stand upright with the irons on—the chains were too short—Sudds' collar was too small for his neck." Under this treatment Sudds died, to the consternation of all concerned. It was endeavoured to account for his death by attributing it to dropsy. A medical examination disclosed no disease. The irons were not to be found when the public inquiry took place. Wentworth drew up a formal impeachment against the Governor, and repeated attempts were made to bring the matter before the House of Commons. At length, in 1835, a committee of inquiry was granted and Darling was acquitted. Darling was never popular. During the greater part of his period of office intrigues were continually on foot to obtain his

recall; and from this state of feeling there arose what was called the newspaper war, which lasted for four years with great violence. The first Australian newspaper, established in 1803 by Howe, was in a great measure supported by the patronage of the Government, and the Governors always exercised the right of forbidding the insertion of what they disliked. Hence this paper, the *Sydney Gazette*, was considered to be the Government organ, and accordingly its opinions of the Governors and their acts were greatly mistrusted. But during the time of Brisbane an independent newspaper, the *Australian*, was established by Wentworth and Wardell; and a second of the same kind soon followed, named the *Monitor*. These papers found it to their advantage during the unpopularity of Darling to criticise severely the acts of the Governor, who was defended by the *Gazette* with intemperate zeal. This altercation had lasted for some time, when the case of Sudds and Thompson occurred, and a fierce warfare was waged over it by the two parties. Darling's whole system was a compound of military despotism and bureaucracy; but it would be unjust to consider his sentence in this case by the light of public opinion in England. He was Governor of a colony in which more than half the community were criminals; he had to punish and to arrest the progress of a dangerous crime; but he fell into the error of exercising, by *ex post facto* decree, as the representative of the Sovereign, powers which no Sovereign has exercised since the time of Henry VIII.; and he violated one of the cardinal principles of the British constitution by re-judging and aggravating the punishment of men who had already been judged. The next error of the Governor was an attempt to restrict the liberty of the press, in which he was foiled by the firmness of Chief Justice Forbes. His despotic character embroiled him further in a large number of prosecutions against newspapers for libel, and his chief adviser, Archdeacon Scott, who had been called by one journal "not a man of peace," resented the remark by ordering the pew of the offending editor to be "decked over" to prevent its being occupied. In 1826 a Chamber of Commerce was established; the first regular inland mail service was started; and the first steps were taken towards colonising N.Z. by an English company under the protection of the Sydney Government. The Bank of Australasia was this year established. In 1827 the important work of supplying the city with fresh water from Botany was commenced by Mr. Busby, and the question of entirely civil trial by jury and a representative House of Assembly was much agitated. The former privilege was not obtained until 1832, but the abolition of military juries was a great stride to political freedom. The alarm caused by the reported intention of the French to found a settlement on the Australian shores induced Darling to send a detachment of soldiers under Major Lockyer to King George's Sound, where a site for a township was chosen at Albany. This

military post was maintained for four years, when in 1830, after the foundation of the colony of W.A., it was transferred to the Government at Swan River. Another establishment was also formed under Captain Bishop in the fine district of Illawarra. In addition to the five new settlements—at Port Macquarie, Moreton Bay, Melville Island, King George's Sound and Western Port—formed in the years 1824-5-6, the Penal settlement at Norfolk Island was also revived. A census taken in 1828 gave the population of the colony as 36,598; horned cattle, 262,868; sheep, 536,391; land in cultivation, 71,523 acres; value of wool exported, £40,851; whale oil ditto, £26,431. In 1830 the increase in the stock beyond the demand became a source of anxiety, and suggestions were made to export cargoes to the West India Islands in exchange for sugar, rum and coffee. The export of horses to India was also commenced. An abundant harvest proved the difficulty in the supply of labour. The settlers on the Hawkesbury required 400 labourers and the Government could only supply 112. Troubles with the bushrangers, in which the Bathurst settlers under the command of W. H. Suttor and the mounted police under Lieutenant Macalister distinguished themselves, were frequent; and the murder of Captain Logan by the blacks near Moreton Bay, where he was engaged in surveying, strongly stirred popular feeling. The Sydney College was founded, and the important work of cutting a road over the mountains to the Hunter river was carried out. On the accession of King William IV., occasion was taken to lay before the English Government in an address of congratulation, the hope of the colonists that they might participate in the full benefits and privileges of the British Constitution. The two first immigrant ships arrived with fifty young women from an orphan school in Cork, most of whom speedily became wives; and also a number of mechanics. These latter came out under the care of Dr. Lang, to whom Lord Goderich, the Secretary of State, advanced the sum of £1500 for the experiment. A further loan of £3500 was procured from the Treasury by the reverend gentleman to assist in founding the Presbyterian (Australian) College. An alteration was also made in the disposal of the public lands. Grants were abolished and the lowest price was fixed at 5s. an acre. During Darling's government further successful explorations of the interior were made both by private individuals and officials. Among the latter were Mitchell, Allan Cunningham, Oxley, and Sturt, the most fortunate of all. In his second expedition in 1829 Sturt embarked with a party in a boat on the Murrumbidgee (which receives the waters of the Macquarie, the Lachlan and Darling,) until he came to its junction with the Murray, an apparently noble stream. Pursuing his voyage, in spite of many impediments, hardships and dangers from rocks, snags, sandbanks and hostile savages, he reached Lake Alexandrina and discovered the

future Colony of S.A. Lang takes a more favourable view of Darling's ability and motives than is taken by some other analysts of those early days; but he invariably takes sides against the emancipist class, who to the last were Darling's bitter enemies. On the day of his departure Wentworth gave a picnic party at his residence on the harbour, and the party assembled gave full vent to their rejoicings at the event, in the presence of the Governor and his family. "His great deficiency," says Flanagan "was a want of magnanimity. This defect deprived him of the warm sympathy of his friends, while, combined with a large amount of rigour, it gained him the unrelenting hatred of his enemies. The Sydney aqueduct relieves his Government from the imputation of being altogether useless." The reins of Government, during an interregnum of two months, were held by Colonel Patrick Lindesay.

XII. *Governor Bourke.*—Major-General Sir Richard Bourke, eighth Governor, landed on 3rd December 1831. His arrival was hailed as the dawn of a happier era, and the colonists in an address of welcome indulged a well-founded hope that with the termination of unfavourable seasons the reign of discord and insecurity had also passed away, and that with the return of plenty a wise and fostering Government might restore concord and fellowship and reproduce in the colony that confidence which had been so long wanting. His Excellency was earnestly requested in the same address, the tenor of which was a mixture of compliment and dictation, to judge for himself of the character and wants of the people, and to place no reliance upon the reports of others. Macleay, the Colonial Secretary, was alluded to with severe disapprobation as the last individual by whose opinions the colonists would like to be judged. The Governor in reply recommended a total oblivion of past dissensions, and a sacrifice of resentments, public and private in the interests of their adopted country. Bourke was without question the ablest man who had as yet occupied that office; equal in zeal, energy and plain common sense to Macquarie; superior in the liberality, humanity and statesmanlike far-sightedness of his views. With wise self-reliance he resisted the blandishments of the official clique who had been the curse of the colony, and the opposition of the faction of the white slave-drivers, who looked upon the colony as a farm to be administered for their sole benefit. He had courage of a rare quality, for he dared to differ from his chief, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, on a vital point of administration. His recorded objections to the Wakefield land system are remarkable for their prophetic wisdom. Bourke was, and his memory still is, deservedly popular among the humble or the wealthy sons of the once humble settlers—a rare merit, and not a qualification for favour at the Colonial Office. The six years of his reign were crowded with measures and events of the utmost importance in the history

of N.S.W.:—(1) The discussions of the Legislative Council became public and the financial estimates were regularly submitted and discussed. (2) The Church and School Corporation (which had become a gross job) was abolished, and religious equality established by an Act of the Legislative Council. (3) An attempt was made to introduce the Irish national school system; which the opponents of education defeated. (4) Free grants of land were abolished and sale by auction at a minimum price of 5s. substituted. (5) The despatch was received from Lord Glenelg and steps were adopted which, in 1840, finally abolished transportation to N.S.W. (6) The squatting system was legalised and systematised on a plan which produced a large revenue. (7) Rules for regulating the number of convict servants to which each settler should be entitled (without favour,) and the number of lashes which should be inflicted on a convict servant by a single magistrate, were framed and promulgated. (8) Port Phillip was peopled by settlers from V.D.L.; and S.A. by colonists from England. The powers of the Executive Council imposed on the Governor in the last year of Brisbane's administration were, under Darling, almost nominal. Not only were its deliberations secret and its dissent powerless, but Darling systematically exercised authority in the only matter entrusted to the Council—the distribution of the revenues. Towards the close of his administration he introduced a bill indemnifying himself and legalising his illegal assumptions. Bourke, on the contrary, earnestly co-operated in raising the character of the Council, treated the non-official members with the utmost respect, and endeavoured to give the Council as far as possible the tone and functions of a representative assembly. It is very much to be regretted that Bourke had not been permitted to govern with as little interference from Secretaries of State as Macquarie, and to remain long enough to initiate the party elective council which fell into the unhappy hands of his successor. The Legislative Council met on 19th January 1832. The best feeling existed between the Governor and the Council. His recommendation that some portion of the land revenue should be appropriated for the introduction of free labour won golden opinions, and £3600 was set apart for this purpose. From this time also dates the publication in the newspapers of proceedings in the Legislature, and their columns were speedily full of a formal censure passed on Dr. Lang for certain charges made against some of his fellow-colonists. In May two ships arrived bringing out forty-eight military pensioners with their families. The questions of a Legislative Assembly and trial by jury in civil as well as criminal cases, were debated in the House of Commons, but rejected. This year the Sydney aqueduct was completed and opened. On 8th May the wife of the Governor died and was buried at Parramatta. Sir Edward Parry, the famous Arctic navigator became the director of the Australian Agricultural Company.

In his new sphere of usefulness at the Company's depôt at Tahlee, this admirable man displayed those qualities which have endeared his name to the seamen of all nations. The necessity for establishing a corporation for the city was also much discussed. The revenue had reached £135,000. The population numbered 45,000 free and 25,000 bond. The beginning of 1833 was signalised by large public meetings of the colonists, with a view to achieve a Legislative Assembly and the power to impose their own taxes and spend their own money. The large expenditure, the pension list, and civil establishment, and the patronage of the Colonial Office, were severely criticised, especially by Wentworth. The address presented to the House of Commons noticed the fact that there were 120 magistrates and at least twice that number of other colonists of wealth, intelligence and respectability, qualified to become members of a House of Assembly. The same year Sydney was declared a free port. The Rev. W. Ullathorne arrived as the Vicar-General of the Roman Catholic Church in A. Justice Stephen retired from the Bench; and 2685 free persons arrived in the colony. The matter of a regular postal communication with England was mooted and discussed in 1834 on a proposition made by Montgomery Martin. Dr. Wardell, an eminent lawyer and valued colonist, met his death at the hands of bushrangers. The honey bee was introduced into V.D.L. by Dr. T. B. Wilson, and "the freeborn wanderer" has since spread over all the colonies. At the request of the Imperial Government further exploration of the interior was determined on, to ascertain the course of the Darling. Mitchell accordingly started on the exploring expedition in which Cunningham the botanist lost his life. In 1834 also the settlement of the Port Phillip district was commenced by the Henty's. But the occupation of the new territory was viewed with disfavour by the Governor, who went the length of proclaiming that settlers would be considered as trespassers, liable to be dealt with as other intruders on vacant lands of the Crown. The first stone bridge built in N.S.W. was opened in 1836 by Governor Bourke, on the forty-eighth anniversary of the colony. It was called Lansdowne Bridge, and spans the George River, connecting the main road that leads from Sydney to the pastoral districts of the south. Judge Therry describes the opening day, which is interesting, as affording a tide-mark of the vast progress which has since been made in colonial industries then in their infancy. The Governor and the military and civil officers, attended by a numerous body of the citizens of Sydney, rode out to the spot twenty miles distant, and a procession was formed over the bridge. First a herd of fat oxen crossed the bridge, some fine horses of colonial breed came next, sheep rivalling in weight and fleece some of the best Southdown sheep and others of Saxon origin followed. A dray laden with wool then took its

place in the procession. Cases of preserved hams borne on trucks succeeded. Next came a dray laden with tanned ox-hides. Riley of Raby drove over the bridge a fine flock of Angora goats which he had just imported. Sir John Jamieson contributed a butt of colonial-made wine; the Macarthurs of Camden, besides wheat and wool, exhibited wine and oil made from grapes and olives grown on their estate; they further supplied a display of fruits—the grape, the orange, the peach, the almond, the cherry, the fig—and in short every fruit and flower cultivated in England with the exception of the gooseberry and the currant, and many fruits peculiar to tropical climates. The second archdeacon of the English Church in N.S.W. was William Grant Broughton. He was appointed by the Duke of Wellington on the resignation of Scott, and in February 1836 became the first bishop. Public feeling ran high against Bourke in consequence of the alleged increase of bushranging. However, the passing by the Council of the Church Act by which religious equality was firmly and permanently established, gained him great credit. But a circumstance arose which led to his retirement. The position of Chairman of Quarter Sessions was sought by two persons—Roger Therry, Commissioner of the Court of Requests, and C. D. Riddell, Treasurer. The latter was put up for the office by certain magistrates, of whom Mudie, who had been dismissed from the commission of the peace, was one. Mudie's treatment of his assigned servants had been severely condemned by Watt, a clever prisoner editor, in his newspaper. Watt wrote a pamphlet which Mudie attributed to Therry, and Therry was defeated in his candidature. The Governor, to mark his sense of the impropriety, suspended Riddell from the Executive Council but not from the office of Treasurer. The Colonial Minister did not confirm the suspension, but advised that Riddell should apologise to the Governor before the Council for permitting his name to be used as a candidate and should then resume his seat. The Governor replied that the insult to himself had been public, and that an apology given before three Executive Councillors sworn to secrecy as to what passed was no satisfaction, and thereupon sent home his resignation. Before its acceptance was known the Governor visited Port Phillip in H.M.S. *Rattlesnake* in March 1837. He laid out and named Melbourne, Williamstown and Geelong. In 1836 a committee of the House of Commons, appointed under the influence of Gibbon Wakefield's parliamentary disciples, made a report in favour of that gentleman's principles of colonisation, after hearing evidence which consisted almost entirely of witnesses interested in the South Australian speculation and which did not include a single colonist from N.S.W. After this report, Lord Glenelg, then Colonial Secretary, authorised the Governor of N.S.W. to raise the price of land to 12s. if he thought fit. The replies of Sir Richard Bourke on the two questions of

"dispersion" and price of land, place him in the first rank of colonising statesmen; they display a degree of foresight which we can now duly appreciate:—"Admitting," he said in answer to Lord Aberdeen, "as every reasonable person must, that a certain degree of concentration is necessary for the advancement of wealth and civilisation, and that it enables government to become at once more efficient and more economical, I cannot avoid perceiving the peculiarities which in this colony render it impolitic, and even impossible, to restrain dispersion within limits that would be expedient elsewhere. The wool of N.S.W. forms at present its chief wealth. The proprietors of thousands of acres find it necessary equally with the poorer settlers to send large flocks beyond the boundaries of location, to preserve them in health throughout the year. The colonists must otherwise restrain the increase or endeavour to raise artificial food for their stock. Whilst nature presents all around an unlimited supply of wholesome pasture, either course would seem a perverse rejection of the bounty of Providence. Independently of these powerful reasons for allowing dispersion, it is not to be disguised that government is unable to prevent it. . . . The question I beg leave to submit is simply this: How may government turn to the best advantage a state of things which it cannot wholly interdict? It may be found practicable, by means of the sale of land in situations peculiarly advantageous, however distant from other locations, by establishing townships and ports, and facilitating the intercourse between remote and more settled districts of this vast territory, to provide centres of civilisation and government, and thus gradually extend the power of social order to the most distant parts of the wilderness." Bourke divided the wild land or bush, beyond the boundaries of the settled districts, into "squattling districts," each under the charge of a "Commissioner of Crown Lands." An annual licensing fee was charged to each squatter for his occupation, and a poll-tax on his stock. Advantages of pre-emption were by custom conceded to the discoverers of new pastures. In arranging this system it seems Bourke did not expect to obtain a greater revenue than would defray the expenses of the machinery which superseded club law by magistrates and police. Thus it will be observed that under Bourke the means of obtaining either the absolute possession of land in fee-simple or the use for pastoral purposes were systematised and simplified. It ceased to be a matter of favour, of complicated form, or of bribery to subordinates; and what was still more important, and directly reverse to the policy of his successor, the administration was conducted on the principle that the possession of land could not be made too easy to those who were disposed to occupy or cultivate it. Bourke believed that he was best serving the interests of his Sovereign by promoting the prosperity of colonists of all classes, by permitting them to follow their pursuits in their own way so

long as they did not injure each other. He did not think a few acres more or less were of the least consequence to the Crown; he thought capital would be better employed in the hands of the colonists than in the treasury of the colony; therefore he never attempted to extract the uttermost farthing by haggling at land sales or dreamed of treating worthless, limitless forests as if they were plantations of English oaks, or of laying claim to such waifs as "Australian guano." In fact he believed that he was serving the Crown by administering the colony for the benefit of the colonists; he did not pretend, like Cyrus, to force upon them a garment they did not like, or to teach them how to transact their own business. In 1836 the Legislative Council passed an act under which, whenever £300 had been raised by private contributions toward the building of a church or chapel, the Governor, with the advice of his Executive Council, might issue from the colonial treasury in aid of the subscribers any sum not exceeding £1000. And for any minister of church or chapel with 100 adult attendants £100 per annum; if 200 adults £150 per annum; if 500 adults £200 per annum. Under special circumstances the Governor and Council could grant a salary of £100 per annum where the congregation amounted to less than 100. Where there was no place of worship £100 might be granted from the colonial treasury if £50 a year were raised by private contributions. Under this act £3000 a year was divided between the Church of England, the Church of Scotland, and the Church of Rome, and subsequently the Wesleyan Methodists shared part of the grant. In his attempt to introduce an improved system of education Bourke was defeated by religious jealousies, but his despatches and his Act will remain monuments of his patriotism and statesmanship. In December 1837 Bourke retired deeply regretted by all the colony, except a small section of exclusionist magistrates and officials of the old colonial school. N.S.W. had attained the highest state of prosperity; Port Jackson was crowded with shipping bringing free labourers and capitalists, the banks overflowing with money, and the whole population full of the happiest excitement. The discussions of the Council, although still secret and irresponsible, had assumed a real character and prepared the way for representative institutions. Restrictions placed upon the summary conviction of prisoners by magistrates and preparations for the abolition of the assignment system, concurrently with the introduction of free emigrants by funds derived from the sale of lands, had laid the foundation of a free colony. The colonisation of Port Phillip and S.A. by emigrants of a superior class had done much towards directing the attention of this country to a continent which had previously been only considered a receptacle for criminals; while the discovery of vast tracts of fine land in the interior, with an overland communication between the three districts and the establishment of the squattling

system on a legal basis, greatly stimulated the increase of live stock, the growth of wool, and the general value of colonial exports. The Australian colonists began to think they could walk alone without the aid of convict labour and the money of the commissariat. After his return from Port Phillip Bourke handed the Government over to Colonel Snodgrass, and took his departure from Sydney on 5th June 1837. A fine statue in bronze, by Bailey, erected in Sydney at a cost of £3500, commemorates the public services of as able, honest and upright a Governor as the colony has ever possessed.

XIII. Governor Gipps.—Sir Richard Bourke was succeeded by Sir George Gipps who was sworn in on 2nd February 1838; the government, during an interregnum of ten weeks, having been administered by the Lieutenant-Governor Snodgrass. Gipps, who was a captain in the Royal Engineer Corps, owed his appointment to the talent he had displayed while acting as secretary to the commission issued for inquiring into the grievances of rebellious Canada. During his residence in that colony he had devised and published a plan for educating colonists to the use of representative institutions by "district councils" for the administration of local affairs. It was an ingenious theory, but no more suited for the state of society in pastoral Australia than an American river steamboat for crossing the Atlantic. Nevertheless the forcing this district council scheme on the unwilling colonists was the one great idea of Gipps' colonial career, to which he sacrificed them and himself. He was a man of abilities far above the average; an eloquent speaker, a nervous writer; with industry, energy, and a special aptitude for the details of administrative business; but haughty and narrow-minded; impenetrable to reasoning which did not square with his preconceived views; filled with inordinate ideas of his own importance as "the representative of Majesty;" with a violent temper, which in dealing with the colonists he took little pains to control, although his communications with the Colonial Office displayed a pliability almost amounting to subservience. He claimed to receive the deference due to a Viceroy, and at the same time to exercise the duties of an English Prime Minister. With sharp and ready tongue he introduced and pressed legislative measures for carrying into effect theories most distasteful and unsuitable to his colonial "subjects;" but opposition, or even that fair criticism and discussion which a British Premier would expect and invite, he treated as personal insult to his authority; almost as high treason. The period of his accession to power was in every respect most inopportune. Backed by a Secretary of State as fiery and obstinate as himself, with the sanction of a House of Commons utterly ignorant of the condition of A., Gipps came determined to govern on high prerogative principles, at a time when the colony had advanced from the Algerine rule of Phillip and Darling to enjoy the externals of a free state.

A Legislative Council no longer secret, although not elective, had superseded the irresponsible decrees of the Governor. Courts regularly constituted with juries in political cases had taken the place of courts martial. The press was free; the liberty of assembling to discuss political questions had been sanctioned and exercised. A rapid, enormous immigration from the mother country swelled the ranks of the thousands who, however descended, were born free; and under the guidance of the burning eloquence of a native-born Australian, claimed to exercise those rights of representation and self-taxation which they had forfeited by becoming colonists. Yet Gipps was not without noble as well as brilliant qualities. His hands were clean. He took no share in the jobs of the servile crew whom he used and despised. But he was intoxicated by the greatness thrust upon him. At one stride he passed from a subordinate military rank to the government of a great province of wealthy and discontented men; having in his hands authority which could make or mar a whole class or a whole district. In a different sphere, and subdued by the even competition of English parliamentary life, he might have done himself honour and the State service. In this temper of the Governor and the governed questions of difference were not long in arising. Under Bourke the Legislative Council, although composed of salaried officials and an equal number of the colonists nominated by the Governor, had nurtured enough of the spirit of independence to occasionally dissent from the views of the Home Government or its representative. But Bourke took a colonial view of colonial subjects; he did not hesitate to dissent from the views of a Secretary of State; he treated the opinions of his Council with deliberate consideration and respect, even where he came to a contrary conclusion. Gipps adopted an opposite course. Nothing could equal the contempt with which he treated colonial opinions, except the zeal with which he echoed and carried out the instructions issued by the Secretary of State. The following were among the more prominent political questions which formed the subject of contention and agitation on the part of the colonists against the Governor:—(1.) The appropriation of the revenue of the colony; (2.) the extent to which the colonists were taxed for gaols, police &c., rendered necessary by the transportation system; (3.) the manner in which the Home Government exercised the patronage of the Crown, passing over colonial claims and appointing unfit persons at high salaries paid by the colonists; (4.) the price of land and the arbitrary manner in which it was raised, lowered and raised again at the will of the Governor. These four grievances were discussed in one or more distinct cases. On each the Governor took up the position of "high prerogative" in the most offensive manner, and found his policy approved by the Home Government. It is certain that whether Whigs or Tories held office the most obnoxious regulations issued,

the most discreditable rights of patronage were exercised and defended under the plea of asserting "the sacred rights of the Crown" in the colonies. When a few acres of waste land were not granted as the Legislative Council prayed to the worthy captain who had saved a shipwrecked crew; or when a place-hunter was sent out to fill a useless office at an extravagant salary, the ungracious refusal and disgraceful job were both the effect of the "Queen's Prerogative." No sooner had Gipps commenced his government than he became involved in discussions involving important principles, which were carried on with such feeble means of attack as the colonists possessed, until in 1842 an act of the Imperial Parliament bestowed on N.S.W. a Legislative Council, which consisted of twenty-four elective members and twelve who held their seats either in an official capacity or on the recommendation of the Governor. The opening of the Colonial Parliament took place on 3rd August 1843, and in his "speech from the throne" Gipps described the Council as "composed of three elements or three different classes of persons—the representatives of the people—the official servants of Her Majesty and of gentlemen of independence—the unofficial nominees of the Crown." The nominees were soon taught that so far from being independent, they were expected to follow the lead of the Governor without discussion or hesitation. The questions which had already occupied the attention of the colonial press and the nominee council afforded ample employment for the elective chamber; among the first and most important of these was the revenue dispute commenced in 1832, when Lord Goderich, Secretary of State for the Colonies, directed Governor Bourke to submit annually to the Legislative Council an estimate of the expenditure proposed to be charged on the colonial revenues. This estimate if passed by the Council was to be embodied in an ordinance, and forwarded to the Home Government for His Majesty's approval. If rejected the majority were to be requested to furnish their estimate, and the two were to be forwarded for "His Majesty's approval." With this illusory control the non-official but nominee members and the colonists were obliged to be content. It was not of much use to object to an estimate that had to travel round the world; and although the non-official councillors sometimes protested against any particular job, their protests were received and laid up with other dusty papers. At this period the administrative powers of the Governor had been so clipped, without addition to the legislative powers of the colonies, that he could scarcely erect a pair of stocks without first reporting to Downing-street, with plan and estimate. No wonder that almost all the non-official party in the colony were republicans. In 1835 the expense of maintaining the police establishment and gaols was made a colonial charge. Every non-official and two official members of the Council protested against this heavy burden, on the ground that these

expenses were largely increased by the presence of the transported criminals of Great Britain, either as prisoners or freedmen. To this it was answered that the colony had had the benefit of their work. However, as a *per contra*, the surplus of the fund derived from the sale or lease of Crown lands was allowed to be taken to assist the colonial revenues after defraying the expenses of emigration. The truth seems to be that, while the returns from the land revenue were trifling, the officers of the Crown did not care to have the spending of them, having admitted that it was "just and reasonable that the revenues should be applied wholly and exclusively for the benefit of the colony." But when the land revenues rose to hundreds of thousands of pounds annually, the question assumed a different aspect in the eyes of a bureaucrat like Governor Gipps. Bourke believed that the Legislative Council had the complete control of the land revenue. He seems to have been always anxious to extend the legislative powers of the colonies. Gipps commenced what may be called his reactionary course of policy, by repudiating the assumed contract in a despatch dated November 1838, which affords a key to the favour in which he was held at the Colonial Office, and his unpopularity in the colony:—"It is asserted in the colony that the right to appropriate this revenue was conceded to the Governor and Council by a despatch &c., and that this right was recognised by Bourke. Notwithstanding the strength of these expressions, I must say that I very much doubt whether by the Treasury letter of the 24th September 1834, it was intended to give up unreservedly, and forever, the right to select the objects on which the Crown revenue (*viz.*, from colonial land) should be expended; and I therefore, whenever occasion required, maintained during the last session of the Council that the Crown has still power to do so—feeling that, if wrong in this opinion, I could easily set myself right with the Council; but if I committed an error the other way, I might involve myself in difficulties from which there would be no escape." Whether the contract existed or not, it is clear that the powers claimed and exercised by the Governor and the Colonial Secretary in the name of the Sovereign, amounted to despotism under a pretext of free discussion. The colonists were expected to defray the cost of their own government with all the addition of police and gaol expenses incident to a periodical inundation of British criminals, while all sources of revenue, except additional taxation, were removed from their control. As to the Crown or waste lands, the price, the management, and the expenditure of the funds arising from them in emigration, were settled by English commissioners; the surplus was appropriated by the Crown. The Custom-house tariff and the rules for levying it were settled, and the officers appointed, by the English Custom-house. As to the funds raised by local taxation, the Colonial Secretary, in the name of the Crown, created offices, fixed fines, salaries,

and appointed officers, without the slightest regard to the wants or wishes of the colonists. The grievance with respect to the appropriation of the land revenues became more unbearable in consequence of the orders and acts of the Home Government in respect to the land question, which were in direct opposition to the feelings and interests of the colonists. It was with the representative members of the Legislative Council, while the colony was in a state of insolvency, that Gipps' battles commenced and were carried on with much acerbity on both sides. The new Council lost no time in investigating the grievances of the colony, and soon collected a formidable list, although the most oppressed class of all, the small settlers, were entirely unrepresented. The revenues, the price of Crown lands, the assessments on the pastoral proprietors, the abuses in the exercise of Crown patronage, successively attracted the attention of the opposition, vigorously led by Wentworth, a man of brilliant talents and great oratorical powers, but whose influence was to a certain extent impaired by a violent temper and want of tact. Without the evidence printed by these Legislative Councils of N.S.W. it would be impossible to credit that a government at home, professed to be formed on "reform" and "retrenchment," could have perpetrated and maintained powers so oppressive and jobs so corrupt. The following cases, gathered from the reports of the committee appointed to inquire into certain gross cases of embezzlement and mismanagement, afford examples of the "patronage grievance," of the sort of persons selected for colonial office, the nature of the powers they assumed on the strength of holding a home instead of a colonial appointment, and the manner in which they performed their duties. In 1841 the Registrar of the Supreme Court became a defaulter; in the following year he took the benefit of the Insolvent Act, and eventually paid a dividend of sixpence in the pound. The committee which investigated his case, with the view of obtaining redress from the Home Government for the sufferers by his malversation, reported that the first registrar Colonel Mills, had no knowledge of business, and therefore left what there was to be done to other officers. On his death the Governor and Council recommended that the office, in the then state of the colony not needed, should be abolished; but before receiving or without attending to this recommendation the defaulter in question was appointed. His antecedents were not encouraging. In 1811 he had executed a deed of assignment of all his property for the benefit of his creditors; and in 1823, after returning from an eight years residence on the Continent, he had taken the benefit of the Insolvent Act; in 1828 he had been appointed Chief Justice of Nova Scotia, and had been permitted to exchange the appointment for that of Registrar of the Supreme Court of N.S.W., with the duty of collecting the effects of intestates, and, according to his own account,

the privilege of investing the money for his own benefit pending its distribution.' On arrival at the colony he took up a high position. That part of his duty which related to registering deeds of grants of Crown land he entirely neglected and suffered to fall into an arrear, which eventually involved great numbers of the humbler class in litigation and ruin. But the collection of the estates of intestates he entered on as zealously as any wrecker on the spoils of storms. The presence of near relatives was no protection for the moneys of the deceased; in defiance of son, brother, or father, the Registrar grasped all the estate; invested it in his own name for his own benefit, and from 1828 to 1838 kept neither day-book, cash-book, nor ledger, but one account at his banker's, rendered no statement for audit to any one, and paid over what balance, if any, to the next of kin of intestates when and how he pleased. In 1838 the Judges made rules of court requiring the Registrar to pass his accounts and pay the balance into the savings bank. He remonstrated against these rules in an indignant tone, "as threatening to take from him a source of legitimate income, on the faith of which he immigrated to the colony," and intimated that "unless he was permitted to retain and make use of the money himself, he would use no exertions to obtain it." At this audit he reported himself to be in possession of £1980 17s. 0½d., but the court after argument found £3085 18s. 2d. due, compelled him to pay it into court, and in spite of violent resistance in which he was supported by one of the official legal advisers of the Governor, had a set of rules of court sanctioned by the Governor-in-council, under which the registrar was bound to account regularly and pay in the proceeds of every intestate estate within a certain fixed time (three months from the period of the intestacy;) the injured Registrar all the time protesting that "the Judges were reflecting on his honour by calling for accounts and depriving him of the legitimate profits to be derived from the employment of other men's money which had induced him to settle in the colony." The Judges being firm and supported by the Council, the Registrar in the course of two years became possessed of £9000, and when no longer able to conceal his appropriations he announced his insolvency in a much injured style. The sufferers by his insolvency petitioned for compensation from the Home Government, which rejected the prayer of the petitioners. The next case was that of the Prothonotary. Chief Justice Dowling, finding it needful to recommend that certain offices included in the charter of justice should be filled up, especially that of Prothonotary, at a salary of £800 per annum, recommended John Grover, late chief clerk, "who from his long services, indefatigable industry, and experience, is admirably qualified for the office." Governor Gipps entered into a correspondence with the judges, in which he instructed them how to manage the business of their courts and to save

£50 a-year. The judges demurred and the question was referred to the Colonial Secretary, Lord Stanley, who settled it without loss of time. He did not appoint the gentleman recommended by the Judge. In other respects he followed out their recommendations, but sent out two new officers, one at £1000 a-year and the other at £850, and created a third appointment at £650 to be filled up by the Governor; thus saddling the colony with increased salaries to the extent of £400 a-year on the ground that in England competent persons could not be induced to accept these offices for less. An inquiry into the management of the Colonial Lunatic Asylum brought out facts equally characteristic of the independence and irresponsibility of all officials up to the time that the elected members of the Legislative Council began to exercise their privilege of inquiry. In 1846 a select committee of the Council investigated the condition of Tarban Creek, the only lunatic asylum in the colony. In the course of this inquiry it appeared that the head keeper and his wife, the matron, in consequence of having received their appointment direct from the Secretary of State, habitually resisted all attempts to control or even investigate the performance of their duties by the visiting magistrates or colonially-appointed physician. The committee found "no books or registers such as ought to be kept in a public establishment, no record of cases, no written statement of the appearance of any patient at the time of his admission, or of the progress of the disease, or of the treatment, medical and moral." The next matter in dispute was the Land Question. The question of the terms on which the waste lands of the colony were to be sold, and until sold occupied by flock-owners and stock-owners, formed the subject of bitter contest between Gipps and the colonists. To the colonists the question was one of existence; it involved not only the liberties so dear to every English-speaking race, but the means of existence. Just before the departure of Bourke, the pastoral proprietors, as well as all the merchants, capitalists and every one else possessed of money or credit, were seized with a land mania, which may be compared to those stock-jobbing manias which, from the period of the Mississippi scheme have, from time to time, carried bankruptcy and ruin through the length and breadth of the British nation. The mania arose in S.A. and received a great stimulus from the foundation of Port Phillip, where a considerable extent of more than ordinarily fertile land, easy of access from the port, became the object of competition among colonists with more money than colonial experience. Gibbon Wakefield's theories seemed to receive in one important respect confirmation from the large sums paid into the Colonial Treasuries by colonists bidding one against another for land at Government auctions. These large funds were placed in the colonial banks. The banks in order to employ the Government deposits, gave unusual accommodation to their customers,

until the whole colony dreamed of growing rich by selling to each other land which produced nothing. The Secretaries of State for the colonies from Lord Aberdeen to Lord Stanley, who held office until 1845, seem all to have taken the promised results of the Wakefield theory for granted—assumed that it was the duty of the Government to obtain the highest price for Crown land—that a high price of land would keep down wages and check dispersion; and to this notion their successor, Lord Grey, adhered, in face of an unbroken line of colonial evidence of the most practical character. Thus, in August 1838 Lord Glenelg instructed Gipps to substitute 12s. for 5s. an acre as the upset price of ordinary land, adding, "If you should observe that the extension of the population should still proceed with a rapidity beyond what is desirable, and that the want of labour still continues to be seriously felt, you will take measures for checking the sale of land even at 12s." Gipps no doubt was as well aware of the fallacy of this idea as his predecessor, but he came out with the fixed principle of earning the approbation of his official chiefs by zealously and actively carrying out their desires and orders. As he once answered a colonial remonstrant:—"I was sent here to carry out the Wakefield system of land sales, and whether it suits the colony or not it must be done." Animated by this spirit he adopted two measures which soon transferred the greater part of the ready money of the colonists, new and old, into the Colonial Treasury. He limited the quantity of land offered for sale so as to raise the competition between new arrivals to the highest pitch, and he successively raised the upset price to the last sum given by the last land-lunatic under the excitement of an auction. Thus, at a land auction on 10th June 1840 at Port Phillip, the price was run up by emulation and competition to such a height that shipmates of Richard Howitt, with a capital among them of £20,000, only ventured to invest £600. Land was sold at £30 and £40 per acre which, for years afterwards, remained in a state of nature. In N.S.W. Gipps offered and sold land at Illawarra at 12s. and £1 an acre; when raised to £10 an acre it remained unsold; it was then reduced to £1, and being worthless refuse, still remained unsold. In a second and third district, the upset price was raised to £10 in one instance, and £100 in another, and afterwards reduced to £2 an acre. And all this was done repeatedly against the advice of the official surveyors, on the principle that it was the duty of the Governor to wring the uttermost farthing from the settler. The land mania was followed by a crash of universal insolvency. Land became unsaleable, live stock fell to nominal prices, and the importers of British and foreign luxuries had nothing better to offer their creditors than the dishonoured bills of their customers. In 1841, at the commencement of this crisis of insolvency, the British Parliament, in utter ignorance of colonial affairs, attempted to prop up the

insolvent colony of S.A. by an Act which fixed the minimum price of land in A. at £1 an acre. In 1843, when the elective Legislative Council commenced its labours, the dissatisfaction of the colonists with the fixed minimum price of £1 an acre had become universal. The wealthy parties who had expected their free grants and their purchases at five shillings an acre to be augmented in value by the increased price were disappointed; the speculators who, following the example of the South Australians, had purchased large estates in the hope of realising large profits by laying out paper towns and villages were either insolvent or encumbered with tracts of useless waste land, unsaleable and unprofitable; the small settlers were deeply discontented with the impediments thrown in the way of purchasing small farms in good agricultural districts; while the pastoral proprietors, who were many of them also landowners in the settled districts, were worried by taxes, regulations and restrictions imposed, repealed and re-imposed in a most arbitrary manner, with a view of compelling the purchase of their occupations at the ruinous price of £1 per acre. Live stock became absolutely valueless; cattle were allowed to rove wild, unbranded on the hills; and sheep which had cost 30s. a-piece were unsaleable at 1s. 6d. until it occurred to an ingenious gentleman to boil them down for tallow, by which the minimum price was raised to 3s. Land sales had ceased; the fund which had previously imported labouring emigrants to take the place of convicts was exhausted. The pastoral interest, whose fortunes had already been seriously injured by the depreciation of their stock, determined to resist the Governor in his attempt to regulate their taxation, and to virtually confiscate their property on the fiat of himself and his irresponsible representatives, the Crown Commissioners. In the same year Lord Stanley's despatch, accompanying the Act of Parliament which gave legislative fixity to the land system, arrived in the colony, and damped the expectations of those who had hoped that the failure of the £1 an acre panacea for promoting concentration, regulating wages, and encouraging cultivation, would induce the Home Government to consult a little more the wishes and interests of actual colonists. Under these circumstances the first of six committees of the Legislative Council which examined and reported on this question—two in 1843, one in 1844, one in 1845, and two in 1847—was appointed, held its sittings, examined witnesses and made its report. The committee of 1843 on the Crown land sales examined amongst others the Surveyor-General, Sir Thos. Mitchell, one of the Macarthur's, and several landed and pastoral proprietors. They reported that "the Act of Parliament under their consideration cannot but be injurious in its operation; that it is calculated to prevent the emigration of small capitalists, to withdraw capital, and to prevent the permanent occupancy of the soil." In the same year the select committee on

immigration also reported "that the measure of Her Majesty's Government for raising the upset price of land from 5s. to 12s., and subsequently to 20s. an acre had completely annihilated the land fund, which in six years previous to the change had produced one million sterling;" and they recommended, in a series of resolutions, one for "rescinding the present land regulations and effecting a return of the old system of sales by auction at an upset rate not exceeding 5s. an acre for pastoral land." In 1844 a select committee on grievances connected with land in the colony examined twenty-six witnesses, and received answers to a printed circular of questions from one hundred and twenty-two justices of the peace. The attention of the committee was directed among other subjects to the minimum price of land and to the attempts to harass the squatter, not being a purchaser of land, by rendering his tenure of Crown lands as uncertain and onerous as possible. All the witnesses and all the replies to the circulars, except three, expressed decided opinions against the measure which raised the minimum price of Crown land from 5s. to £1; all justly taking it for granted that at £1 an acre the purchase of pastoral lands was impossible, claimed fixity of tenure by lease, and right of pre-emption for the squatter. The latter was the grand point with the squatters; that gained, their interest in the land question, except in promoting sales to create an emigration fund, ceased. The report of the committee on Crown land grievances was the foundation of a fierce agitation on the part of the pastoral interests for the suppression of the obnoxious regulations as to the pastoral occupations, and for fixity of tenure. In this agitation, which was also directed against the £1 per acre minimum, the whole colony joined. Public meetings were held in every part of the colony, petitions and memorials addressed to the Home Government were sent to England, and placed in the hands of political men of influence, and influential organs of the English press were enlisted in defence of the great pastoral interest. In the same year the Council adopted resolutions condemning the high price of land in the terms suggested by the committee. In 1845 a fourth select committee reported against the £1 an acre Act, supporting their opinions with a great body of facts and statistics, and concluded by observing that "the practical evils resulting from the augmentation of the upset price of land had already been fully developed in the report on Immigration and the Report on Waste Lands in 1843, and in the Land Grievance Report of 1844, and in the opinions of your honourable Council distinctly pronounced on the same subject in the resolutions of the whole Council of the 17th September, 1844." To complete the history of the land question it may be added that in 1847 under the administration of Gipps' successor, a select committee on immigration reported "the disastrous results and impolicy of the high upset price," and also that a select committee, presided over by Robert Lowe,

made an elaborate report against the high upset price of land. But Governor Gipps stood firm; determined to make war on the squatters, determined to maintain the obnoxious £1 per acre, and to carry out the spirit of the act which imposed it by throwing as he was instructed all possible obstacles in the way of men of small capital investing their savings in land; and he was supported by the British Colonial Office. For while the Governor was courageously attacking the most wealthy and powerful body in the colony, he took no pains to foster that class of yeomanry which were the object of Bourke's peculiar care. He divided the land into large lots, discouraged small holdings, whether of land or stock; and treated emigrants as merchandise or live stock consigned for the benefit of the purchasers of the land. It certainly was most unfortunate for the colony that the initiation of a representative government, the substitution of free emigrant for prisoner labour and the attempt to establish local self-government should have fallen under the direction of one who with great talents was obstinately determined not to learn anything from experience and not to permit any measure of reform he did not originate. His want of pliability was strikingly displayed in the conduct of emigration. When grants of land ceased altogether and were superseded by sales, the character of emigration to A. and even the motives which directed it were materially changed. The distance and the then little known capabilities of A. would have made it under any circumstances a difficult task to direct towards its shores a similar stream of colonists; but the system of raising the price and quantity of land sold, so as to discourage the purchasers of all but the wealthy and of devoting the proceeds to the importation of able-bodied labourers for their use, altered the whole character of the free colonisation. The new system was not without merits as a temporary expedient for supplying as rapidly as possible the demand for shepherd servants, occasioned by the abolition of the assignment system. But as a permanent measure the moral and social defects were very serious. Committees on emigration were appointed by the Legislative Council in 1839 when the bounty system was in operation, in 1842, 1843 and 1845; and in 1843 and 1844 committees on the "distressed labourers" of Sydney collected important evidence bearing on the same subject. The committee of 1839 reported that emigrants were being introduced at the rate of 12,500 souls a year, at a cost of about £17 per adult, expressed a decided preference for bounty over Government emigrants, and recommended a loan to be raised on the security of the land fund, and devoted to emigration a bounty at £19 a head for adults only, excluding children, and very humbly prayed that the Crown would devote the land fund which they calculated at not less than £150,000 a year to emigration purposes. In 1842 the committee repeated their preference for the bounty system, announcing that in the preceding twelve months 23,000 emigrants had

been introduced, and the cessation of emigration in consequence of the falling off of the land fund to an extent unexpected by the Home Government. They hinted at the propriety of a reduction of the price of land to five shillings an acre. The committee of 1843 represented the squatting class, and the majority took an entirely pastoral view of the labour question. They wanted shepherds as quickly and as cheaply as possible, and nothing else. To resist the aggressions of Gipps on the pastoral interest the squatters had formed themselves into a protective association, and this association branched off into a combination for permanently lowering wages. At the head of the association was Benjamin Boyd. He had arrived with the express purpose of making investments at the time (1841) that the colony was in a general state of insolvency. His aim was the possession of a million sheep. He was the chief of the squatters with whom he combined to obtain fixity of tenure for their pastures, to put down small settlers and to reduce wages. At this period (from 1841 to 1844) the colonial labour market presented some curious contradictions. The bounty agents were pouring in a crowd of unsuitable persons, who once landed were left to shift for themselves. Among the merchants of Sydney distress prevailed in consequence of the cessation of building and other works; the wages of mechanics were depressed to a rate before unknown; and newly-arrived immigrants were astonished at the low rate of pay for town labour. But in the country districts and especially in the bush where sheep and cattle were breeding, while their proprietors were going through the insolvent process wages were maintained; and the anomaly was presented of large bodies of men being employed at the expense of Government, at high wages at public works while flocks were wanting shepherds in the interior. Several causes supported this anomaly: There was no government machinery for distributing newly-arrived emigrants; the preference of the squatters for single men left families on the hands of the Government; the squatters were not sorry to see the Government embarrassed by the presence of a large body of unemployed labourers in Sydney; the dishonest conduct of certain masters in withholding or unfairly deducting wages promised had given the bush a bad name; many of the emigrants were of a class who, having left parish aid behind, liked to keep close to Government rations and wages. Boyd's evidence before the immigration committee of 1843 affords a fair specimen of the class he represented. He despaired of the prosperity of the colony "unless the wages of a shepherd could be brought to £10 a year, or about 3s. 10d. a week, with meat and flour, without tea and sugar." The two last had been previously universally allowed; but he expressed his intention of doing away with them, "being of very questionable utility and necessity, although such is the waste and extravagance here that 8 lbs. of tea and 90 lbs. of sugar are consumed per head."

He states, further, that he "had no difficulty in engaging shepherds at £10 with these rations, but much difficulty in getting men engaged at these low wages forwarded to stations, as they were generally picked up on the road. Any money advanced for travelling expenses was usually spent in public-houses;" and it is his decided opinion that "more than £10 a year only does harm to shepherds, by sending them to public-houses." Fortunately all squatters were not like Boyd, and the productiveness of the land defeated the combination. Had it been otherwise, a very few years would have produced a servile war of men against masters. Another order of men, chiefly permanent colonists residing on their own property, were represented by Charles Campbell as employing from fifty to sixty shepherds and watchmen. "He had been obliged by pressure of the times to reduce his old servants to £18 for shepherds and £16 for watchmen, and had not found them so reluctant to accept the reduction as he expected. He would hardly like to see wages lower." He thought a great oversight had been committed by settlers in neglecting to form villages on their estates. He says, "Many of those who now complain of want of employment in Sydney might have been comfortably settled up the country in small villages, containing from ten to twelve men, heads of families, in various callings. In the present state of things we employ, at sheepshearing and reaping, men who wander through the country from one place to another, in quest of occasional employment. Many of these are handy, clever fellows, but unmarried, and of irregular and dissolute habits. All these men earn is frequently spent in the first public-houses they come to after leaving the station where they have been employed. If, instead of employing men of this class, the flockmasters and landowners had invited married emigrants to settle in small villages, by allowing them land at a low rent, and not attempting to monopolise their labour, permitting them to choose their own employer in the neighbourhood, we should have our reaping, mowing, and shearing done at a cheaper rate; and the emigrants by means of the money made during the busy season, added to their earnings, would maintain their families well, and their children from not being scattered, might have opportunities of learning to read and write, and of receiving religious instruction. Many would in a few years become small farmers—first as tenants, then as landholders, and in either capacity would increase the demand for labour." This was sound sense as contrasted with the views of Boyd; but although Campbell's views were afterwards enforced and illustrated with a large collection of facts, yet 1851 found the pastoral interests as ill provided with permanent labour as 1843. The selfish maxims of Boyd prevailed after the ruin and death of the founder. The successful efforts to retain good land as sheepwalks only—to encourage the growth of sheep and discourage the rearing of children—found Australia when the gold

revolution broke out, largely dependent on wandering shepherds, bound by no ties, either moral or local, social or domestic to the district or the land of which they had no share. At this point the history of the emigration question passes into that of Mrs. Chisholm's philanthropic labours, a full account of which will be found under the proper heading. It is but justice to Gipps to add that he gave Mrs. Chisholm all the assistance in a private way that he could; but in his administrative capacity he adhered in all things to his arbitrary official course. A characteristic anecdote is on record in reference to the privilege of franking letters, which the Governor had given to Mrs. Chisholm. A few days after the permission had been granted he sent for her in a great hurry. She found him much excited, and the table covered with her own letters. "Mrs. Chisholm," he exclaimed, "when I gave you the privilege of franking, I presumed you would address yourself to the magistrates, the clergy, the principal settlers; but who, pray, are these John Varleys and Dick Hogans, and other people, of whom I have never heard since I have been in the colony?" "If," replied Mrs. Chisholm, "I had required to know the opinions of those respectable gentlemen on the subject of the demand for labour, and the rate of wages they could afford, I need not have written; I can turn to half-a-dozen blue-books and find there shepherds always wanting, and wages always too high; besides, to have answered me they must have gone to their overseers, and then answered me vaguely. I want to know, as nearly as possible, what number of labourers each district can absorb, and of what class and what wages. If your Excellency will wait until I get my answers, you will admit that I have applied to men humble but intelligent, and able to afford exactly the information I require." Sir George Gipps was satisfied with the explanation, and still more with the replies of the bush settlers, so that the sub-officials were on this occasion discomfited. Mrs. Chisholm first taught the squatters that property had its duties as well as its rights. She tapped the springs of spontaneous self-supporting emigration, and showed how closely the extension of national power is connected with the social and domestic virtues inseparable from family colonisation. Beside the questions involved in the price of land, the tenure and tax on pastures, the abolition of assignment of prisoners, and cessation of transportation—on all of which the Governor and his chiefs were at issue with the colonists, from the day of the opening of the Legislative Council when the word "humble" was struck out of the motion for an address in answer to the Governor's speech—certain constitutional questions of great importance were at issue between Gipps and the Legislative Council. The Council was justly incensed at finding that the new constitution gave them nothing more than the liberty of talking and taxing themselves. Three schedules appropriated upwards of £80,000 to the payment

of officials, over whose appointment from the Colonial Secretary down to the Prothonotary they had no sort of control. The Council attempted to regulate the distribution of the funds secured by the schedules, by taking from those who did nothing to give to those who worked hard. The Governor successfully resisted the attempt and in effect told them to protest and go about their business. The Council, being unable to cut down the sinecure salaries included in the schedules, retaliated by refusing to vote the supplementary estimates. The Governor responded by cutting down that part of the public service which was most needed by the colonists. He retained the Prothonotary and Master in Equity, but closed the office of Registrar of Deeds who regulated all titles and mortgages in the colony. From that time forward the struggle between the Governor and that part of the Council which was not official became relentless. A battle was fought upon the "District Councils." The idea of district councils had made Gipps Governor of N.S.W. He had influence enough to have the scheme embodied in the Act of Parliament (5 and 6 Vict. cap. 79, sect. 47,) which gave the colony representative institutions. The theory was plausible; it met the approval of Lords Stanley and John Russell. Gipps during the few years of his administration postponed measures for establishing schools, for repairing and constructing roads and other practical works of the utmost importance to the colony, at first, in order that his district councils might reap a harvest of glory, and afterwards, to spite the colonists for rejecting so admirable an institution. It was admirable on paper, but impracticable in a pastoral colony. According to Gipps' plan the inhabitants of each district were empowered to elect, and if they neglected to elect, the Governor had power to appoint a council which should decide on the sum required for a year for the district. Half such sum was to be contributed from the colonial treasury and the other half to be levied on the property in the district. If no local treasurer was elected, the Colonial Treasurer could issue his warrant and sell up as much of the property of the district as would raise the requisite sum. But the scheme would not work. In the first place, there was no population sufficiently dense to work it; there were very few electors and no councillors; in the second place, there was no ready money to pay the taxes. When Gipps attempted to introduce his district councils he found the colonists unprepared to travel for miles to elect a councillor, or pay five or ten pounds per annum for roads over which they never travelled and bridges a hundred miles from their farms, and indignant at suddenly finding their property at the mercy of the Colonial Treasurer, and the irresponsible officer of the Government. They determined to resist the district scheme. The Governor was determined to enforce it. He thus answered a deputation of the Legislative Council and other

influential colonists, who waited on him to point out the practical difficulties in the way of executing his district council scheme:—"Whether it ruins the colony or not, an Act of Parliament must and shall be carried out." On this question the battle began. The inhabitants, except in one district, neglected to elect committees. The Governor appointed them. Then came the question of levying, after assessing, a rate. A flaw was discovered in the Act of Parliament. It was decided that the word "levy" did not empower the Council to distrain. The Governor applied to the Legislative Council for an Act to amend the flaw. The Legislative Council refused to help him. He was thrown back on the powers vested in the Colonial Treasurer; the "Algerine clause," as it was called in the colony, he threatened, but dared not put in force. The struggle was carried on for years. The Governor was supported by the approval of the Home authorities; but the passive resistance of the colonists was too much for him. At length in 1846 Earl Grey called for a report from the principal officials, and they reported in a manner which effectually and for ever shelved Gipps' district councils. In 1844 before the district councils had been shelved, a select committee of the Legislative Council investigated "grievances unconnected with land," and drew up a report, which was a kind of Australian declaration of rights. These grievances, of which the following is a summary, remained unredressed until the advent of Sir John Pakington and the Duke of Newcastle to the Colonial Office opened up "unrestricted competition" in colonial concessions. The colonists' committee complained of "being saddled with taxation for a civil list which they were not empowered to discuss, to the extent of £81,000;"—by the Act of 1850 this civil list was increased;—of the total failure of the district councils, which "created municipalities where the sparse population render popular election and local taxation impossible, and which placed in the hands of the Governors the nomination of an officer with powers of taxation;" and of the want of a "responsible Government;" the Governor being, in fact, merely a subordinate officer of the Colonial Secretary of State for the time being; and his official advisers being in a position which made them practically as independent of the Legislative Council as if they had been merely his private friends. Thus, so long as the Governor and his official advisers satisfied the Home authorities, the colonists were without remedy for any illegality committed by the colonial Government, however flagrant. As an instance of the working of the system, the report cites £127,000 applied to various illegal purposes by the Governor in the course of seven years; "and a sum of £30,743 15s., which was not only expended by His Excellency without any authority of the Legislative Council, but applied, by the Governor's mere fiat, to the payment of debentures and other purposes to which the ordinary revenue was not applicable by law." They

further protested against the expense in police, gaols, and judicial expenditure inflicted upon the colonists in consequence of N.S.W. being made a receptacle for the criminals of England, after it had ceased to derive the profits of their labour on the assignment system; and of the violation of the compact by which the surplus land revenues and other casual revenues of the Crown had been ceded to the Colonial Treasuries. Under this head the committee claimed a large sum—£831,742 3s. 7d., and for the future an annual payment towards police, gaols, and courts of assize of £74,195 6s. 8d. And finally, they requested that persons having claims of any description against the local government should, by special Act of Parliament, be enabled to sue a public officer as nominal defendant, and that the judges of the Supreme Court should be placed in the same position as to tenure of office and security of salary as the judges of the mother country, and no longer be liable to be suspended by the fiat and removed by the report of the Governor. Session after session it was a game at cross purposes between the representatives of the colonists, the Governor and his patrons in Downing-street. For instance, the colonists proposed to reduce the salaries of certain colonial custom-house officers; in the next session of the British Parliament the Colonial Secretary passed a special Act, taking that department from the control of the colonial Parliament. The colonists proposed to spend £9000 of their own money in building a light-house in Bass Straits; they were informed that they must first consult the Home Government on its situation—a matter of two years delay. The colonists passed an Act establishing mortgage and register for mortgages on wool; the Colonial Secretary of State without consulting the colonists disallowed the Act as repugnant to the laws of England. But after long delay and great loss of property the Home Government was obliged to yield and sanction a measure indispensable in a pastoral country. The colonists unanimously protested against a land system established by the Imperial Parliament and against the ordinances affecting pastoral occupation. Lord Stanley without regarding petitions which as Gipps admitted expressed the almost unanimous opinions of the colonists, sent out a despatch stating “his determination to uphold the land system and his perfect approval of the arbitrary powers exercised by the Governor against the squatting interest.” A bill was introduced into the British Parliament for establishing the new system of pastoral occupation—the ex-Governor was consulted—but the Legislative Council were left in ignorance of the provisions of the bill. In fact the records of the Legislative Council are largely occupied with discussions between the Governor and the elected members on every possible subject, the Governor constantly adopting a line of defiance, always treating the opposition as if it were rebellion. On the one side were the colonists, on the other

the Governor backed by the Home Government, concentrating in his own person all power and patronage, supported by the official members and the nominees who were plainly instructed that unless prepared to support the Governor “right or wrong” they must resign. The ability and integrity of the Colonial Secretaries of State during the administration of Gipps and of Gipps himself are indisputable; but they obstinately insisted on knowing whether shoes fitted or not better than the people who wore them, and insisted too that they should wear them whether they pinched or not. Fortunately the prosperity of the colony did not entirely depend on the crotchets of a Colonial Minister or of a Governor, although both could and did seriously retard its progress. But while the Legislative Council were contesting inch by inch the “elementary rights of Englishmen” the grass was growing, the sheep were breeding, the stockmen were exploring new pastures, and the frugal industry of settlers was replacing and increasing the capital lost by wild speculations. And in 1845-46 Gipps was able to announce that the revenue exceeded the expenditure and the exports the imports, while the glut of labour which followed his arrival had been succeeded by a demand which the squatters termed a dearth. In July 1846 Gipps retired from the Government of New South Wales and embarked for England, worn out in body and mind by the excitement of perpetual contests with colonists as unscrupulous in their attacks as he was obstinate and haughty in maintaining his opinions and position. It was a war to the knife on both sides. The last measure he presented to the Legislative Council (a bill to renew the border police) was rejected and an address voted by a large majority after two nights debate, which was virtually a vote of censure on his Government, after which the council adjourned itself for a month. During an administration of eight years distinguished by unusual official and literary aptitude Gipps succeeded in earning the approbation of the Downing-street chiefs and the detestation of the members of every colonial class and interest except his immediate dependents. The squatters, the mercantile and the settler class were equally opposed to him. Yet even with the same political and economical views, erroneous and baneful as many of them were, with much less talent but with a more conciliatory temper he might have been a happy, a popular and a useful Governor. Had he been a man of less mark or a Governor of less power his faults and foibles should have been buried with him; but they form an important part of the history of the colony he misgoverned. His administration must always be considered one of the most important epochs in the history of Australia. The permanent infliction of the £1 an acre monopoly—the consequent triumph of the great pastoral over the freehold interest—the development of the wonderful pastoral resources of Australia—the abolition of assignment and transportation of criminals—the rise of a free

population—the introduction of the elective element into the Legislature—the commencement of a legitimate parliamentary struggle for the establishment of responsible government, and a crowd of events of great local but minor national importance—all these date back to the period during which Gipps “reigned and governed too,” contesting every possible question with the Legislative Council, with the judges, with the crown land commissioners, with the clergy of all denominations, with squatters, with settlers, with every colonist who dared to have any other opinion than the opinion of the Governor. In 1844 the colony was visited by severe floods. The water was from four to five feet deep in the township of Gundagai, which had been laid out and sold in building lots by the Government some time previously. The Commissioner of Crown Lands in the district addressed a letter to the Colonial Secretary (Deas Thomson) suggesting that, “in consequence of the late floods it would be highly essential to the future welfare of the township of Gundagai to have part of the township laid out on the south bank of the Murrumbidgee River, on moderately high ground well adapted for building, giving the parties who have now allotments in the recently-flooded land others on the high land.” The suggestion of the Crown Commissioner as to laying out allotments was adopted; but in conveying this information Mr. Thomson adds:—“His Excellency further directs me to inform you that he cannot sanction the proposed exchange of the flooded allotments, *as he considers that what a man buys he buys for better or worse.*” In 1843 the distress in the colony had reached such a height that no less than 700 persons left for Valparaiso and elsewhere. In the first years of the government of Gipps, as has been stated already, a large immigration and extraordinary influx of British capital produced the establishment of several loan and trust companies, and this facility for obtaining credit stimulated the rage for speculation and extravagance of living to a greater height than even the sheep and cattle mania of Darling’s administration. When the unsoundness of this system produced its natural result all but universal bankruptcy followed. A flock of sheep was sold by the sheriff for sixpence a head. Cattle which had been bought at six guineas a head realised 7s. 6d., and horses the produce of Persian and Arabian sires were sold for 18s. A house in Sydney for which £5000 had been refused was sold for £1200, and sugar which had been shipped at Manilla at £15 a ton sold in Sydney for £10. The hackney coachmen bought their old masters’ carriages for £3, and occasionally “took up” their previous employers “when they were able to pay them a fare.” “So extensive,” says Lang, “was the insolvency of this period that it was calculated by the ablest financiers of the colony, that nearly two millions sterling was lost to the English and colonial creditors through this all but universal crash.”

XIV. *Governor Fitzroy.*—Sir Charles Fitzroy, a younger son of the Grafton family and brother-in-law of the Duke of Richmond, who had previously been Lieutenant-Governor of Prince Edward’s Island and Governor of Antigua in the West Indies, succeeded Sir George Gipps in August 1846; Sir Charles M. O’Connell, Commander of the Forces in N.S.W., having administered the colony during the intermediate space of a month. Fitzroy, who retained the office as Governor-General under the Australian Reform Bill, was in every respect the reverse of Gipps. His talents were not above mediocrity, and his manners were conciliatory. On colonial politics he had no opinions and no prejudices; apparently his chief object being to lead an easy life. It is said that on landing he exclaimed: “I cannot conceive how Sir George Gipps could permit himself to be bored by anything in this delicious climate.” Fitzroy was in fact an eminent example of how far good temper and the impartiality of indifference, in the absence of higher qualities, may make a very respectable colonial Governor. By placing himself unreservedly in the hands of men of colonial experience; by yielding every point left to his own discretion by the Home Government to the wishes of the majority of the Legislative Council; and in fact by never taking the trouble to have any opinion on any colonial subject, he glided over difficulties on which men of more intellect and obstinacy would have made shipwreck. Lord Stanley had held the seals of the Colonial Office during nearly the whole period of Gipps’ government, and sustained him in all his despotic assertions of the royal prerogative. He had earned too considerable personal unpopularity by disallowing several important acts of the Legislative Council, by the exercise of his patronage in an arbitrary manner in favour of improper objects, and by a general course of conduct both negligent and defiant. In 1845 Lord Stanley resigned, and was succeeded by William Gladstone, who retired with Sir Robert Peel’s Government in June 1846. Transportation to N.S.W. had been discontinued in 1840, in consequence of the report of a committee of the House of Commons made in 1838. The class of convicts who had previously been distributed over N.S.W. and V.D.L. as assigned servants, following agricultural and pastoral occupations, were all poured into the latter island, and there massed into what were called probation gangs. Without separate cells or trustworthy gaolers, they festered into the foulest community that ever poisoned the population of a civilised State. The gentlemen of the House of Commons who forced the sudden abolition of the assignment system on the Government, were the cat’s-paws of certain land-jobbers. By a *coup de main* they compelled the Government to do that in a day which required the preparation of years. For the consequent mistakes and failures which occurred between 1840 and 1845 the Colonial Office is scarcely answerable. The experiment was new,

it was suddenly forced upon them by a powerful political combination, and at that period the means of obtaining authentic information from the colonies were few and far between. In 1845 Secretary Gladstone's attention was directed to two serious facts in regard to convictism. On the one hand the gang and probation system in V. D. L. had produced a state of crime and danger fatal to the progress of the colony which could no longer remain unnoticed. On the other, on the rich pastoral plains of the Port Phillip district the increase of flocks and herds had been so rapid as to place the proprietary of squatting runs in great difficulties for want of labourers, and they had consequently formed an association, made a subscription and imported about two thousand expiries and ticket-of-leave holders from V.D.L. to supply their demand for pastoral servants. With the view of controlling these imported criminals, the Legislature of N.S.W. (which until 1850 extended over Port Phillip) proposed to subject them to a system of registration and surveillance similar to that to which the ticket-of-leave men were subjected who had originally been sentenced to N.S.W. The Home Government declined to sanction a colonial legislative act which would have made such a registration legal. But although the pastoral proprietors were willing to accept the services of convicts, there was a large free population in the towns which was satisfied to depend on free emigrants for the supply of labour and determined to resist the return to convictism. With the educated and wealthy opponents of white slavery were banded the labouring classes, who naturally were just as anxious to keep wages up as their employers were to keep them down. It was then—in the commencement of a contest between that portion of the population resident in towns or engaged in agriculture, which on moral and political grounds objected to the renewal of transportation, backed by the labouring classes who were equally averse to the reduction of wages and to the vexatious police regulations incident to the system of prisoner labour which affected all labouring men, and the squatters to whom cheap and obedient labour was essential if they were to retain their wealthy and dominant position—while the respective parties had scarcely marshalled their forces that a despatch arrived from Mr. Gladstone, in which he requested the Governor "to submit to the consideration of the Council whether they would not accept in part supply of the labour market a renewal of a modified system of transportation." Mr. Gladstone had already determined to discontinue transportation to V.D.L. for two years pending the arrangement of a better system, and also to found on northern Australia a new penal settlement. On 13th October a committee of the Legislative Council was appointed on the motion of Wentworth, which contained, of ten members, five squatters and two colonial officials. The first act of this committee was to meet and decide that it was not

expedient at that late period of the session to take any evidence as to the question in Mr. Gladstone's letter, "Whether a modified and carefully-regulated introduction of convict labourers will be in accordance with the general sense of the colony." Accordingly they confined their labours to inquiring from the employers of labour whether they would like a renewal of transportation—that is to say of cheap labour—and they were unanimously answered in the affirmative, provided the transportation was accompanied with certain precautions which they mentioned—and inquiring from the police magistrates in what manner and on what terms such transportation ought to be renewed. Although while the committee was sitting a number of petitions against the renewal of transportation were presented, no witnesses holding the opinions of the petitioners were examined. Among other witnesses called was Captain J. Innes, stipendiary magistrate at the convict barracks, a gentleman whose office and position alike secured him from any sentimental terror of convictism, and induced him to acquiesce as much as possible in the views of those home authorities from whom he received his appointment. But Captain Innes only ventured to propose as the terms on which the colony should consent to receive a limited number of prisoners, "that the colonial government should have the power of settling the rules for the management and discipline of the prisoners; that the Home Government should pay half the police and gaol and administration of justice expenditure, the cost of the penal establishments in the colony and send out one male and one female immigrant for each prisoner and all the female convicts so as to keep a parity of sexes." From the same evidence we learn that at that period (1846) there were about fifteen hundred old convicts—"the very worst class of men imaginable"—still remaining in the gangs and gaols, and that in the colony there were 13,400 ticket-of-leave holders. The Committee reported too late for the council to take their recommendations into consideration to the following effect. They commence by observing that—"They are sufficiently cognizant of the state of public feeling among their fellow-colonists to be satisfied that if the proposed renewal of transportation were any longer practically and substantially an open question, if it rested on the colonists themselves to decide whether the deportation of convicts to this hemisphere should cease or continue—whether they should at once and for ever free themselves and their posterity from the further taint of the convict system, doubtless a large majority especially of the operative classes would give the proposal for renewed transportation an unhesitating veto; nor do your committee feel by any means certain that the decision of the majority of the upper and middle classes of society would now also be in accordance with the report of the General Grievance Committee of 1844, 'that the moral and social influences of the convict system, the contamination and the vice which are

inseparable from it, are evils for which no mere pecuniary benefits would serve as a counterpoise ; and if the Secretary of State be prepared to discontinue the transportation of the convicts of the British empire to all of the Australian Colonies, and thus practically as well as nominally free this continent from their presence, such a course would be more generally 'conducive to the interests and agreeable to the inclinations of those whom it will ultimately concern.' Seeing however that in the view of your committee transportation is no longer an open question—that transportation is still to go on to V.D.L.—seeing moreover that a new penal settlement is immediately to be formed on the very northern boundary of the colony—that thus this colony already inundated on the south with the outpourings of the probation system in V.D.L., the most demoralising that ever was invented, is soon to have poured upon it from the north the exiles of the mother country as well as the exiles from that colony ; and that to augment the volume of this double stream of felony, a system of conditional pardons confining the holders of them practically to the Australian Colonies has been resorted to, with the effect of relieving the British treasury from the cost of maintaining this class of criminals in reality although free men in name ; seeing this your committee consider the question narrowed down to whether transportation should exist in the indirect and polluted shape which it has already assumed ; whether in short we are to have this double tide of moral contamination flowing upon us without restraint or check ; or whether along with whatever compensation transportation can be surrounded, we are to have the additional advantage of modifying and regulating its introduction into the colony by the knowledge which fifty years' experience of its working has given us, which will at all events enable us to combine with the greatest possible good derivable from it the least possible admixture of evil." The committee, after arguing in a very forcible manner against anything in the nature of probation gangs or other aggregation of criminals, "whether for the execution of public works generally or making and repair of roads," proceeded to report:—"As a mere choice of evils which whatever may be the general desire this community has no power to escape from, we are willing to submit to a renewal of transportation upon the following terms and upon no other:—(1st.) That no alteration shall be made in the Constitutional Act 5 and 6 Vict. c. 76, except with a view to the extension of the elective principle. (2nd.) That the transportation of male convicts be accompanied as a simultaneous measure with the importation of an equal number of females, to consist of female convicts as far as they exist and the balance to be made up of female immigrants. (3rd.) That as a further simultaneous measure such transportation be accompanied with an equal importation of free immigrants, as nearly as possible in equal proportions as to sexes. (4th.) That the wives and families of all convicts receiving

permanent or temporary indulgences should be brought out and count as part of this free immigration. (5th.) That no fewer than five thousand male convicts be annually deported. (6th.) That the ironed or road gangs of criminals under colonial sentence and the convict establishments of Norfolk Island and Cockatoo Islands should be maintained as heretofore at the cost of the British treasury. (7th.) That two-thirds of the expense of police, gaols and the criminal administration of justice be paid by the Home Government ; but that on the relinquishment of the land fund and all other revenues or *droits* of the Crown to the appropriation of the Governor and Legislative Council, the whole of this branch of convict expenditure be assumed by the colony with a view to aid the British Government in defraying the cost of the free emigration stipulated for in the second and third conditions. (8th.) That in order to insure due permanency and efficiency in the regulations to be provided for the government and discipline of convicts, the sole power of making such regulations be vested in the Governor and Legislative Council, saving entire the royal prerogative of mercy." With respect to the ticket-of-leave men the committee state that they would rather not receive them at all, but that a system of granting conditional pardons indiscriminately having been extensively practised, they would prefer receiving men subject to registry muster and the surveillance of the police to receiving them without any restraint at all. In another part of their report the committee observed, "The secret to disarm transportation of its evil influences is to increase the free population," that it may always maintain a decided ascendancy, and to keep up the equality of the sexes that the colony may never more be subjected to the horrors of a *populus virorum*. It seems that at that period the males of the colony were 114,000 to 74,000 females. This report having been issued too late to be discussed by the Legislative Council was forwarded by the Government to the Colonial Office and fell into the hands of Mr. Gladstone's successor, Earl Grey. Fitzroy warned by the error of Governor Gipps in his first address to the Legislative Council assured them that he should defer any legislative action on his own part until he had made such a stay and such investigations as were "necessary to acquire personal experience upon several momentous questions upon which it would be presumptuous to offer any opinion at so early a period of our intercourse ;" and he added :—"I take this opportunity of publicly declaring in perfect sincerity that I have assumed the responsible trust with which our Sovereign has honoured me *unfettered by any preconceived opinions* on every subject affecting the interests of any class of her Majesty's subjects in this territory." Among the important subjects affected by this timely and sagacious declaration stood foremost the renewal of transportation ; the upset price of crown lands ; the terms on which those

lands were to be temporarily occupied by pastoral proprietors; the control and appropriation of the colonial revenues and the establishment of steam communication. On all these and many other colonial subjects, as we learn from a work subsequently published by Lord Grey, he had fully made up his mind with that instinctive intuition peculiar to those who are "swaddled, and rocked and dandled into legislators." In reply to the Governor Earl Grey declined to accede to any of the conditions suggested by the Transportation Committee except that which stipulated for the emigration at the expense of the mother country of a number of free emigrants equal in number to the convicts sent; but he suspended any action until the decision of the Legislative Council should be pronounced. In the meantime the Legislative Council in the session of 1847 had considered Wentworth's report and rejected it. In the same year Earl Grey wrote to the Governor of V.D.L., Sir William Denison, "that it was not the intention of her Majesty's government that transportation to V.D.L. should be resumed at the expiration of the two years for which it has already been decided that it should be discontinued." Denison took the sentence in its literal sense and announced the good news in terms which caused general rejoicing. But although it appeared in the sequel that Earl Grey had never meant to discontinue transportation, but only to have convicts on the shores of V.D.L. as exiles—that is to say convicted emigrants or ticket-of-leave men instead of concentrating crime in probation gangs—he took no measures to disabuse or correct the mistaken reading of the Governor until the time came when transportation was openly renewed. In actual fact although the number of criminals sent to V.D.L. was diminished transportation never was discontinued during the proposed two years, but prisoners who had passed through a course of penal discipline in English gaols were landed and almost immediately set at liberty either as exiles or "ticket-of-leavers" to the extent of 3154 between 1846 and 1848. The despatch from Sir William Denison informing the Colonial Office that he had announced the abolition of transportation and that to revive it in any form would be a breach of faith was received at the Colonial Office on the 5th February 1848. The receipt was acknowledged by Earl Grey, by a despatch on the 27th April 1848, in which, without reprimanding the Governor for the alleged misconstruction of the despatch, which seemed to announce that transportation was to be discontinued, he thanked him for his valuable information and without preamble announced that prisoners would be sent out with tickets of leave. The free colonists of V.D.L. never ceased to agitate and protest against the system with such unanimity that at the first general election under the new constitution no single member was returned who did not pledge himself to resist to the uttermost the continuance of transportation; and this

in the face of opposition from candidates who were supported by all the influence of a Government expending upwards of £100,000 a-year. In 1848 the Legislative Council received some accession of strength from the squatter party; the colony was in straits from the cessation of immigration, which had fallen from some six thousand in 1842 to barely three thousand two hundred during the whole five years of 1843-7, and ventured to pass a resolution assenting to a proposition made by Earl Grey by which he undertook to forward a certain number of criminals who had passed through a course of discipline in British penitentiaries, to be landed with tickets of leave, and further to accompany their immigration with that of an equal number of free immigrants to be sent, not at the cost of the Colonial Land Fund, but of the British Exchequer. The passing of this resolution was the signal for the organisation of a fierce agitation against the renewal of transportation, which was kept alive by the arrival from time to time of small bands of felons under the new name of exiles. Fitzroy's despatch, enclosing Wentworth's resolution in favour of the renewal of transportation, reached England in August 1848. The financial state of the country deterred the English Government from proposing the vote needful for defraying the expenses of the free emigrants promised to the colony in consideration of their receiving the convicts. But Earl Grey, in defiance of public opinion in the colonies, as exhibited in a crowd of petitions, resolutions and reports of public meetings forwarded to him, as well as in the universal tone of the colonial newspapers, adopted that part of the bargain which suited the mother country and neglected to fulfil the colonial conditions on which the concession was made. He decided to send out prisoners but no free emigrants; revoked the Order in Council of 1840 by which N.S.W. had ceased to be a place for the reception of convicts; and commenced to send out the inmates of Pentonville and Parkhurst. The publication of this despatch in the colony was received with one universal outburst of indignation. A passage at the conclusion of the communication, in which Fitzroy was told that "if the Legislative Council should object to receive convicts without free immigration at the expense of the Home Government according to the stipulation of the compromise, the transmission of convicts would be stopped, and application made to Parliament for the means of fulfilling the original promise," was considered as approaching insult, because it was evident that during at least nearly twelve months between the penning of that despatch to the receipt of an answer, transportation must flow on. From that time compromise was impossible; the breach of faith became a potent rhetorical weapon in the hands of political agitators. The excitement and fury of all parties was such, that it only needed the presence of an obstinate and haughty Governor to provoke a rebellious outburst. Fortunately Fitzroy preferred a

pleasant day on the race-course to any assertion of vice-regal attributes. In 1849 the *Hashemy* convict-ship arrived in Sydney Harbour. At one of the largest meetings ever held in that city speeches of the most violent character were delivered, and resolutions passed calling upon the Governor to send back the cargo of criminals to England. At the same time certain of the great flockowners eagerly engaged the ticket-of-leave men at lower wages, in preference to a thousand free emigrants, consisting of men, women and children, who arrived at the same time. In the latter end of 1848 the results of distress in England and famine in Ireland were felt in A., in the shape of an inflowing of free emigrants more numerous than had been received since the frantic mania of 1841; and this was increased to such an extent in 1849, that little short of thirteen thousand labouring people were landed in Sydney and an equal number at Port Phillip. An addition of many thousand free emigrants to the population could not fail to produce an effect on the anti-transportation feelings of the colony. When emigrants began to flock freely into the colonies the period for employing convict labour had passed. In 1849 the Legislative Council answered Earl Grey's extraordinary reading of the compromise offered him in 1848, by voting an address to the Queen in which they protested against the adoption of any measure by which the colony would be degraded into a penal settlement, "and entreated Her Majesty to revoke the order in Council by which N.S.W. had been again made a place to which British offenders may be transported." That in this address they only echoed the feelings of the great majority of the colonists was proved in the next election, when gentlemen with the highest claims to the honours of Legislation were rejected on the one ground of having supported the transportation compromise. It is worthy of note that the dearth of labour which had prevailed in previous years, was owing entirely to Earl Grey's refusal to adopt the measures pressed upon him by "the most intelligent and enterprising colonists," and that the supply of labour was due, not to his commissioners, but to the English distress and Irish famine. The obnoxious Order in Council making N.S.W. a penal colony was after a brief contest withdrawn, but the seed of agitation had been sown, the anti-transportation league, embracing all the Australian Colonies, had been organised. The gold discoveries proved to every one, except to Earl Grey, that transportation was not only odious to the colonists but absurd as a punishment. In 1853 it was abolished by the Duke of Newcastle. Such are the leading facts of the Anti-Transportation Question, one of several which formed the subjects of bitter contests between the colonists and Earl Grey during the administration of Fitzroy. The state of public opinion on all the important points which formed the subject of discussion between the Colonial Office and the colonists is shown in the correspondence

which took place between a committee of the Legislative Council, over which the Speaker of the Council presided, and Francis Scott, M.P. So early as 1844 the Council, in the height of their contest with the Governor and Secretary of State on "the grievances connected with Crown lands," turned their attention to the propriety of securing the services, as paid agent, of some member of the British Parliament, who would fill for N.S.W. the post occupied by Edmund Burke, as representative of the State of New York before the breaking out of the War of Independence. With this view Benjamin Boyd, who was urging with indefatigable energy and zeal the cause of his brother squatters in England, selected Francis Scott, M.P., a barrister and a Conservative, with a good political connection among his party, and business habits. But when the scheme was laid before Lord Stanley, the Colonial Minister he declined to give it his sanction unless the Council would consent that one-third of the Committee of Correspondence should consist of nominee members—that is to say in the same proportion as the Council. To this the elective councillors would by no means agree, and the official appointment of Scott and his salary remained in abeyance with many other questions of greater importance; but in the meantime Scott exerted himself with considerable success to oppose the Bill prepared by Lord Stanley, on the information of Sir George Gipps, for settling the tenure of pastoral lands. Eventually Scott was able to organise an opposition among the aristocratic and wealthy relatives of the squatters more formidable than had been anticipated. Amongst the other questions he was instructed to urge was the concession of the control of the casual revenues of the colony claimed by the Council and refused by Sir George Gipps; and assistance for establishing steam communication—a subject which had occupied the Council since 1845. Earl Grey commenced by ceding the point as to the casual revenues. On the land question he adhered to the opinions of Gibbon Wakefield and addressed a despatch to Fitzroy containing a report to that effect prepared by his subordinates, the Colonial Land and Emigration Commissioners. When the colonists learned the terms on which the contest between the pastoral interest and the Colonial Office had been settled, they saw at once that the interest of all those who were not squatters with 4000 sheep had been sacrificed; and that to maintain a high price of land on sale, land on lease had been handed over in perpetuity. Many of those who had supported the squatters so long as Gipps attempted to confiscate their property and had encouraged them to resist a system of taxation based on the royal prerogative now saw that the compromise sacrificed everything to the pastoral interest, and seriously checked the extension of that class of yeoman freeholders on whom the colonisation of the colony chiefly depended—for without farms there would be few wives and

children in the bush. Among these was Robert Lowe, who as chairman of the committee appointed "to consider the minimum upset price of land," drew up a report in which on the evidence of all the most distinguished men in the colony the whole legislation of the mother country on the subject of land was shown to be opposed to the feelings of the colonists, to the needs of the colonies, and in fact to the colonisation of such a country as Australia. In the same year Lowe issued a pamphlet, entitled *Address to the Colonists of New South Wales, on the proposed Land Orders*, which shortly and clearly explained the defects of the compromise with the squatters. This protest, supported as it was by the public opinion of the great majority of the colonists, had no effect on the Home Government. Earl Grey assigned to the Land and Emigration Commissioners the task of replying to the report of a committee which had embodied the opinions of a large body of experienced and intelligent colonists, and these gentlemen, whose lives had been passed in the study and practice of official routine, settled to the satisfaction of themselves and their chief, and in direct contradiction to the opinions of the Legislative Council, how land was to be sold and grazed at the antipodes. This was adding insult to injury. In 1848 a committee of the House of Lords on colonisation examined a number of Australian colonists. With one exception—a gentleman engaged in promoting a land speculation in W.A.—all the witnesses agreed on the impolicy of the land system which had been fastened on the Australian Colonies. Before the same committee William Bradley, a native Australian and member of the Legislative Council, a landed proprietor, a magistrate and holder of a run of 300,000 acres; Captain Coghill, member of the Legislative Council and a proprietor of 30,000 acres of freehold; and W. Verner, Chief Commissioner of the Insolvent Court and a settler in Port Phillip, gave strong evidence to the same effect. But as in 1848 the squatters had obtained all and more than they had ever hoped to obtain, as Earl Grey was still at the head of the Colonial Office, as emigration was rendered brisk by the distress at home, no change was made towards multiplying freeholders in Australia. The result of the policy inaugurated by Lord Stanley and carried out by Earl Grey was to make the humbler class of the Australian population as loose as possible on the land, vagrants instead of settlers. The condition of the country would have been infinitely less critical if the successful emigrants had been encouraged to settle as much as possible on land instead of investing their savings in drink, in stock, or in tours on the coast. Freeholds easily obtained would have stimulated marriage, and those who resorted to the gold-fields would have returned successful or unsuccessful to their homesteads. While the Transportation Question was unsettled and the Land Question in hot dispute, a third question,

that of a new Constitution, with more extended powers, from time to time occupied the attention of the politicians of the three colonies. The South Australian people looked forward anxiously to the enjoyment of representative institutions having, up to 1850 been ruled by a Governor with an official and nominee council. Port Phillip desired separation from N.S.W., and a representative legislature of its own. The distance of Melbourne from Sydney was so great that it was found impossible, in a limited and dispersed population, to find gentlemen able and willing to abandon their pursuits and property to pass the Legislative sessions in so distant a city as Sydney. In N.S.W. it was confidently expected that the new Constitution would bestow rights similar to those enjoyed by the Canadians—that is to say, an executive responsible to the Legislative Council, with full control over their revenues and the disposal of the waste lands. In 1847 Earl Grey prepared a scheme by which the district councils, which were held throughout the colony in contempt were to form electoral colleges, and by double election return a representative assembly, while a second superior chamber was to be composed of nominees. The publication in the colony of the despatch containing a sketch of this scheme was followed by such a manifestation of opposition, and by petitions so numerous signed, requesting that no change should be made in the Constitution without the colonists being first permitted to express their opinion upon it, that the Colonial Minister withdrew his project. In 1849 a committee of the Board of Trade, to whom Earl Grey entrusted the task, prepared a report suggesting a form of constitution to be bestowed on the three colonies. A bill for carrying into effect this report was introduced into, but not carried through the British Parliament. Under this bill the three colonies would have had the power of settling the land and several other questions, by a sort of congress. In the meantime the Report was sent out to the colonies. In V. and S.A. the concession of representative institutions was considered so great a boon that the other parts of the scheme were not too closely criticised. In V. especially, where an ancient contest had been carried on to obtain separation from N.S.W. the new constitution was received with the utmost enthusiasm. In N.S.W. where a representative council had existed for several years, the sections of the Report which gave most satisfaction were those that appeared to give control over the expenditure of the land, revenues, and the power of fixing the price of land. On 13th January 1851 the Governor issued a proclamation announcing the receipt of the Imperial Acts (13 and 14 Vict., cap. 59) establishing constitutional Government in the Australian Colonies and the separation of V. from N.S.W. The Acts were hailed in V. and S.A. with universal satisfaction. These colonies had obtained at least as much as they expected; but when the colonists of N.S.W. found that the clauses as to land and

revenue for which they were most anxious had been excised their discontent was embodied in a remonstrance, and passed as almost their last act by the expiring Legislative Council. The hand of the author Wentworth is visible in every line:—"We, the Legislative Council of New South Wales, in council assembled, feel it a solemn duty which we owe to ourselves, our constituents, and our posterity, before we give place to the new legislature established by the 13 and 14 Vict., cap. 59, to record our deep disappointment and dissatisfaction at the constitution conferred by that act on the colony we represent. After the reiterated reports, resolutions, addresses and petitions which have proceeded from us during the whole course of our legislative career against the schedules appended to the 5 and 6 Vict., cap. 76, and the appropriations of our ordinary revenue therein made, by the sole authority of Parliament—against the administration of our waste lands, and our territorial revenue thence arising—against the withholding of the Customs department from our control—against the dispensation of the patronage of the colony by or at the nomination of the minister for the colonies—and against the veto reserved and exercised by the same minister, in the name of the Crown, in all matters of local legislation; we feel that we had a right to expect that these undoubted grievances would have been redressed by the 13 and 14 Vict., cap. 59; or else that power to redress them would have been conferred on the constituent bodies thereby created, with the avowed intention of establishing an authority more competent than Parliament itself to frame suitable constitutions for the whole group of the Australian Colonies. These our reasonable expectations have been utterly frustrated. The schedules, instead of being abolished, have been increased. The powers of altering the appropriations in these schedules, conferred on the colonial legislature by this new enactment, limited as these powers have been, in effect, nullified by the subsequent instructions of the colonial minister. The exploded fallacies of the Wakefield theory are still clung to; the pernicious Land Sales Act is still maintained in all its integrity; and thousands of our fellow-countrymen (in consequence of the undue price put by that mischievous and impolitic enactment upon our waste lands, in defiance of the precedents of the United States, of Canada, and the other North American colonies, and even of the neighbouring colony of the Cape of Good Hope) are annually diverted from our shores, and thus forced against their will to seek a home for themselves and their children in the backwoods of America. Nor is this all. Our territorial revenue, diminished as it is by this insane policy, is in a great measure confined to the introduction among us of people unsuited to our wants, in many instances the outpourings of the poorhouses and unions of the United Kingdom; instead of being applied, as it ought to be, in directing to our colony a stream of vigorous and

efficient labour, calculated to elevate the character of our industrial population. The bestowal of offices among us, with but partial exceptions, is still exercised by or at the nomination of the colonial minister, and without reference to the just and paramount claims of the colonists, as if the colony itself were but the fief of that Minister. The salaries of the officers of the Customs and all other departments of Government mentioned in the schedules are placed beyond our control; and the only result of this new enactment, ushered as it was into Parliament by the Prime Minister himself with so much parade, and under the pretence of conferring upon us enlarged powers of self-government and treating us at last as an integral portion of the British Empire is, that all the material powers exercised for centuries by the House of Commons are still withheld from us. That our loyalty and our desire for the maintenance of proper order are so far distrusted that we are not permitted to vote our own civil list lest it might prove inadequate to the necessities of the public service. That our waste lands and our territorial revenue, for which Her Majesty is but a trustee, instead of being spontaneously surrendered as an equivalent for such civil list is still reserved, to our great detriment, to swell the patronage and power of the Ministers of the Crown. Thus circumstanced, we feel that on the eve of this Council's dissolution, and as the closing act of our legislative existence, no other course is open to us but to enter on our journals our solemn declaration, protest and remonstrance, as well against the Act of Parliament itself (13 and 14 Vict., cap. 59) as against the instruction of the Minister by which the small power of retrenchment that Act confers on the Colonial Legislature has been thus overridden; and to bequeath the redress of the grievances, which we have been unable to effect by Constitutional means, to the Legislative Council by which we are about to be succeeded." It is quite certain that the colonists were not always in the right; but to form an apology for Earl Grey's unpopularity it must be assumed that he was infallible—that he knew better than any colonist what was good for the colony, and that therefore he was justified in ruling an important British dependency, peopled by an English race, on principles that no Minister dare apply to Yorkshire or Lancashire. In the midst of the first session of the new Colonial Parliaments all political contests, internal and external, were cast into the shade by the gold discoveries; land question, convict question, taxation question, all were absorbed by the digging up of gold over which flocks and herds had long been carelessly driven. The year 1850 found N.S.W. with 200,000 free people; an export of £2,899,600; an import of £2,078,300; 7,000,000 sheep; a surplus revenue, and an annual demand for labour; nominal freedom of self-government; and actual restriction from legislation on every vital interest. The colony commenced a new career.

It had been, as Wentworth graphically expressed it, "precipitated into a nation."

XV. *The Gold Discoveries.*—The history of the Gold Discoveries is narrated under its proper heading. It will be necessary to give here only a short summary of the events preceding and following this revolutionising incident in the history of the colony. The account of the first indications of auriferous mines in the Blue Mountain regions around the Bathurst Plains dates many years before 1851; but these are too general or too vague to command much attention in recording the practical development of this discovery by Hargreaves. He had been resident for some time in the Bathurst country when the announcement in 1848 of the gold discovery in California reached him. The accounts were so attractive to young men bent on bettering their fortunes that a great many went for this purpose to the "diggings," as the American miners familiarly named the alluvial workings. Among these was Hargreaves. While working among the hills and valleys of the Sierra Nevada he observed that the peculiar soil in which the gold dust was found very much resembled what he had often seen on the banks of the streams near Bathurst, and that the adjacent rocks presented a familiar structure to his eye. It does not appear that he was at all versed in geology or mineralogy, but from his intuitive faculties of observation he concluded that where there was so great a similarity there might also be auriferous deposits. With this impression strong in his mind he made his way back to N.S.W. about the end of 1850, and at once proceeded, but with great caution and reticence, to "prospect" the localities he deemed the most likely to contain the coveted metal. This was on the banks of a small stream about twenty miles inland from Bathurst named Summer Hill Creek. Here his most sanguine anticipations were realised by finding some grains of gold after trying a few pans of the soil, which he knew from his Californian experience was that in which it existed. How to divulge the secret to the best advantage was his next consideration. As he did not over-estimate the importance of the discovery, as likely to affect injuriously the social and settled condition of the colony, from what he had witnessed in California, he judiciously made it known privately at first to the local Government. At that time Deas Thomson, the Colonial Secretary, an official of long standing in the colony, was acquainted with some previous communications on the subject that ended in no practical result; consequently he advised the Governor to decline giving any special benefit or premium to Hargreaves until the value of the discovery should be ascertained. Under these circumstances he proceeded to Bathurst, where he assembled the inhabitants of that secluded pastoral township and exhibited the gold he had washed from the banks of Summer Hill Creek, offering to escort a properly equipped party to the spot to prove his assertions. This was done by a number of the

more enterprising settlers, and in a few days they were enabled to affirm the truth of the discovery, which had the effect of attracting every man in the place who could leave to seek his fortune at the diggings. These pioneers of the gold-fields, impressed with a sense of wonder at the astounding fact called the picturesque spot the Valley of Ophir, after the region mentioned in Scripture as a place from whence gold was extracted. Other localities in this vicinity were examined and several of them found to be richer in the size and quantity of the gold—pieces weighing one, two, three and four ounces being dug up, which were named "nuggets," a term in use at California. This mode of working continued for some time until at last the richness and extent of the deposits were evidenced by the discovery of a mass of quartz containing 106 lbs. of gold, by a native who knew nothing previously of its value. The news of the discovery and richness of the Bathurst goldfields spread through the colony with the most exciting effect upon all classes of the community. As predicted and dreaded by the Government, should a discovery occur, the whole fabric of society was unhinged. The male population hitherto plodding at their steady vocations in the office or the fields, whether in town or country, with almost one accord ceased to work and prepared to join the gold-diggers in their exciting occupation, each desirous of becoming the fortunate owner of a lump of gold that would render him independent for life. Those who first left their old employment were the shepherds tending the sheep that produced the "golden fleece," which had advanced the colony to its prosperity. It may well be supposed that the squatters who owned these flocks saw with dismay their desertion by the shepherds. They considered that ruin must inevitably follow to the pastoral interests by this "accursed discovery of the gifts of Mammon." Like many other shortsighted calculations of man, not only was such an evil averted but it proved in the end an increased source of wealth. Before this period the flock-master was obliged to boil down his surplus stock for the sake of the tallow, skin, and wool, which realised not more than 3s. 6d.; while large flocks of sheep were sold at 2s. 6d. per head, and legs of mutton sold at less than 1d. per pound. The influx of new comers to the goldfields, which yielded the means to pay for supplies, soon raised the value of a sheep double, treble,—until it became ten-fold, and the frightened squatters thus became the wealthiest and most independent colonists. In the towns the social confusion was more apparent than in the country. Labourers and mechanics left off work, and he who had some previous knowledge of mining was looked up to as the leader of a party. Clerks left their countinghouses and shopmen their employers' shops, heedless of warning that they would lose their situations. Many civil servants in Government offices, and the book-keepers of bankers and merchants, threw up good appointments ranging

from £200 to £500 and even £1000 a-year for the glittering chances of the goldfields. Even tradesmen closed their places of business, and however unfitted for a life in the bush equipped themselves with pick and spade for their new pursuit. While the trade in ordinary merchandise was at a standstill, ironmongers and storekeepers having a stock of implements suitable for gold-digging obtained fabulous prices for them in consequence of the demand. Those also who dealt in flour, sugar, tea, and portable provisions, benefited likewise by the rush to the diggings; and consequently they remained at home to lay in fresh supplies. On the other hand, the traders in commodities in request shut up their shops and went to participate in the general scramble. Nor did the mania seize alone the people on shore; the sailors deserted the ships afloat in the harbour, leaving their pay behind, and made their journey on foot across the Blue Mountains, over which throngs of travellers passed by day and night, making the solitude for the time a populous thoroughfare. A large population of a most miscellaneous character was thus collected in the region where the precious metal was to be found. In this emergency the utmost promptitude and judgment was required to prevent a state of lawlessness and anarchy such as prevailed at California during the first years of its gold discovery. At once a proclamation was published, according to the old English laws relating to the precious metals on Crown lands which were declared to be the property of Her Majesty; but these were modified so that only a royalty of thirty shillings per month was demanded from every person on the gold-fields, each one having a license to that effect. To collect this license fee and maintain order among the diggers all the available police and military forces were sent up the country. Although there were greater causes than usual for people committing breaches of the peace amidst the confusion that prevailed, yet it is satisfactory to state that during the subsequent eighteen months the returns of crime show no increase on the previous ratio. The licensing system however proved to be unfair for the diggers who were not successful, and obnoxious to them generally; consequently it was rescinded and a duty on the export of gold was substituted. When the fact of these auriferous deposits was made patent to the world, credible statements were put forth that the local authorities had been apprised of the existence of gold in the Australian mountains at various periods anterior to Hargreaves' discovery, and that they suppressed the information fearful of its consequences on the industrial progress of the colony. These prudential motives on the part of the earlier local Governments are commendable, for the colony was not then prepared to receive intelligence of such boundless treasure lying open to their hands. The gradual increase of live stock which furnished animal food to the people at the time of the discovery was in itself a fortunate circumstance,

when so little of other kinds of provisions could be had upon that emergency. Thus, although late in the history of the southern continent, the discovery of its auriferous deposits could not have been made at a more propitious time. Notwithstanding these favourable circumstances of time and place, much social and commercial confusion prevailed during the first year or two; but no extraordinary increase of crime resulted from the discovery. In a few years the first excitement had not only subsided, cooling the fevered imaginations of the colonists, but many, especially among the educated classes, returned to their former occupations. They were lucky men whose services were again engaged at the salaries they had thrown up; the greater number had to work up the ladder of promotion once more as "wiser but sadder men." In like manner shepherds, stockmen, and bullock-drivers, gradually returned to their old employments, as they found that large gold nuggets were as rare as prizes in a lottery. They preferred steady pastoral pursuits, with increased wages, to the fickle freaks of fortune at the gold-fields. To those unaccustomed to hard labour the romance of gold-mining was soon dissipated when they found that the most arduous toil was necessary in procuring the coveted metal, and when obtained rapidly disappeared in paying extravagant prices for the most ordinary necessities of life. A reaction in favour of industrial occupations was the consequence; and there was a want of hands to develop the numerous fresh discoveries of gold all over the country. Moreover the greater attractions of Ballarat and Bendigo drew away the most skilful miners from the Bathurst and other diggings. "It is not yet quite 200 years," writes Therry, "since the squadron of a British Admiral (Anson) swept the seas in search of Spanish galleons; and if a cruiser then came home with a prize of 500,000 dollars after a three months cruise it was hailed as an event that created quite a national joy. Now, ship after ship monthly arrives from Australia freighted with from a quarter to half a million of pounds sterling in gold, and does not attract attention beyond a passing notice in the Money-market article of *The Times*." The first account of the gold-discovery that was sent to Europe was taken down from the lips of Hargreaves by David Blair, and was printed in the *Empire* newspaper, then owned and edited by Henry Parkes.

XVI. *Close of Fitzroy's Administration.*—The first sod of the Sydney and Goulburn Railway was turned by the daughter of Governor Fitzroy on 3rd July 1851, in the presence of 10,000 persons. The introduction of the alpaca was suggested the same year; but it was not till November 1859 that a flock of 292 alpacas, llamas and vicuñas were successfully introduced by C. Ledger, with great trouble, from Peru. After an existence of eight years the Sydney Legislative Council terminated on the 2nd May 1852 and the new Constitution Act came into force. The new House of

Assembly met on the 16th October, with Sir Charles Nicholson, for the third time, as the Speaker. A most important point in respect to the gold discoveries, namely, the settlement of the vexed question as to the management of the gold-fields, was raised by Wentworth; but by a happy coincidence the Australian R. M. steamer arrived the same afternoon, having on board despatches from Sir J. Pakington announcing that Her Majesty's Government had determined to place at the disposal of the Governor and Legislature of N.S.W. (and also of V.) the fund arising from license fees and royalty on gold, with the power of framing the necessary regulations. Thus this long-contested point was satisfactorily adjusted and the Executive and Legislative Councils were enabled to proceed together in harmony. In June the town of Gundagai was almost destroyed by floods. Only seven buildings out of seventy-eight were left standing and eighty-nine people perished. In January the first mail steamer, the *Chusan*, arrived at Sydney, having called at Melbourne on the voyage, after a passage of seventy-nine days, or sixty-seven days actual sailing. The formal opening of the Sydney University took place on 11th October. Its foundation is the most meritorious measure passed during Fitzroy's administration. The University was established under an Act introduced by Wentworth in 1847. It is modelled on those of Oxford and Cambridge; no religious test however is applied to students. Its government is vested in a senate of sixteen Fellows, four of whom may be clergymen. A provost and vice-provost (now called chancellor and vice-chancellor) are chosen by the Fellows out of their own body. Vacancies are filled by the remaining Fellows until there are 100 graduates, Masters of Arts, &c., entitled to vote, when the vacancies are filled by candidates elected by the graduates duly convened. The Act of Council provides an endowment of £5000 a-year; out of this fund provision has been made for eighteen scholarships of the annual value of £50, to be held for periods not exceeding three years. An additional scholarship has since been founded by Thomas Barker. The degree of B.A. was first conferred in 1857 on A. Renwick, G. Salting and W. Salting. The degree of M.A. was first conferred in 1859 on M. Burdekin, W. C. Curtis, R. M. Fitzgerald, E. Lee, D. S. Mitchell, W. C. Wyndeyer, T. W. Johnson and T. Kinloch. The degree of LL.D. was first conferred in 1866 on J. S. Patterson and G. H. Stanley. The degree of LL.B. was first conferred in 1867 on F. E. Rogers. The degree of M.B. was first conferred in 1867 on P. Smith; and the degree of M.D. in 1868 on C. F. Goldsborough. The selection of professors for the several chairs was entrusted to a committee of gentlemen in England and the professors arrived in 1852. E. T. Hamilton, M.A., late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge, was the first provost. By Royal Charter issued 7th February 1858 the same rank, style and

precedence are granted to graduates of the University of Sydney as are enjoyed by graduates of universities within the United Kingdom. The question of Federation and the defective powers of the Council was raised in the Legislature, and a Constitution Committee which played an important part in local politics was formed. After a debate of seven days on the new Constitution Bill it was committed on the 6th December 1853 and followed by a series of resolutions proposed by Wentworth. In July a branch of the Royal Mint, which had been under discussion two years before, was established in Sydney with Colonel E. W. Ward as Deputy Master. The necessary buildings were erected the following year. New defence works were also commenced and £100,000 was voted for immigration. Irresponsible government ceased this year; and Wentworth and Deas Thomson were sent home to watch the new constitution through the Imperial Parliament. Fitzroy left Sydney on 28th January 1855. A series of resolutions moved by James Macarthur had been previously carried in the Legislative Council expressing that body's cordial approval of the practical ability, sound judgment, and eminent success by which his administration had been characterised; and also of the frank and constitutional spirit which he had manifested on all occasions in his dealings with it. An amendment, couched in terms strongly condemnatory of the policy and personal character of Fitzroy, was moved by Dr. Lang but rejected by twenty-eight votes to six. He received on leaving farewell addresses from the various religious bodies and from the colonists at large, the latter accompanied with a testimonial of 2000 sovereigns in gold. Lang represents Fitzroy as a man with neither head nor heart, whose influence on the community both socially and politically was unspeakably evil; and to heighten the colour of the portrait the savage bitterness of the attacks of "Junius" upon the ducal house of Grafton, from which he sprang, are quoted by Lang with grim satisfaction as the consistent and hereditary traditions of the family. Flanagan states that he was far from being that indolent pleasure-seeking man whom his enemies depicted; and it should be remembered that he acted with great tact at the time of the gold-fields discovery, and that during his administration the twopenny postage rate was introduced for the first time in an Australian colony, which conferred great benefits on the public. Fitzroy was an industrious worker in the Cabinet, and never allowed a paper to pass through his office without reading and minuting it with his own hand. After the fatal accident to Lady Mary Fitzroy, the conduct of the Governor and his sons gave rise to very many scandals. He was the last of the old order of Governors. With his successor an entirely new system came in which required an entirely different class of men to administer it.

XVII. *Governor Denison*.—Sir William Denison had been Governor of V.D.L. since 1846, and his administration there was not of a kind to warrant hopeful anticipations of his rule in N.S.W. He was at issue with the colonists of the island on nearly all penal questions, and had predicted that the cessation of transportation would turn Hobart Town into a mere fishing village. He had the reputation of being an able, though severe administrator, strictly obedient to the orders he received from Downing-street. He met the Council in June, and at once pressed on their attention the importance of providing ample means for a perfect and comprehensive system of education for the whole mass of the population. On 31st October the new Constitution arrived in Sydney and on 19th December the Council was prorogued for the last time and the new Legislature inaugurated. The colonists had obtained a boon "which, according as it was used, might be the source of degradation or the medium of the highest honour." The old Council had entrusted the framing of the new Constitution to a committee, which decided to adopt the English system of government by two Houses; the one to represent the people as a whole, the other to watch over the interests of those who by their superior wealth might be supposed to have more than an ordinary stake in the welfare of the country. It was quickly arranged that the popular House should consist of not less than fifty-four members to be elected by men who paid a small rental or possessed property of a certain annual value. But with regard to the nature of the Upper House it was much more difficult to come to a decision. Wentworth proposed that the Queen should establish a colonial peerage to form a small House of Lords, holding their seats by hereditary right; but this idea raised so great an outcry that he made haste to abandon it. Several of the committee were in favour of the scheme (afterwards adopted in V.) of making the Upper House elective, while limiting the choice of members to those who possessed at least £5000 worth of real property. After much discussion however it was decided to give to the Governor the power of nominating the members of this Chamber, which was to consist of not less than twenty-one persons. The Council adopted this scheme and sent it home for the assent of the Queen; they also requested that their constitution might be still further assimilated to that of Great Britain by the introduction of responsible government, so that the Ministers who controlled the affairs of the colony should be no longer officials appointed or dismissed by the Governor and Secretary of State, but should in future be chosen by the Parliament to advise the Governor on all matters of public interest and should be liable to dismissal from office as soon as the Parliament lost confidence in their ability or prudence. The British Government at once gave its assent to this Constitution, which was accordingly inaugurated in 1856; and from that date onward N.S.W. has

been, in political matters, an imitation in miniature of the British Empire. In 1858 two small modifications were introduced; the Lower House was increased in numbers to sixty-eight members and the privilege of voting for it was extended to every male person over twenty-one years of age who had dwelt not less than six months in the colony. The first Ministry under the system of Responsible Government met in May. The inauguration of the Constitution Act was celebrated by a national banquet, at which the Governor, the judges, the former ministers and those of the day, the foreign consuls, and James Macarthur attended; Dr. Bland, one of the earliest champions of Responsible Government, presided. In 1854 great excitement had been caused in Sydney by the outbreak of the Crimean war, and the people in their fear lest they might suddenly receive an unwelcome visit from Russian cruisers, hastened to complete a system of fortifications for the harbour. Denison, who had in youth been trained as an officer of the Royal Engineers in England, took a warm interest in the operations. He built a small fortress on an islet in the middle of the harbour and placed batteries of guns at suitable spots along the shores. The advance of the science of warfare in recent times has left these little fortifications but sorry defences against modern iron-clads; but they have since been supplemented by some of those improvements in defence which have accompanied the invention of new methods of attack. A great gloom was cast over the colony in 1857 by the loss of a fine ship within seven miles of the centre of Sydney. The *Dunbar* sailed from Plymouth in that year with about 120 people on board, many of them well-known colonists who had visited England and were now on their way homewards. As the vessel approached the coast a heavy gale came down from the north-east, and ere they could reach the entrance to Port Jackson night had closed around them. In the deep and stormy gloom they beat to and fro for some time; but at length the captain thought it safer to make for Sydney Heads than to toss about on so wild a sea. He brought the vessel close in to the shore in order to search for the entrance, and when against the stormy sky he perceived a break in the black cliffs he steered for the opening. This however was not the entrance but only a hollow in the cliffs, called by the Sydney people "The Gap." The vessel was standing straight in for the rocks when a mass of boiling surf was observed in the space where they thought the opening was, and ere she could be put about she crashed violently upon the foot of a cliff that frowned ninety feet above; there was a shriek, and then the surf rolled back the fragments and the drowning men. At daybreak the word was given that a ship had been wrecked at the Gap, and during the day thousands of people poured forth from Sydney to view the scene of the disaster. On the following morning it was discovered that there was a solitary survivor, who

having been washed into a hollow in the face of the rock lay concealed in his place of refuge throughout that dreadful night and all the succeeding day. A young man was found who volunteered to let himself down by a rope and rescue the half-dead seaman. To prevent the repetition of so sad an occurrence lighthouses were erected for the guidance of ship-captains entering the harbour. In 1857 the Australian Museum was opened and formed the nucleus of the present collection of specimens. During this period several newspapers sprang into existence, railways began to stretch out from the metropolis, and lines of telegraph united Sydney with the leading cities of the other colonies. In September 1855 the first railway was opened from Sydney to Parramatta by the Governor. The revenue for the year was £1,643,403, and the estimated expenditure £1,660,688. In 1859 the district of Moreton Bay was separated from N.S.W. and erected into the colony of Q. The political history of N.S.W. from the establishment of responsible Government onwards becomes little more than a record of the rise and fall of successive Ministries, and is not fitted to be told in a condensed style. That portion of the annals of the colony has yet to be written; but sufficient is told of it in the present volume in the articles under the names of the successive Chief Ministers of the Crown. In 1860 great floods occurred, chiefly in the southern district, occasioning vast losses of both life and property. The Assembly voted a sum of £3000 for the relief of the sufferers, and a private subscription was set on foot by some public-spirited individuals. Denison's administration closed on the 22nd January 1861. For an interval of two months the Government was administered by Lieut.-Colonel J. F. Kempt. Denison's rule closed well. The ancient causes of strife had all died out, and the Governor, relieved from the duty of obeying the instructions sent from Downing-street, devoted his attention to matters of practical improvement. In various departments—religious, educational, scientific, literary and social—his administration was one of marked progress; new churches, colleges, schools and scientific institutions and societies rapidly sprung up. His lectures before the Philosophical and the Agricultural and the Horticultural Societies, and the Young Men's Christian Association, together with his visits to Norfolk Island to inquire into the condition of the Pitcairn Islanders and to confer on them a political constitution, were proofs of his desire to subserve the cause of moral and social progress in every effectual way.

XVIII. Governor Young.—Sir John Young arrived in Sydney as Denison's successor on 22nd March 1861. He was a man of statesmanlike abilities and polished manners, a worthy successor of Sir Richard Bourke, of whom he was a fellow-countryman. But the administrative capacity of the Governor had become, under responsible government, a matter of comparatively small

importance. The political power was chiefly in the hands of responsible Ministers, and without their advice the Governor could do nothing. The Ministry of the period—headed by Charles Cowper and John Robertson—prepared a bill to alter the regulations for the sale of land, and to give to the poor man an opportunity of obtaining a small farm on easy terms. Any person who declared his readiness to live on his land and to cultivate it, was to be allowed to select a portion not exceeding a certain size, in any part of the colony which he thought most convenient. The land was not to be given gratuitously; but although the selector was to pay for it at the rate of one pound per acre, yet he was not expected to give more than a quarter of the price on taking possession. Three years afterwards he had the option of either paying at once for the remaining three-quarters, or if this were beyond his means, of continuing to hold the land at a yearly rental of one shilling an acre. This was an excellent scheme for the poorer class of farmers; but it was not looked upon with favour by most of the squatters, whose runs were only rented from the State and were therefore liable under this new Act to be invaded by selectors, who would pick out all the more fertile portions, break up the runs in an awkward manner and cause many annoyances. Hence, though the Legislative Assembly passed the bill, the Upper House, whose members were mostly squatters, promptly rejected it; and upon this there arose a struggle, the Ministry being determined to carry the bill and the Council quite as resolute never to pass it. Acting on the advice of his Ministers, the Governor entreated the Upper House to give way; but it was deaf to all persuasions, and the Ministers determined to coerce it by adopting extreme measures. Its members had been nominated by a previous Governor for a period of five years as a preliminary trial before the nominations for life; the term of their appointment was now drawing to a close, and Young, by waiting some little time, might easily have appointed a new Council of his own way of thinking. But the Ministers were impatient to have their measure passed, and instead of waiting they advised the Governor to nominate twenty-one new Members of Council, who being all supporters of the bill would give them a majority in the Upper House; so that on the very last night of its existence it would be obliged to pass the measure and make it law. But when the opponents of the bill saw the trick which was being played upon them they rose from their seats and resigned in a body. The President himself vacated his chair, and as no business could then be carried on the Land Bill was delayed until the Council came to an end, and the Ministers thus found themselves outwitted. They were able somewhat later to effect their purpose; but this little episode in responsible government caused no little stir at the time, and Sir John Young subsequently received a rebuke from the Colonial Secretary for his share

in it. Robertson's Land Act still remains in force, and was amended in 1875. In 1862 an Act was passed abolishing State aid to religion. In 1863 there occurred destructive floods on the Hunter. In 1865 there were in the colony 396 registered clergymen of all denominations, 576 churches and chapels, 922 dwellings or public buildings used for public worship and 588 Sunday-schools attended by 35,500 children. There were also 1069 ordinary schools throughout the colony, at which 53,500 scholars received instruction daily. Nearly five millions sterling had been produced by the mines within ten years; nearly 73,000 acres of additional land were brought under cultivation in this year; 410,608 acres were under wheat giving two and a-quarter acres to each person in the colony; 400,000 people travelled by railways; and in the ten years during which electric telegraphs had been in existence forty-five of the principal townships had been placed in connection by 855 miles of wire. In January 1866 the English mails were first sent from Brisbane *via* Torres Straits. In July great storms were felt all over the colonies especially in N.S.W., the *Cawarra* foundering with all hands off the mouth of the Hunter River at Newcastle. Sir Trevor Chute, K.C.B., the commander of the forces, administered the Government from the departure of Governor Young on 24th December 1867 till the arrival of the Earl of Belmore on 7th January 1868.

XIX. *Governor the Earl of Belmore.*—The Earl of Belmore succeeded. His administration was not popular, nor does he appear to have possessed many of the qualifications needful in the Governor of a colony enjoying representative institutions. In March 1868 occurred the murderous attack of O'Farrell on the Duke of Edinburgh. The construction of the railway line across the Blue Mountains was vigorously prosecuted during this period. The first difficulty which had to be encountered was at a long valley named Knapsack Gully. Here the rails had to be laid on a great viaduct, where the trains run above the tops of the tallest trees. The engineers had next to undertake the formidable task of conducting the line up a steep and rocky incline, seven hundred feet in height. This was effected by cutting a "zig-zag" in the rock; the trains run first to the left, rising upon a slight incline; then reversing they go to the right, still mounting slightly upwards; then again to the left; and so on till the summit is reached. By these means the short distance is rendered long, but the abrupt steepness of the hill is reduced to a gentle inclination. The trains afterwards run along the top of the ridge, gradually rising till at the highest point they are three thousand five hundred feet above the level of the Sydney station. The passengers look down from the mountain tops on the forest-clad valleys far below; they speed along vast embankments or dash through passages cut in the solid rock, whose sides tower above them to the height of an ordinary steeples. In some places long tunnels were bored,

so that the trains now enter a hill at one side and emerge from the other. One of these tunnels was thought to be unsafe, the immense mass of rock above it seemed likely to crush downwards upon the passage, and the engineers thought that their best course would be to remove the hill from above it. Three and a-half tons of gunpowder were placed at intervals in the tunnel and connected by wires with a galvanic battery placed a long distance off. The operation of firing the mine was made a public occasion, and Lady Belmore agreed to go up to the mountains and perform the ceremony of removing the hill. When all was ready she touched the knob which brought the two ends of the wire together; a dull and rumbling sound was heard, the solid rock heaved slowly upward and then settled back to its place broken in a thousand pieces and covered with rolling clouds of dust and smoke. All that the workmen had then to do was to carry away the immense pile of stone and the course was clear for laying the rails. When the line reached the other side of the Blue Mountains there were the same difficulties in the descent; but similar contrivances overcame them and the trains now run along precipices where the surveyors and first workmen had to be lowered by ropes to commence operations. By the southern railway to Yass crowds of people are daily whirled in a few hours to places which forty years ago were reached by Stuart and Hume and Mitchell only after weeks of patient toil, through unknown lands that were far removed from civilisation.

XX. *Governor Robinson.*—The Earl of Belmore was succeeded by Sir Hercules George Robert Robinson, K.G.C.M.G., who arrived in the colony and was sworn in on 3rd June, 1872. He had been previously Governor of Ceylon, and this fact, coupled with the circumstance that most of his official experience had been gained in Crown colonies where the system of government is far less free and popular than that which is enjoyed by the people of N.S.W., gave rise to some doubts respecting the success with which he was likely to preside over the destinies of a vigorous and democratic community. But all doubt in this regard was soon set at rest; and although in one or two instances when it was necessary for him to express an opinion on some matter connected with the action of Parliament it was thought he had gone somewhat beyond the duty of a Governor in a colony with a free constitution, yet it may truly be said no Governor ever enjoyed more popularity, no one ever was more successful in the performance of the general duties of his position, and even his mistakes appear to have been characterised by an earnest desire to do what he believed was for the good of the country. No better evidence could be obtained of the success with which he filled the vice-regal position, than the fact that the people from one end of the colony to the other would have gladly hailed his re-appointment. Sir Hercules Robinson is a man of considerable

ability, of careful judgment, prompt and vigorous action and unflinching courage. On several occasions he brought his energetic mind to bear upon questions which vitally affected the interests of the colony, and by the use of his happy talent for public speaking just at the right moment and in the right way accomplished a large amount of good. His speeches on railway progress, on Australian federation, on the position and duties of a Governor of an Australian colony, and at the Sydney University on mental and physical training, were remarkable instances of a penetrating intellect, a thoughtful expression of liberal views, and a clear understanding of what is necessary for the vigour and prosperity of a community like that of Australia. His thoughtfulness and tact in this direction were instanced in connection with the project for holding an International Exhibition (in 1879,) when, coming to the front and urging upon the Agricultural Society and the public the absolute necessity for carrying out the intended Exhibition in order to save the colony from disgrace, he influenced public opinion to such an extent that new life was infused into the movement at once. Even the youth of the colony were not passed over in silence, and his speech at the Sydney Grammar School examination at Christmas 1877 will long be remembered. His period of office was conspicuous for political crises. In consequence of the state of parties in Parliament for some years past it had been impossible for any Government to remain in office for any length of time, and in fulfilling the duties of his position as a representative of the Crown seeking new advisers the Governor had many difficulties to contend with. Generally he exercised a wise discretion on these occasions; but he was responsible for introducing a practice which met with some condemnation, known as that of "conditional dissolutions," or the promise of the Governor to grant a dissolution of Parliament on condition that the outgoing Ministers are able to obtain supply. In two instances, the Gardiner and Rossi cases, Robinson came into collision with the Legislative Assembly; but if Ministers had been more attentive to their responsibility as the advisers of the Crown, and Parliament more alive to the great principle of responsible government, there need not have been any unpleasantness between the Parliament and the Governor. In the early part of his government he was called on to proceed to Levuka and effect the annexation of Fiji. Accompanied by Sir J. G. L. Innes, Attorney-General in the first Parkes Ministry, the Governor visited Fiji and completed the annexation of the Islands to Great Britain, on terms advantageous to England and satisfactory to Thakombau, the reputed King of Fiji, and to the great chiefs of the country. For his services upon this occasion he received the Grand Cross of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, and Innes was knighted. Out of the mission to Fiji arose a sharp correspondence between the Governor and the Chief Justice

(Sir James Martin) on the non-appointment of an administrator of the Government during the absence of His Excellency from the colony, and the subsequent appointment of Sir Alfred Stephen as Lieutenant-Governor. Robinson made several tours into the interior, becoming personally acquainted with most of the evidences of progress amongst the people and with the vast resources of the colony; and on more than one occasion he visited V. His fondness for field sports gave an impetus to this kind of amusement which it never before possessed in the colony; but while he gave countenance and support to horse-racing, he always endeavoured by counsel and example to purify the turf from the vicious practices which surround it, and to make it a means of pleasure that may be enjoyed with safety and benefit by the most respectable and the most innocent in the land. The history of the colony from the time he landed on its shores was marked by several important events, and on the whole by general prosperity and progress. The year of his arrival was conspicuous for the enthusiasm and speculation among all classes of the people, which produced an extraordinary revival of mining enterprise, and raised sanguine expectations that N.S.W. would more than ever prove to the world that she was immensely rich in mineral treasures, and capable of maintaining a great mining population. The discovery of wonderfully rich veins of gold at Hawkins Hill was followed by discoveries of extensive and valuable deposits of tin and copper in various parts of the colony, and many claims being taken up, numbers of mining companies were started, and everybody was in a fever of excitement to secure shares. But, as at previous times when a mania to become rapidly rich has seized the people, the unhealthy mining excitement was followed within a few months by depression and a general collapse. Legitimate enterprise gave way to share-jobbing and dishonest speculation; and while a few persons by these practices acquired large amounts of money, hundreds lost the savings of years, and many were completely ruined. Nothing however occurred to show that the country is not very rich in mineral deposits, and since the period of the mining mania a judicious application of capital and steady continuous industry have produced results on the gold-fields which have furnished in many cases very satisfactory dividends. Not only for the excitement produced by the discoveries of valuable minerals is the year 1872 remarkable. In that year the spread of knowledge through the length and breadth of the land was assisted by the receipt and despatch, for the first time, of direct telegrams between N.S.W. and England, across the continent of Australia, and by a movement in the Legislative Assembly to abolish the postage rates on newspapers. But the year did not close without a serious Parliamentary mistake; for a majority of the House, led by the Government of the day, objecting to the existence of

the Permanent Infantry Force, a body of men as fine and well trained as a regiment of British regulars, the force was disbanded at the end of the year, Parliament voting a sum of money to compensate the men and their officers for loss of service. In January of the following year an Intercolonial Conference was held, the principal result of its deliberations being the reorganisation of the ocean mail services; and the month of December witnessed the arrival of the first steamer by the Torres Straits mail route, the departure of the first steamer by the reorganised San Francisco route, and the departure of the last steamer belonging to the P. and O. Company, under the old Suez contract. Not only did the colony exhibit a highly commendable spirit of enterprise with regard to ocean mail services, but circumstances being favourable for a reconstruction of the fiscal system, the *ad valorem* duties were repealed and the tariff was further amended by the abolition of several specific duties which were but slightly productive of revenue. The flourishing state of the revenue enabled the Colonial Treasurer not only to clear off the deficit that had so long hampered his accounts, but to get rid of some of the taxation that had been imposed for the purpose of putting the public accounts in a healthy condition. In 1873 a public funeral was given to the remains of William Charles Wentworth; Sir James Martin retired from public life and was appointed Chief Justice; the abolition of postage on newspapers was completed; and a series of resolutions were moved in the Assembly providing for a Department of Justice and Public Instruction, with a responsible Minister at its head; for the abolition of the office of Solicitor-General; and for a change in the status of the Attorney-General, by which that Minister of the Crown ceased to be a member of the Executive Council. The year is noticeable also because it witnessed a decided rise in the rate of wages and a shortening of the hours of labour. The collapse of the mining mania of 1872-3 led capitalists to invest considerable sums of money in the purchase of land; and in 1874 the land revenue had increased so considerably that the Treasurer in making his financial statement was able to show a large surplus, and to announce that the Government were in a position to clear off the last remnant of the old deficiency debt, and to put the finances of the colony on a perfectly sound basis. One important measure of the session of Parliament was the Mining Act, which provided for a Minister for Mines and a Mining Board. But the chief political event of the year was the trouble over the release of the bushranger Gardiner, and the consequent fall of the Government. Some objectionable proceedings in Denominational schools raised an outcry in favour of secular, free, and compulsory education, and led to the formation of the Public Schools League, which was soon afterwards met by an organisation formed under the name of the Defence Association and in the interests of the

Denominational schools. But beyond an agitation which lasted for a considerable time and aroused a good deal of bitter feeling between the supporters of the rival school systems, nothing resulted from the movement until 1875, when the Assembly agreed to resolutions repealing the regulation which required one-third of the cost of public schools to be raised by the inhabitants of the locality where the schools were wanted. While these matters were transpiring preparations were being made for carefully watching an expected transit of Venus, and the arrangements of the Government Astronomer were so complete that he was able to make very satisfactory observations of the transit, and convey to England a valuable contribution to the information collected from all parts of the world respecting this important astronomical event. The year 1875 had not closed when the colony learned with profound regret the death of Commodore Goodenough from the effects of an arrow wound received from the natives of Santa Cruz Island; and a few days after he had breathed his last the citizens of Sydney witnessed the burial of his remains in a quiet and secluded cemetery at North Shore. During the following year the colony passed through such a trying period of drought that at one time it was threatened with a water famine, and a day of humiliation and prayer for rain was fixed; but before the appointed day came round the drought broke up, and the day of prayer for rain was changed into one of thanksgiving. The appointment of a Board under the name of the City and Suburban Sewage and Health Board, led to a lengthy inquiry into the sanitary condition of Sydney and its suburbs, to important recommendations for the improvement of our sewerage system, and to the formation of a Health Society. The year is notable also for the opening of a public exhibition in connection with the Academy of Art, which may be considered the nucleus of an Art Gallery for N.S.W.; for important discoveries in New Guinea by the Rev. Mr. Macfarlane and by Signor D'Albertis; the laying of the foundation-stone of the Prince Alfred Hospital; the opening of the Kiama Basin; the opening of the Lending Branch of the Free Public Library; and for the visit of a team of N.S.W. riflemen to Philadelphia, where they secured a good position among the competing national teams. But the two great events of the year were the highly successful representation of N.S.W. at the Philadelphia Centennial Exhibition, and the victory of Edward Trickett on the Thames, which secured for him and for the colony the rowing championship of the world. These two important matters did more than anything had done for many years to bring the colony into notice in the Mother Country and in America; and its success in athletic contests on the water was accompanied by a victory in the cricket field over an eleven from England, the N.S.W. team playing with a smaller number of men than had ever before been placed as opponents to English cricketers. The

defeat of the "Third Party" in the Assembly brought about a coalition of Sir Henry Parkes and Sir John Robertson, and the formation of the present Government. Immigration has been carried on from America as well as from England; efforts have been made to extend the advantages of education by providing for the establishment of Grammar schools in connection with the Public schools, and for the higher education of girls. On the 25th February 1879 the ceremony of unveiling the statue erected in honour of Cook in Sydney took place. The day was proclaimed a public holiday. It was estimated that about 100,000 persons were present to witness the ceremony. The Governor delivered an extremely eloquent address on the occasion, setting forth the chief incidents in the life and career of the immortal navigator. The concluding passages of this oration are worthy of permanent record. "And now," said His Excellency, "although but little more than a century has passed away since the great navigator sailed on an autumn day in May past the Sydney Heads in the little *Endeavour*, what a marvellous change has since then taken place! The condition of the whole world has in that period been transformed mainly through the increased application of science to social life; but in no part of the globe has this transformation been more complete and striking than it has in Australia. Cook found this land a desolate waste inhabited only by a few naked and hostile savages, and what is the prospect which meets the eye to-day? A country covered with flocks and herds—dotted over with cornfields and vineyards—with busy cities and peaceful hamlets—with churches and schools—with railways and telegraphs—the harbours and coasts alive with steam vessels and other craft—and the land the happy home of over two millions of our own race, who are in the enjoyment of civil and religious liberty to as full an extent as any people upon the face of the earth, and who under these invigorating influences have already so far advanced in all the outward and visible signs of civilisation as to be about to collect this year examples of the products of labour, art and wealth from every known country in the world into an International Exhibition! But great as has been the progress of Australia in the last hundred years, it is I believe as nothing compared to what we may look for in the future. The resources of the country are almost boundless—its capacity for expansion practically unlimited—and at the next centenary of Cook's discovery the population will probably not be less than forty millions. Such a prospect is almost dazzling but at the same time it gives rise to reflections which are not altogether free from anxiety; for it is impossible for any thoughtful mind to contemplate the future of this land without perceiving that there are difficulties to be encountered which it will tax all your wisdom and prudence and fairness to surmount. You have the problem before you—how to provide for the homestead settlement of this vast country without giving rise to class

animosities and without stimulating unduly the isolation of individual families, which would result in the deterioration of the rising generation. You will have to adjust too the relations between capital and labour with fairness to each, both being essential factors in the continued development and prosperity of the country. You will some day, unless one-half of this great continent is to remain for ever a waste, have to face the question of the colonisation and cultivation of tropical Australia, which can, I believe, only be accomplished by tropical labour of some kind under European supervision. You have yet to establish that Parliamentary Government—a machine of the most exquisite delicacy—can be made a permanent success with a Legislature formed upon the strict principles of popular representation, and that the checks and safeguards of our mixed and nicely-balanced constitution can withstand the predominating influence and encroaching tendency of universal suffrage. You will have some day, and I hope before long, to provide for the federation of the Australian Provinces into one Dominion, and above all to arrange eventually for that closer political association with the Mother Country which will admit of many millions of self-governing Anglo-Saxons at the antipodes advancing in national life, while still remaining an integral portion of the Empire of which it is now their pride and privilege to form a part. These and other problems of a similar character will have to be worked out in the future, and I can only repeat the conviction which I have before expressed that the key to their successful solution depends entirely upon the intellectual clearness and moral worth of the individual citizen. One of the greatest of living constitutional authorities has observed that 'it is a great truth which cannot be too constantly borne in mind that the success of all free constitutions depends far less on their particular form than on the spirit and public virtue of the people to be governed by them. When a strong sense of public duty, respect for the constituted authorities and for the law, and a high standard of political right and wrong, prevail in a nation, even very defective institutions will produce the fruits of good government; while with a people of an opposite character the best constitution which the wit of man could devise would fail to prevent the worst abuses, and to guard against the ultimate establishment of tyranny in the hands of a mob, of an oligarchy, or of a single despot.' It becomes therefore of the utmost importance that the rising generation here should be brought up to admire and imitate true nobility of character, and it would I believe be impossible to set before them as an example a higher human standard than that of the earnest, modest, brave, self-denying, just, humane and God-fearing man to whose enterprise we owe the discovery of this land, and to whose memory a statue is this day about to be unveiled in our midst. It is, I think, peculiarly

fitting, having regard to Cook's identity with the masses of the English nation, that the idea of a statue of the great navigator should have originated not with the Government or any scientific society, but with the people of this colony themselves. A monument of the kind cannot in any degree enhance the reputation of Captain Cook, whose name and fame will be remembered so long as the English language and history shall continue in the earth. But such a statue is creditable to ourselves as marking our admiration of the character and services of the man, and our gratitude for the benefits which his discoveries have conferred not only on Australia but also on the world at large. It will serve also to bring home to all the lesson that great deeds and a great reputation can be achieved by those in the humblest station and with the slenderest opportunities. There is scarcely a lad born in this country who has not within his reach educational advantages superior to those which were available to the poor Yorkshire peasant boy, and I hope that the history of his early life may not be thrown away upon the young but that many a child in the future will learn at the foot of this statue how a faithful, patient, cheerful attention to the details of daily duty, however monotonous and commonplace, will bring its own reward, and may perchance, as in the case of James Cook, leave behind a noble and imperishable memory." On 13th March 1879 Robinson took his departure for his new Government in N.Z. amidst the respectful farewells of an immense throng of colonists. No Governor that N.S.W. has ever had was more personally liked by all classes of the population. During the interval accruing until the arrival of Lord Loftus, his successor, the Government was administered by Sir Alfred Stephen.

XXI. Governor Lord Loftus.—Lord Loftus arrived in August 1879. The period of his administration has not yet passed into the domain of history, and at this point therefore the general record concludes for the present. But special mention must be made of the first public ceremonial in which the new Governor took part—the opening of the Great International Exhibition. This event was celebrated on 17th September 1879. The Governors of V., S.A. and T. were present, and the ceremony was one of unprecedented splendour. The address presented to the Governor on this occasion, and His Excellency's reply may fitly form the last paragraphs in the eventful story of the Colony of N.S.W. Sir Patrick Jennings, Director-General of the Exhibition, read as follows:—"I have the honour, on behalf of the gentlemen commissioned in the Government of New South Wales, to ask your Excellency to declare the Sydney International Exhibition of 1879 open to the public in the name of Her Most Gracious Majesty Queen Victoria. The original commission which I have the honour to lay before your Excellency was issued on the 3rd day of January of this present year, and is signed by your

lordship's distinguished predecessor, Sir Hercules Robinson. In virtue of its provisions, the commissioners who assemble here to greet your Excellency and your distinguished guests, undertook the duty of bringing to a practical issue the great project of an international exhibition in Australia. Two hundred and fifty-seven days have elapsed since the issue of this commission, and during that time the members of the commission and its officers have endeavoured to the best of their ability to carry out the high trust committed to their charge. Many circumstances have contributed to enhance the importance of this great project, which growing from small beginnings has attained a magnitude unforeseen by its most sanguine supporters. The generous response and active sympathy accorded by the great nations of Europe, by the United States of America, by the Empire of Japan, by the Indian Empire, and our own colonies, has largely contributed to add to the importance of the Exhibition; and it is our pleasing duty to-day to assist your Excellency in welcoming the distinguished representatives of the participating countries and colonies who honour us by their presence on this important occasion. Since the Exhibition of 1851 in London, held under the presidency of the illustrious Prince Consort, whose memory is nowhere more deeply revered than in this colony, universal expositions or world's fairs have been held in Paris, in London, in Vienna and in Philadelphia, and the beneficial consequences of these 'festivals of peace' become more apparent the more their effects are studied. It has remained for the City of Sydney, the metropolis of the parent colony of Australia, to sustain its position by inviting all flags of the world to range themselves in peaceful concord to-day, and we cannot but feel that we are largely indebted to His Royal Highness the Prince of Wales, not only for giving us the great prestige of his Royal name, but also for the lively interest that His Royal Highness has manifested in this great undertaking. The liberality of the Legislature has permitted the structure which your Lordship is about to throw open to the public to be erected in full accordance with the noble design of the colonial architect, and the generous surrender of the private park of the Governors of New South Wales has provided a site unequalled in beauty and convenience of position. The energy and skill of the contractors for the works of the garden palace, and the valued assistance of the director of the public parks and gardens, have further contributed to bring to a successful issue the Exhibition which we are assembled to-day to inaugurate. It will be the duty of judges, hereafter to be appointed, to examine and report upon the exhibits submitted for competition, which will remain open for the inspection of the public for the next six months. The art collection brought together is on a scale heretofore unknown in Australasia. The Queen's and Prince of Wales' valuable paintings, and the South Kensington collection, will further give an

opportunity to study specimens of all that is best in the arts and sciences of the old country, and tend to elevate and refine the tastes and educate the minds of our fellow-colonists. I have now the honour, on behalf of the Commissioners of the Sydney International Exhibition of 1879, to ask of your Excellency to duly declare the Exhibition opened to the public." Lord Loftus delivered his speech in reply :—"Mr. Jennings and Gentlemen,—I receive your congratulations with deep gratification, and on behalf of the gracious Sovereign whom I represent I congratulate the colony of New South Wales on the success of her efforts to gather in her capital a fair representation of the art achievements and the industrial forces of the globe. The event which we assemble to celebrate is an era in Australian progress, the influence of which like the dews of heaven will hereafter gladden with its forms of beauty the hearts of thousands whose thoughts will never trace the delicate and subtle processes between cause and effect. The source of the teaching may not be recognised, but the lessons will not be less abiding and precious in their value. Here in Australia, as in other parts of the world where invention and skill apply the principles of nature to the mechanical creations of man, it will be found that 'emulation hath a thousand sons.' In this fair building which has arisen within a few months as by the wand of an enchanter the most renowned and enlightened nations of Europe, the great English-speaking republic of America, and those countries of Asia which are the abodes of an immemorial civilisation unite in the radiant bonds of brotherhood in laying at our feet the rich and ever-varying stores of their conceptive genius and creative power. With them are associated the young and aspiring sister colonies of Australasia, each upturned gaze fixed upon the sun, and forming a glorious purpose to achieve in the highest walks of civilisation. In the name of New South Wales the elder colony of the Australian group, and once despised, and may I not say the now honoured, I welcome the representatives of the bright daughter lands of England. I welcome all of human brotherhood to our newly-raised temple of industry and peace in a new world. It is not my purpose to detain the brilliant company around me by any review of the progress of this colony. The occasion is too auspicious for its triumphs. The pride I feel, in common with all classes of the people, in New South Wales being the seat of this international assemblage, is a pride unmingled with any local or self-congratulatory feeling; and in contemplating the great work we are met to inaugurate and the noble display of material treasures before us, I hope we shall be led in a spirit of thankfulness to discern the merciful hand of a higher power. It is to the Almighty Giver of all Goodness that the wonderful progress of human industry and art in our age is to be ascribed. To His illimitable power and all-searching wisdom, and only to the marvellous

ingenuity of man as overruled by His beneficent attributes, is due the completion of the beautiful structure we have so successfully raised. With humble and thankful hearts let us on this solemn occasion reverently recognise the hand of our Maker, and while we invoke His all-powerful blessing, to Him alone give praise and thanks, giving, in the holy words of the angels, 'Glory to God in the highest, and on earth peace and goodwill towards men.' In the name of Her Majesty the Queen I declare the Sydney International Exhibition of 1879 opened to the public."

NEW ZEALAND.—GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.

—The Colony of N.Z. consists of two islands called the North and South Islands, and a small island at the southern extremity called Stewart Island. There are also several small islets such as the Chatham and Auckland Isles that are dependents of the colony. The entire group lies between 34° and 48° S. lat. and 165° and 179° E. long. The two principal islands, with Stewart Island, extend in length 1100 miles, but their breadth is extremely variable, ranging from 46 miles to 250 miles, the average being about 140 miles, but no part is anywhere more distant than 75 miles from the coast.

The total area of—	Sq. miles	Acres.
New Zealand is about ...	100,000	64,640,000
the North Island being ...	44,000	28,000,000
the South Island being ...	55,000	36,000,000
Stewart's Island being ...	1000	640,000

It will thus be seen that the total area is somewhat less than that of Great Britain and Ireland. The North and South Islands are separated by a strait only thirteen miles across at the narrowest part, presenting a feature of the greatest importance to the colony, from its facilitating intercommunication between the different coasts without the necessity of sailing right round the colony. The North Island was, up to the year 1876, divided into four provinces, viz., Auckland, Taranaki, Hawke's Bay and Wellington; Taranaki and Hawke's Bay lie on the W. and E. coasts respectively, between the two more important provinces of Auckland on the N. and Wellington on the S. The South Island was divided into five provinces, viz., Nelson, Marlborough, Canterbury, Otago and Westland (Southland was for a short time an independent province;) Nelson and Marlborough are in the N., Canterbury in the centre, Otago in the S. and Westland to the W. of Canterbury. These provinces however in 1877 were abolished and divided into sixty-three counties—thirty-two in the North Island and thirty-one in the South Island—and Provincial Government ceased to exist. But besides these and the few islands near the coasts, there are several outlying groups and islands, which though situated at a considerable distance in the ocean, yet both by their natural productions and geographical position, may most conveniently be classed as forming part of the N.Z. group of islands. To the S. are the Auckland, Campbell

and Macquarie Islands; to the E. Chatham and the small Bounty and Antipodes Islands; to the N. the Kermadec group and Norfolk with Phillip Islands; and to the N.W. Lord Howe's Island.

PHYSICAL FEATURES AND SCENERY.—The two large islands of N.Z. are marked by striking physical differences which cannot fail to react upon their economical and social relations. North Island, with its varied outlines, consists of two sections—the already mentioned North-western Peninsula, abounding in fertile and well-watered valleys, and the main body of the island, characterised by gently-sloping hilly ranges and low-lying table-lands, varied here and there by volcanic peaks. The country is everywhere covered with a luxuriant growth of timber, except in the heart of the island, which is full of lakes, hot springs and geysers, depositing silica and sulphur, like those of the Yellowstone Park in the United States. South of this point and not far from the centre of North Island is situated Lake Taupo, whose secluded and romantic waters are furrowed only by the canoes of the natives, here more numerous than elsewhere. Still farther to the S. is a very wild highland region but little visited by Europeans. Here are Mount Ruapehu and the extinct volcano of Tongariro, rising to a height of 9195 and 7000 feet respectively. In this district lie the sources of the river Waikato, which flows northwards through Lake Taupo, watering one of the finest regions in the country. Here also are the sources of many other streams, flowing some eastwards to Hawke Bay, others in a south-westerly course to Cook Strait. Besides Mount Tongariro, N.Z. possesses a second active volcano in Mount Wakari, in White Island, a small rock in the Bay of Plenty; besides a large number of extinct craters, tufa and lava cones, beds of slag and scoria, of which as many as sixty-three are found in the isthmus of Auckland alone. At the western entrance of Cook Strait rises in solitary grandeur the snowy Taranaki, or Mount Egmont, 8270 feet high. South Island which is the longer and more extensive of the two presents a very different physical aspect. Its western side is traversed in its entire length by the so-called Southern Alps, a massive range from 10,000 to 13,000 feet high, whose slopes up to the snow-line are densely wooded. Towards the west they contain vast snow-fields and glaciers, extensive tracts filled with stony detritus, moraines, clefts and fissures of enormous depth, whence flow icy streams to the lakes of the table-land. Parallel with the upland plateau and about the centre of the island runs a low range intersected by many mountain streams, which make their way over a series of terraces down to the south-east coast. The lower terraces from the elevation of about 1500 feet down to and inclusive of the narrow coast strip, form the so-called Canterbury Plains. This province of Canterbury is separated from Otago, its southern neighbour, by the broad-flowing Waitaki, which is

fed by three lakes lying at the foot of the central group of hills. The outlines of the coast are very remarkable. The south-western corner of the island is indented, doubtless through glacier action, by deep fiords, similar to those of Norway; the north-eastern sea-board, on Cook Strait, is diversified by countless little inlets and bights; while the east coast forms, with two exceptions, a low and perfectly straight shingly beach. The exceptions are Port Littleton and Port Chalmers, the two narrow channels at Dunedin and Christchurch whose peculiar formation is due to masses of volcanic rock disposed in crescent form and encircling small water basins.

LAKES, HOT SPRINGS, AND GLACIERS.—The lakes of N.Z. deserve especial notice as they present many interesting features. They may be generally classed as due either to volcanic or to glacial action, the former being the case in the North, the latter in the South Island. Taupo, the largest lake in the North Island, is a veritable inland sea, twenty-five miles long and twenty wide, and of an enormous depth, which has not yet been ascertained. It is situated 1250 feet above the level of the sea, and is surrounded by volcanic deposits forming a table-land 1000 feet above its surface. From this rise numerous volcanic cones, while the active volcano Tongariro is only a few miles to the south. On the western side the lake is bounded by vertical precipices 1000 feet high, and here the water is believed to be deepest. Its colour is a dark blue, like that of the deep ocean, and from its centre rises a single small but very beautiful island. This lake has evidently been formed by a great subsidence of the volcanic plateau. Nine miles south of Taupo, behind a group of volcanic cones, is the small lake Roto-aira, at an elevation of more than 1700 feet. The Waikato, about twenty-five miles from its exit from the lake, passes through a remarkable group of hot springs, extending for more than a mile along its banks. The river here plunges through a deep valley, and its floods whirling and foaming around rocky islets dash with a loud uproar through the defile. Along its banks white clouds of steam ascend from hot cascades falling into the river, and from basins full of boiling water shut in by white masses of stone. Steaming fountains rise at short intervals, sometimes two or more playing simultaneously, and producing endless changes, as though experiments were being made with a grand system of waterworks. Dr. Hochstetter counted seventy-six separate clouds of steam visible from a single station, and among them were numerous intermittent geyser-like fountains, with periodical water eruptions. About forty miles N.N.E. from Lake Taupo, and nearly the same distance from the shores of the Bay of Plenty, is the lake district—a cluster of more than sixteen lakes of various sizes, occupying a tract of country about twenty miles long by twelve wide, and covering about the same area as the large lake itself. The district around all these lakes, and extending

between the volcano of Tongariro and the sea, is a zone of hot springs, solfataras, fumeroles and mud volcanoes, more than a thousand in number, which according to Dr. Hochstetter far exceeds all others in the world in variety and extent. The largest as well as the most irregular and picturesque of the group of lakes is Tarawera, surrounded by rugged rocky bluffs, shaded by fine woods, and bounded on the E. by the rock-crowned Tarawera mountain. Next in size is the Rotorua lake, six miles across and nearly circular, with a conical island almost exactly in its centre. Clouds of steam ascend from the numerous hot springs about the shores of this lake, and with its circular form and the conical peak in its centre give it all the appearance of a large volcanic crater; but its depth is but small, and Dr. Hochstetter is of opinion that, like all the other lakes in this district, its origin is due to the sinking of part of the volcanic table-land in which they are situated. But the most wonderful part of the lake region is the small Rotomahana, or Warm Lake, with its boiling springs and siliceous terraces. The first appearance of the lake itself is disappointing, as it wants all the elements of beautiful scenery possessed by the other lakes; but the clouds of steam ascending everywhere around it show that there is something else to be seen. Almost everywhere around the lake there is a seething, hissing and boiling sound from the numerous escapes of steam, boiling water or hot mud, while in the lake itself hot springs are so numerous that the whole body of water is kept at a temperature of 90° or upwards. The chief sight however is the Te Tarata, at the N.E. end of the lake. At eighty feet above its surface, on the fern-clad slope of a hill, there lies an immense boiling cauldron in a crater-like excavation with steep sides, thirty or forty feet high, and only open on the side towards the lake. The basin itself is about eighty feet long by sixty wide, full to the brim of perfectly transparent water, which in the snow-white incrustated basin appears of a beautiful turquoise-blue. Even at the margin it has a temperature of 180° Fahr., but towards the centre, where it is in a state of constant ebullition to the height of several feet, it is probably at the boiling point. The surplus water flowing down the hill-side into the lake has formed a pure white siliceous deposit in a series of ridges or steps covering a surface of about three acres. At the bottom the terraces are low, but further up they are two, three, or even four and six feet high, each with a raised rim from which slender stalactites hang down, and enclosing on its platform one or more basins resplendent with the most beautiful blue water. These basins are of every size and depth, the upper ones warmer and the lower cooler; and they form a series of exquisite baths such as the most refined luxury could not surpass. The pure white of the siliceous deposit, in contrast with the blue of the water and the green of the surrounding vegetation; the intense red of the bare earth-walls

of the water-crater; the whirling clouds of steam—together present a scene unequalled of its kind in any other part of the globe. Passing by numerous mud-springs, fiercely boiling fountains, acid lakes and spouting geysers, we come, on the S.W. side of the lake, to another terrace-fountain called Otukapuarangi, not quite so large and grand as Te Tarata, but surpassing it in the finish and regularity of the terraces, their delicate pinky hue contrasting with the transparent sky-blue water, while the water-crater is shut in by bare walls variously tinged with red, white, and yellow. If now we transfer our view from the Northern to the Southern island, we find, in the magnificent range of the southern mountains, a series of true alpine lakes, fed by huge glaciers, and dependent for their very existence on ancient glaciers of still greater extent. These glacier lakes commence about lat. 42½° S., but they become larger and more numerous as we approach Mount Cook, the giant of N.Z. mountains, 13,200 feet high, where we find Lake Tekapo, fifteen miles long and three wide, and two others, Lakes Tukaki and Oahau, forming the sources of the Waitaki river. The great Godley glacier, which extends above Lake Tekapo, is very extensive, and the view from its middle moraine over the snow-fields of Mount Tyndall, Mount Petermann, and the Keith Johnston range, is said by Dr. Haast to form the grandest scenery he ever beheld in the Alps. Lake Pukaki is ten miles long and four wide, and is shut in by an old terminal moraine, which attains a height of 186 feet above the lake. The view from the outlet towards the Southern Alps, with Mount Cook in the centre, and a wooded islet in the foreground, is described as sublime in the extreme, and, if we imagine villas and parks around its shores, the Lago di Como or Lago Maggiore would not bear comparison with it. It is supplied by the Tasman river, which has its source in the great Tasman glacier, eighteen miles long, and the largest in N.Z. Farther S. the glaciers descend lower, and the lakes increase in size. Lake Wanaku is thirty-five miles long, and Lake Wakatipu fifty miles, while Lake Te Anau, still farther S. is forty miles long, and has numerous extensive branches. The bottoms of many of these lakes are far below the sea-level, though they must have been filling up for ages by the sediment carried into them, a proof either that the entire land was once much higher, or that the lakes have been ground out by glaciers, as supposed by Professor Ramsay. The fact that the lakes increase in size and depth as we go S., while on the W. side of the island it is only towards the S. that the coast is indented by long and winding fiords, whose inner waters are deeper than near their mouths, is strongly in favour of the glacial theory of their origin. On the western side of the mountains there are also numerous glaciers, and one of these, descending from Mount Cook, terminates within 705 feet of the sea-level, and for a long distance is bordered by a magnificent

vegetation of *metrosideros*, tree-ferns, and fuchsias. This is in lat. $43^{\circ} 35' S.$, corresponding to Montpellier and Marseilles in France, and Leghorn in Italy. The general character of the N.Z. scenery, as contrasted with that of A., is well expressed by Anthony Trollope. He says: "In N.Z. everything is English. The scenery, the colour and general appearance of the waters, and the shape of the hills, are altogether un-Australian, and very like that with which we are familiar in the west of Ireland and the Highlands of Scotland. The mountains are brown, and sharp, and serrated, the rivers are bright and rapid, and the lakes are deep and blue, and bosomed among the mountains. If a long-sleeping Briton could be set down among the Otago hills, and on awaking be told he was travelling in Galway or the west of Scotland, he might be easily deceived, though he knew those countries well; but he would feel at once that he was being hoaxed, if he were told in any part of A. that he was travelling among Irish or British scenery."

CLIMATE.—N.Z. has of course a very varied climate, extending as it does through fourteen degrees of latitude. No part of the islands suffer from hot winds, and the temperature is generally equable, especially in the North Island, where frost and snow are almost unknown, except on elevated plateaus, and where, towards the extreme north, the climate becomes semi-tropical. The western shores are moister and more agreeable than the eastern, and the Canterbury Plains on the east side of the South Island experience the greatest vicissitudes of temperature, the annual range of the thermometer being 62° , while at Wellington it is 45° , and at Hokotika, on the west coast of South Island, 48° . The climate of the Canterbury Plains has been said to be a mixture of the climates of the south of France and the Shetland Islands. The rainfall varies between 28 inches at Christchurch and 122 at Hokotika. The coasts of N.Z. are very windy, especially in the straits between the islands; thus Invercargill on Foveaux Straits, and Nelson and Wellington on Cook Straits, have hardly a calm day in the year. Dunedin seems the least windy place on the coast, having had 98 calm days in 1873, while Queenstown, on the Wakatipu Lake, had 142. On the whole the climate is at once mild and bracing; combining a large amount of variety with comparatively few extremes; and it is well fitted for the average English constitution, though less adapted to those in delicate health or with unsound lungs than the brighter skies of A.

GEOLOGY.—The geological formation of the two islands of N.Z. differs remarkably. The North Island is essentially volcanic, the South sedimentary. The North is full of volcanic cones, extinct and active craters, boiling springs, lava fields, sulphur, and lakes formed by subsidence. The South has lofty ranges of slate and granite, with Silurian sandstones and limestones, and the valuable green jade, so much prized by the natives for

making their choicest weapons; snowy ranges, enormous glaciers, deep alpine lakes, and wide glacial deposits. Of course these distinctions are not absolute; there are some primary rocks in the North, and some volcanic formations in the South. Gold and coal are found in both islands, but far more abundantly in the South, while deposits of secondary age cover but a small area in both islands. Volcanic formations occupy fully one-third of the area of the North Island. Within a dozen miles of Auckland City there are more than sixty cones and craters, from 300 to 900 feet high. For hundreds of miles volcanic conglomerates, cinder-heaps, and lava-streams spread over the country; the thousands of hot springs, solfataras, and mud-volcanoes, have already been referred to, while the three lofty volcanoes—Tongariro active, Ruapahu and Mount Egmont quiescent, vie in grandeur with those of most of the great continents. Coal, both palæozoic and tertiary, covers a wide area in the South Island. Good coal is also worked at the Bay of Islands, and near Auckland in the North. Gold has been found to occur almost as abundantly as in V., and in many different localities. Till 1860 little was found, when rich fields were discovered in Otago, and subsequently in Westland, Nelson, and Marlborough, while the Thames-Valley gold-field, in the North Island, surpassed all in richness. Much of the gold is found under glacial drifts, and on the west coast the sands of the sea-shore produce it in paying quantities, especially when a gale of wind brings down fresh deposits from farther north. The same wonderfully lucky finds occurred here as in A. At the Havelock diggings in Marlborough, three men in felling a tree at the edge of a river, found a pocket under it from which in a few hours they washed thirty ounces of gold. In the Tanpeka diggings in Otago one party obtained thirty-eight ounces in a day, and it was said that any who could stand the work could gather from one to two ounces a day. In a few months 16,000 persons were collected at these diggings among wild mountain gullies, and all the phenomena of the Australian "gold-fever" were reproduced. At one time the emigrants arriving at Dunedin from Melbourne amounted to a thousand a day. Besides gold, other metals are worked more or less successfully. Silver is abundant at Mount Rangitoto; copper occurs at Barrier Island, and tin at the Buller. Chrome iron-ore and iron-sand are also abundant, and will no doubt one day be largely worked. Fossil remains are rather scarce in N.Z., and throw little light on its past history. No fossil mammals have been found, and no birds or reptiles except such as are allied to forms still living on the island. The few tertiary shells are closely allied to living species; while the cretaceous and jurassic marine deposits contain ammonites, belemnites, and allied groups bearing a striking resemblance to European forms of the same period; and in the jurassic beds of the Waiparu species of plesiosaurus and ichthyosaurus have been

discovered, showing that these ancient saurians had an almost world-wide distribution.

NATURAL HISTORY.—N.Z. is the largest truly oceanic group of islands in the temperate zone, and, as might be expected, presents a large amount of speciality in all its natural productions. Its flora, when compared with that of other islands of equal extent, is poor in species, since it possesses only about half as many flowering plants as Great Britain. It is, however, wonderfully peculiar, about two-thirds of the species being entirely confined to the group, and even twenty-six of the genera are found nowhere else. The relations of the flora are with A. and with the Antarctic lands, including temperate South America. A large number of species and genera are common to N.Z. and A., but in many cases it is the N.Z. forms which have migrated to A. and not *vice versa*. There is also the extraordinary fact of the total absence of some of the most common and widespread of the Australian groups of plants; for not a single species of *Eucalyptus* or *Acacia* is found in N.Z., a fact which absolutely negatives the idea of any former union or even any recent near approach of the two lands as the cause of the similarities of their floras. No less than eighty-nine species and seventy-six genera are common to N.Z. and South America, but the larger part of these are also found on the Alps of T. and A. There are also fifty species common to N.Z. and the Antarctic islands, and only a few of these are found on the mountains of T. The great characteristics of N.Z. scenery as dependent on vegetation are the forests, the ferns and the grassy plains. The forests chiefly clothe the mountain ranges; the lower hills are covered with fern; while extensive tracts, chiefly on the west in the North Island and on the east in the South, are covered with grass and bushes. In the forests there are scarcely any gay flowers and few herbaceous plants—nothing but shrubs and trees, mostly with obscure green flowers and as destitute of scent as of beauty. Pines belonging to the genera *Podocarpus*, *Dacrydium*, *Phyllocladus*, and *Dammara* abound; but generally the forests are much intermixed, and their chief distinctive feature is the abundance and variety of the ferns that grow beneath their shade. Here are splendid tree-ferns thirty or forty feet high, equalling those of the tropics; exquisitely beautiful filmy ferns growing on trunks of trees; while rocks and shady banks and often the whole surface of the ground are covered with them in great variety. There are about 130 different kinds of ferns and *Lycopods*, while the mosses and *Hepaticæ* are also wonderfully luxuriant, amounting to nearly 900 different species. A few of the trees bear handsome flowers, such as the *Edwardsia microphylla*, with its magnificent yellow pea-like blossoms; the *Metrosideros robusta*, crowned with scarlet flowers; and the large crimson blossoms of the shrubby *Clianthus puniceus*. But these and the few other showy plants are not enough to compensate for the general poverty of

the flora which has led one writer to remark that "there is no indigenous flower equal to England's dog-rose, no indigenous fruit equal to Scotland's cranberry," a statement which though not literally exact well serves to show the poverty in fruits and flowers of the N.Z. vegetation. Sir Joseph Hooker, in the introduction to his "New Zealand Flora," speaks of its monotonous and uninteresting aspect in comparison with that of T., where "*Orchideæ* of many kinds carpet the ground in spring with their beautiful blossoms; the heaths are gay with *Epacrideæ*; herbs, trees and shrubs of *Compositæ* meet the eye in every direction; whilst the *Myrtaceæ* and *Leguminosæ* are characteristics both of the arboreous and shrubby vegetation." And he adds: "The difference is so marked that I retain the most vivid recollection of the physiognomy of Tasmanian mountains and valleys, but a very indifferent one of the New Zealand forest, where all is comparatively speaking blended into one green mass, relieved at the Bay of Islands by the symmetrical crown of the tree-fern, the pale green fountain of foliage of the *Dacrydium cupressinum* and the poplar-like *Knightia* overtopping all." One of the most valuable and abundant of the forest trees of N.Z. is the Kauri pine (*Dammara Australis*), which grows to the height of 180 or 200 feet and furnishes splendid timber. Whole towns have been built of it; it is largely exported, and has been recklessly destroyed by settlers. Dr. Hochstetter so long ago as 1867 stated his belief that the extermination of the Kauri pine is as certain as that of the Maori race. Amongst the smaller plants the Phormium tenax or N.Z. flax is of especial value. When the colonists first arrived the valuable qualities of the phormium fibre were well known as it was in constant use by the natives, and a very considerable trade in the article existed as early as 1828, when the islands were only visited by whalers and Sydney traders. £50,000 worth of the fibre was sold in Sydney alone between 1828 and 1832. At Grimsby, in Lincolnshire, a manufactory was also established in the latter year for the production of articles from the fibre, which failed from some unexplained cause notwithstanding that the results were not considered at the time unsatisfactory. From 1853 to 1860 the average annual value of the fibre exported was nearly £2500 reaching as high as £5500 in 1855, but up to this time the only fibre exported was that prepared by native labour, no machinery of any kind being employed in producing the exported article. In 1860 therefore when the native disturbances affected the Waikato and other interior districts in the North Island, the preparation was confined to the native tribes N. of Auckland, so that the average export value was only £150 per annum. Attention was then directed towards the contrivance of machinery with the aid of which the fibre could be profitably extracted by European labour. In 1861 the increasing demand for white rope and the limited quantity of manilla, which fibre depends for its production on native

manual labour in the Philippine Islands, led to a rise in its value from £21 to £56 per ton and even to £76 per ton in America during the civil war. These high prices stimulated the endeavour to introduce phernium fibre to compete with manilla, and several machines were invented for rapidly producing the fibre from the green leaf. With these machines the export trade again increased, so that from 1866 to 1871 the yearly average was valued at £56,000. [The further descriptive details of the Natural History of N.Z. will be found under the articles "Flora" and "Fauna" of N.Z.]

PAST GEOLOGICAL HISTORY.—"Taking into consideration the peculiarities of the flora and fauna of these islands, and the entire absence of any fossil remains indicating a former connection with other continents, we are justified in concluding that during the whole tertiary period at least, if not for much longer, N.Z. has maintained its isolation from all other extensive tracts of land. We know that A. was formerly richer in mammals than it is now, and we may be sure that it possessed an abundance of species and individuals during the entire range of the tertiary period. If therefore there had been any land connection between the two countries during this lapse of time, it is incredible that no mammals should be found in N.Z., a country so well adapted to support them. The very existence and development of the huge wingless moas is also an indirect proof that no extensive mammalian fauna ever inhabited the country; for such birds take the place of mammals, and they are never abundant except where the latter are absent, as in the case of the dodo and other flightless birds of the Mascarene Islands. But though N.Z. may never have been directly connected with Australia or South America, it has probably been much more extensive than it is now, and has included the Auckland and Chatham Islands, and perhaps even at some remote period the Kermadec group and Norfolk Island. At a much more recent epoch the two large islands have certainly been connected, since an elevation of only 1000 feet would change the submarine bank on which they stand into dry land and form a single island more than double the area of the existing group. This greater extent and greater elevation would have added enormously to the area of the snow-fields of the Southern Alps, and to this was no doubt due that great extension of the glaciers, the effects of which are visible far below their present range in huge moraines and excavated lake-basins. Our conclusion is therefore that N.Z. is the remains of one of the most ancient, if not the most ancient, of the islands of the globe; that it has undergone many fluctuations in area; that the two islands have been quite recently united, and that at some remote epoch it was many times more extensive than it is now; but that through all these changes it has never, during the tertiary epoch at least, been united to any other extensive land." (WALLACE.)

NATIVE RACE.—The physiological and ethnological peculiarities of the Maori race are detailed under the article "Maories."

STEWART ISLAND.—Stewart Island (formerly called South Island) is the third island of the N.Z. group, but is of insignificant size, being only about forty miles in extreme length, and of such an irregular form that its area is less than 500 square miles. It is mountainous and well-wooded with valuable timber-trees. It has also several good harbours, and there are many fertile valleys. It was originally uninhabited, but is now occupied by a few whalers and sealers, with some natives and their half-breed descendants. The seas around swarm with fish, and there are said to be large deposits of iron-sand equal to that of Taranaki.

AGRICULTURE.—The climate of N.Z. is throughout favourable to agriculture and there is everywhere a fair proportion of rich land, although this is more abundant in the North Island owing to the greater extent of decomposed volcanic rocks. In the whole colony there are about 12,000,000 acres of land fitted for agriculture wherein the form of surface is suitable, and about 50,000,000 which are better adapted for pasturage; but from these estimates allowance must be made for about 20,000,000 acres of surface at present covered by forest. In the N. of Auckland including the lower portion of the Waikato valley light volcanic soils prevail, interspersed with areas of clay marl, which in the natural state is cold and uninviting to the agriculturist, but which under proper drainage and cultivation can be brought to a high state of productiveness. The latter are however almost universally neglected at the present time by the settlers, who prefer the more easily worked and more rapidly remunerative soils derived from the volcanic rocks. In the western district which extends round Taranaki and Wanganni the soil is all that can be desired, and is probably one of the richest areas in the southern hemisphere. The surface soil is formed by the decomposition of calcareous marls which underlie the whole country, intermixed with the debris from the lava-streams and tufaceous rocks of the extinct volcanic mountains. The noble character of the forest growth which generally covers the area proves the productiveness of its soil, although at the same time it greatly impedes the progress of settlement. In the central district of the North Island from Taupo towards the Bay of Plenty, the surface soil is derived from rocks of a highly siliceous character, and large areas are covered with little else than loose friable pumice-stone. Towards the coast and in some limited areas near the larger valleys, such as the Waikato and the Thames, and also when volcanic rocks of a less arid description appear at the surface great fertility prevails, and any deficiencies in the character of the soil are amply compensated for by the magnificence of the climate of this part of N.Z. On the eastern side of the slate range, which extends through the North Island, the surface of the country is generally formed of clay marl and

calcareous rocks, the valleys being occupied by shingle deposits derived from the slate and sandstone rocks of the back ranges, with occasional areas of fertile alluvium of considerable extent. It is only the latter portions of this district which can be considered as adapted for agriculture, while the remainder affords some of the finest pastoral land to be met with in any part of the colony. In the South Island the chief agricultural areas are in the vicinity of the sea coast, but there are also small areas in the interior in the vicinity of the Lake districts where agriculture can be profitably followed. The alluvial soil of the lower part of the Canterbury Plains and of Southland are the most remarkable for their fertility; but scarcely less important are the low rolling downs, formed by the calcareous rocks of the tertiary formation, which skirt the higher mountain masses, and frequently have their quality improved by the disintegration of interspersed basaltic rocks. On the western side of the island the rapid fall of the rivers carries the material derived from the mountain ranges almost to the sea coast, so that comparatively small areas are occupied by good alluvial soil; but these, favoured by the humidity of the climate, possess a remarkable degree of fertility. By the proper selection of soil, and with a system of agriculture modified to suit the great variety of climate which necessarily prevails in a country extending over 12° of temperate latitude, every variety of cereal and root crop may be successfully raised; and with due care in these respects N.Z. will not fail to become a great producing and exporting country of all the chief food staples. The progress made in agriculture has been very rapid, and the number of persons engaged in this pursuit is, as compared with other countries, very large, about one in every five of the adult male population being in this way possessed of a permanent stake in the country. The exports of agriculture and farm produce increased from £262,930 in 1875 to £763,635 in 1879. The pursuit of farming has, at any rate in the South Island, been one of the most steadily prosperous industries of the colony; and although in the course of time the value of first-class land has naturally much increased, it is a question whether such enhancement of price is not more than counterbalanced by the improved and cheaper facilities of access to market now offered. Compared with the published accounts of the condition of agricultural affairs in Britain, the prospect offered by N.Z. farming presents a tempting aspect to those engaged in struggling along in the same pursuit in the old country. The average yield of wheat for the year 1878-9 was 22·91 bushels per acre for the whole colony, the average for the last five years being 27·62 bushels per acre.

	Per acre.
For Otago the average yield was	28·18 bushels.
„ Canterbury	20·83 „
„ Wellington	24·47 „

The average yield of other produce for the same year (1878-9) for the whole colony was—

	Per acre.
Oats	30·11 bushels.
Barley	24·76 „
Potatoes	4·98 tons.

The agricultural returns for the year ending 31st March 1879 were 23,129 holdings, of which 15,326 were freehold, 5363 rented, part freehold and part rented 2440. The extent of land broken up but not under crop 251,826 acres. Land under crop 213,764 acres. Wheat 270,198 acres, produce 7,610,012 bushels; oats 330,208 acres, produce 12,062,607 bushels; barley 57,484 acres, produce 1,751,432 bushels; potatoes 21,260 acres, produce 119,523 tons; other crops 186,030 acres; hay 71,911 acres, produce 108,833 tons. The average yield per acre was wheat 28·1 bushels, oats 36·5 bushels, barley 30·4 bushels. The area of the whole colony is estimated approximately at 67,419,107 acres; of this superficies there have been sold or otherwise disposed of from the foundation of the colony to 31st December 1878 (including confiscated lands sold prior to 1877, 1,371,470 acres) 15,241,639 acres; leaving an area of 52,177,468 acres for disposal; a considerable portion of this, particularly in the provisional districts of Auckland, Taranaki, Hawkes Bay and Wellington, is in the hands of native proprietors. In the other districts the native title has become extinct. Of the area of the islands 12,000,000 acres are fitted for agriculture and 50,000,000 for pasturage, but of this area upwards of two-thirds is at present covered by forest. The total area still open for selection was 13,483,679 acres, with 20,828,885 acres held by Land Boards or under lease, and 16,500,000 acres of native territory or of lands sold to Europeans by natives. On 1st January 1880 the number of runs in the colony was 997 of the aggregate area of 12,025,013 acres; the yearly assessment at from a half-penny to twopence per acre rent amounted to £102,215 7s. 3d. There are held under agricultural lease 125,813 acres 2r. 31p., the yearly rents being £10,772 5s. 3d. The land held for mineral and other purposes was 111,287 acres 1r. 33p., the yearly rent being £5517 13s. 9d. The stock returns were 137,768 horses, 578,430 horned cattle, 13,069,338 sheep, 12,243 goats, 207,337 pigs, and 1,323,542 poultry. The agricultural machinery was 985 thrashing machines, 4829 reaping machines, 34 steam ploughs and 32 steam harrows, besides many minor implements.

PASTORAL OCCUPATION.—The mildness of the winter season, which does not require that any special provision for the keep of stock during that period should be made, and the general suitability of the country for grazing purposes and the growth of a superior class of wool, caused the attention of the early settlers to be much given to pastoral pursuits; grass lands were looked up as sheep or cattle runs. The success attending the pursuit enabled the runholders to a large extent

to purchase the freehold of their runs or the best portions of them ; and by improvements in fencing and sowing with English grasses, which thrive remarkably well in the colony, the bearing capabilities of the land were increased many fold. While for the North Island there are considerable tracts of grazing ground with natural herbage, a large extent of the country consists of hill land of varying quality covered with forest or bush, as it is called in the colony. This land, after the bush has been cut down and set fire to, if grass seed be sown upon the ashes is converted in a few weeks into good grazing land. Much forest has already been destroyed in this manner and the land supports large flocks and herds, and the same system will doubtless be extensively followed, as a large portion of country that would be so used is not available for agricultural pursuits. In the Middle Island the bush is chiefly confined to the western slopes of the dividing range ; the open hills, plains and downs to the east of the range being available for grazing purposes. Wool is the most important product of the colony, the annual export being more than double in value that of gold. The merino is the most valuable and important breed cultivated in N.Z., and of sheep of this class the flocks of the colony are chiefly composed ; they are of the Australian merino variety, improved through the importation of pure Saxon merino rams from Germany. The merinos adapt themselves to every change of climate, and thrive and retain, with common care, all their fineness of wool under a burning tropical sun, and in cold mountain regions. In N.Z. the length of staple and weight of fleeces have been increased, without any deterioration in the quality of the wool. Up to the present time the weaving industry in N.Z. has been confined to tweeds, plaiding, and blankets, and various woollen underclothing. The value of wool exported in 1878 amounted to £3,292,807.

FISHERIES.—N.Z. is the chief centre of the southern whale fisheries, and at certain seasons the less frequented harbours are visited by whalers for the purpose of refitting and carrying on shore-fishing and barrelling their oil. These are generally American ships, but Otago and Auckland whaling ships are also equipped by N.Z. owners. The sperm whale abounds in the region of the ocean lying to the N.E., but stragglers are found all round the coast. In the open sea and to the S. the most prized whale next to the sperm is the black whale, or tohoro, which is like the right whale of the North Sea, but with baleen of less value. Along the shores the chief whales captured are the humpback and Rorquals, which become very abundant when not disturbed for a few years. In 1875 20,845 gallons of black oil were exported, valued at £4100, and 7775 gallons of sperm, valued at £2894. In 1877 15,047 gallons of sperm whale oil were exported, valued at £4032. The sea bear, or fur seal, is found in the remote parts of the coasts, about a thousand skins being taken every year by boating parties. In 1875 there were

exported 2767 seal skins, valued at £4050 ; and in 1877 there were exported 1503 seal skins, valued at £1652. The fishes which are found in the N.Z. seas, on the whole, represent the characteristic forms of the southern or Lusitanian province of the Mediterranean coasts ; or, in other words, they resemble those found on the coast between Madeira and the Bay of Biscay more than those caught about the N. of Scotland. Of thirty-three sea fish used as food, the constant residents on all parts of the coast, are the Hapuku, Tarakihi, Trevally, Moki, Aua, Rock Cod, Wrasse, and Patiki ; and while the Snapper, Mullet, and Gurnet are only met with in the N., the Trumpeter, Butter Fish, and Red Cod are confined to the S. But, with the exception of the Patiki, or Flounder, and the Red Cod, none of these are representatives of fishes common even in the S. of Britain, while from the more northern seas similar fishes are altogether absent. In addition to those which remain throughout the year a very large number of the fishes on the N.Z. coast, owing to its geographical position, are pelagic in their habits, and roam over a wide range of ocean, visiting our shores only irregularly in pursuit of food. Of the edible fishes of this class, by far the largest number are visitors from warmer latitudes, such as the Frost Fish, Barracoota, Horse Mackerel, King Fish, Dory, Warehou, Mackerel, and Gar Fish, while only the Ling, Hake, Haddock, and a few other fishes, which are rare and worthless as food, are among those of more southern types which reach the N.Z. coast in their migrations.

METALS AND MINERALS.—Gold was discovered in 1842, less than three years from the foundation of the colony, but it was not practically worked until 1852, when the mines of Coromandel first attracted attention to the district of Cape Colville peninsula, which at the present time forms the chief seat of true mining operations in N.Z. The yield from those mines has up to the present time been over four and a half millions sterling, but is small when compared with the quantity of alluvial gold obtained in the South Island subsequent to 1861, at which date the gold-fields of Otago became prominently known. The principal quartz mines in the North are in Coromandel and in the Thames districts, about thirty miles apart. In these localities the reefs have been "proved" to a depth of over 600 feet below sea level ; but the best mines have as yet been principally confined to the decomposed and comparatively superficial rock. Veins have been discovered and gold obtained at all levels on the ranges, from the sea level to an altitude of 2000 feet. The quantity of gold that has been obtained from some of these quartz reefs is very great ; and for considerable distances the quartz has yielded very uniformly at the rate of 600 ounces to the ton. Such reefs are however very exceptional in N.Z., as elsewhere. Auriferous reefs are also extensively worked in the schistose rocks of Otago, and occur at all altitudes, from sea level to a height of 7400 feet ; the

most elevated gold mine in the Australasian colonies being that opened during 1878 on the summit of Advance Peak, near the Wakatipu Lake. Several promising reefs have also been found in the Westland gold-fields, amongst which may be mentioned a reef of auriferous *Stibnite* at Langdon's Creek, near Greymouth, which yields from a few ounces to ninety-nine ounces of gold per ton; but up to the present time these reefs have not received the attention they deserve, except at Reefton and a few other localities. Reefton is a well-established mining district, and nine mining companies, during the year ending 31st March 1878, divided as profit, the sum of £63,508 among the shareholders. Alluvial gold is chiefly found in the South Island, in the districts of Otago, Westland and Nelson, in which mining operations are carried on over an area of almost 20,000 square miles. The auriferous sand, or gold drift as it is usually termed, is of three distinct kinds:— (1.) That found in the beds of rivers and worked by small parties of miners, the process requiring no large expenditure of capital to effect the separation of the gold. (2.) Immensely thick deposits of gravel of more ancient date occupying the wider valleys and the flat country, from which the gold can only be obtained by means of considerable expenditure and large engineering works for the purpose of bringing a supply of water for undermining and working the auriferous deposits. This description of mining is of a more permanent character than the former, and provision has been made by the Government for assisting the miners by the construction of water races, which will supply the means of profitable employment to a much larger number of persons. Some of these deposits are of considerable age, the cements of Tuapeka being certainly not younger than the lowest tertiary deposits of the colony. They occur in beds from 300 feet to 500 feet thick and cover a considerable area of country. These cements are treated in a different way from ordinary alluvial deposits, being crushed and washed in the same manner that a quartz reef is worked; about 150 tons of stone is thus put through the batteries in one day. They consist of coarse gravels and silts cemented together and carrying variable quantities of gold, and were first found at the Blue Spur in Otago, and subsequently at a number of other places in the same district; at Charleston and elsewhere on the West Coast auriferous cements are also worked, but the localities first cited are those which to the present time have received the greatest attention. The yield of gold from the cement claims is small, but in consequence of the large amount of material which can be operated upon, the value of the deposits is considerable, and their extent guarantees that they will afford remunerative returns for some time to come. (3.) Along the sea coast the continued wash of the waves produces a shifting action on the sands brought down by the rivers and drifted along the shore, thus producing fine deposits of gold, which

by the aid of simple mechanical contrivances afford employment to a large number of diggers, who can labour without incurring the hardships attending the occupation of the miner in the more inland districts. The alluvial diggings at Collingwood were discovered in 1858; those of Otago in 1861; and in 1864 the gold-fields near Hokitika proved a great attraction to the mining population. In Otago the gold drifts rest on the denuded surface of their parent rocks. The auriferous gravels in the western district, on the other hand, as a general rule, rest on the surface of tertiary rocks of marine origin, and they have a general distribution parallel to whatever was the western shore of the island at the time of their deposit. The richest alluvial diggings in Westland usually occur in places inaccessible for water supply, the streams having cut their channels much below the surface of the country, so that an organised system of irrigation is necessary to obtain the required amount of water for the gold washing. The total quantity of gold entered for exportation up to 31st December 1879 amounted to 9,246,946 ounces, valued at £36,110,490. The silver exported from the colony has been chiefly extracted from the gold obtained at the Thames, which is alloyed with about 30 per cent. of the less valuable metal. Within the last two years several mines have been opened where the ore is argentiferous galena that yields twenty to fifty ounces of silver to the ton. In some cases the galena is mixed with iron pyrites that yields a fair percentage of gold. A mine has recently been opened in Nelson, at Richmond Hill, where the ore is a form of tetrahedrite, a mixed ore, containing silver, antimony, zinc, bismuth and copper, the silver being at the rate of from twenty ounces to 1792 ounces per ton. The total quantity of silver entered for exportation from the year 1869, when it was first exported, up to the 31st December 1879, amounted to 338,581 ounces, valued at £90,457. No iron mines are at present worked, though almost every known variety of iron ore has been discovered in the colony, the workings being limited to the black sands which occur plentifully on the coasts. There are also few soils or stream gravels that will not yield a considerable quantity when washed; the chief deposits are however on the sea shore of the W. coast of both islands, the best known being that at Taranaki. Several companies have been formed both in England and the colony to manufacture steel direct from this iron sand; they have not however succeeded, but a partial success has been attained lately by a new company by smelting in furnaces bricks formed of the ore with calcareous clay and carbonaceous matter. It remains to be proved however if it can be treated in large quantities by this process. At Parapara, Nelson, immense quantities of brown hematite ore occurs on the surface of the ground. Some of this was converted into iron at Melbourne in 1873, and gave on analysis 97·7 per cent. of iron. Deposits of a similar kind have been found in other localities.

Copper mines have been worked in Auckland on Great Barrier Island and in Kawau Island, and to a small extent in Doubtless Bay. It has been found associated with the metamorphic rocks in Otago and at Waipori, where a four-foot sulphide of copper (pyrites) lode exists. An attempt to trace this lode was made for a short time and then abandoned. A carbonate of copper is found in the same locality, but only in rolled fragments. Copper has also been found in the form of cuprite and copper glance in the Dun Mountain, Nelson, and on D'Urville Island, at which latter place the ore has been traced to a depth of 100 feet; some of the better samples from this place yielding as much as forty-five per cent. of copper. A lode of copper pyrites mixed with pyrrhotine has also been discovered in Dusky Sound, Otago, and a mine is being opened up at that place. Deposits of lead ore, zinc, chrome, antimony and manganese have been found in small quantities in various localities. Coal mines are being worked in the districts of Auckland, Nelson, Canterbury, Otago and Southland. Bituminous coal is worked chiefly in Nelson Province. At Mount Rochfort or Buller mines the seams are on a high plateau and are ten to forty feet thick, and from 900 to 3000 feet above the sea level; accurate surveys of this coal field show it to contain 140,000,000 tons of bituminous coal of the best quality and easily accessible. A railway seventeen miles in length is completed along the level country at the base of the ranges in which the coal occurs. At the Brunner coal mine on the Grey River, Nelson, the working face of the seam is eighteen feet, and it has been proved to extend one-third of a mile on the strike without disturbance, and to be available for working in an area of thirty acres; the estimated amount of coal being 4,000,000 tons, most of which can be worked above the water level. The coal from the Brunner Mine has been worked for twelve years; it yields vitreous coke, with brilliant metallic lustre. A railway has been constructed by Government to connect the mine with the port, and harbour improvements are in progress, whereby a larger class of vessels will be enabled to enter the river. The small quantity of this coal hitherto obtainable in N.Z. and Australian markets has been eagerly bought up for gas works and iron foundries. Engineers of local steamers esteem it 20 per cent. better than the best N.S.W. coal for steam purposes. Coke made from it is valued at £3 per ton. The first export of coal from N.Z. was made in 1866, amounting to 261 tons. At Kawa Kawa the average output is now 3500 tons per month. The Taupiri Company's monthly output is upwards of 2000 tons. Mining of brown coal or lignite, deposits of which are scattered over all parts of the colony, though not likely, except in a few instances, to support such large mining communities as the black coal, will afford in time extensive employment. As a natural product derived from the decomposition of coal seams, there occur petroleum or rock-oil springs in various parts of

the colony, particularly at Taranaki, on the W. coast, and in the vicinity of Poverty Bay, near the East Cape, in the North Island. The quality of the petroleum in the latter place is said to be equal to that obtained in Canada and the United States, as it yields, by a simple refining process, 60 to 75 per cent. of commercial kerosene. Sulphur is found in several parts of the North Island.—Building stone of superior character, also marble and granite, are regularly quarried in several localities. Marble is said to be in unlimited quantities at Caswell Sound. Graphite or blacklead has been found in large quantities at Wellington, and antimony near Greymouth. From the 1st April 1857 to 31st December 1879 the quantities of gold exported from the following districts were:—From Auckland, 1,249,104 ozs., valued £4,567,915; Wellington, 30 ozs., valued at £120; Marlborough, 46,840 ozs., valued at £181,730; Nelson, 1,622,587 ozs., valued at £6,442,709; West Coast, 2,423,166 ozs., valued at £9,599,663; Otago and Southland, 3,905,219 ozs., valued at £15,361,243; making a total of 9,246,946 ozs., valued at £36,153,380. To 31st March 1880 the total exports of gold were 9,326,248 ozs., valued at £36,471,588. The number of miners on 31st March 1879 was 14,297; the average earning of each miner for the year was £75 10s. Of the miners 3000 are Chinese, of whom about three-fourths are in Otago. During the year ending 31st March 1879 there were crushed 79,005 tons of stone; the yield being 98,052 ounces; beside which 20,000 ozs. were obtained from cement at Lawrence; making a total of 118,052 ozs. On 31st March 1880 the number of miners was 14,409; the average earnings of each miner was £81 2s. During the previous year 75,713 tons of quartz were crushed, yielding 92,344 ozs., which with 23,000 ozs. from cement at Lawrence made a total result of 115,344 ozs.

POPULATION.—By the census taken 3rd March 1880 the population was 230,998 males and 183,414 females; total 414,412. Of these 4438 were Chinese, 9 being females. The number of native-born whites was 174,126. The estimated population on 31st March 1880 was 470,000. In March 1878 there were 79.40 females to every 100 males; but exclusive of Chinese the proportion would be 100 males to 80.98 females. There were 82,588 inhabited dwellings, 5296 unoccupied dwellings, and 497 houses being built. Of the total 85,450 dwellings 3001 were built of brick or stone; 68,771 of wood and iron; 2748 of sod or similar material; 453 of raupo (a framework thatched with raupo or bulrush;) 2202 were described as huts of sod clay, wood or stone, and 2931 were tents or dwellings with canvas roofs. 4401 buildings were returned as stores, warehouses, workshops, business premises, and buildings used for offices only. The population was most dense in the Province of Canterbury, amounting there to 6.769 persons to a square mile; and least dense in the Province of Marlborough, where it only amounted to 1.778 persons to a square mile. Of the population 69.52

per cent. could read and write; 676 could read only; and 2372 could not read. The number of births in 1878 was 17,770; of marriages 3377; and of deaths 4645. *Maori Population.*—The total number of Maoris and of half-castes living as Maoris was in 1878 estimated at 42,819, the greater part being in the North Island, only a few living in the South and its adjacent Islands. The number of the principal tribes is 19. Of the Maoris 24,363 were stated to be males and 20,335 to be females. The sex of 772 was not given. Much difference of opinion exists as to whether the decline of the Maori race has not been, at any rate in certain districts, arrested, and it may be interesting to compare, so far as they are given, the ages of the Maoris with the ages of the settled and steadily increasing population of England. The numbers and sexes of some of the Maori tribes have been imperfectly given. It is therefore necessary to deal only with those tribes for which full information as to numbers, ages, and sexes is given. This was the case in respect of 13 of the principal tribes, amounting in the whole to 31,645, according to an account taken in 1874. Of these 6079 were males under 15 and 5225 females under 15. The males over 15 amounted to 11,209 and the females over 15 to 9132. There was a total excess of males over females of 2931, or to every 100 males there were 83.05 females. In England in 1871 the males under 15 amounted to 37.15 per cent. of the whole male population; the Maori males under the age of 15 amounted to 35.16 per cent. of the male population. The females of similar ages were respectively in England 35.12 per cent. of the whole female population, and among the Maoris 36.39 per cent. The existence among the Maoris of a higher proportion of females under 15 to the total female population than obtains in England might at first lead to the belief that the decline in the numbers of the race had been arrested, and that even an increase might be expected. It will however be manifest that if there are causes in operation which increase the mortality of the adult Maoris without increasing the mortality of the children the actual proportion of children to the whole population would be thereby much greater, and an appearance of productiveness shown which did not really exist. Do such causes exist? Does the fact of the partial adoption by the adult Maori of civilised habits and costume, and the continual reversion to the habits and costume of barbarism, with a system rendered more susceptible to external influences, especially those of a humid and changeable climate, tend to promote the spread of disease, notably of tubercular diseases, and consequent mortality? Does the spread of drinking habits tend to shorten the life of the adult Maori? These and other similar questions have an important bearing on the subject. The examination of the numbers of some of the tribes points rather to the conclusion that some such causes of mortality among the adults do exist.

The Ngatikahungunu show 41.91 per cent. of the males and 41.21 per cent. of the females as being under 15 years of age. The Rarawa show 40.58 per cent. of the males and 48.30 per cent. of the females as being under 15. It is hardly conceivable that the women of these tribes should have been so exceedingly prolific, and that, as in the case of the Rawa, nearly one half of the female population should have been under 15, unless a large number of adult women had died before reaching middle age, thereby increasing the proportion of younger females by reducing the proportion of the adults. It is to be noticed in connection with this subject that in 1871 the Maoris were estimated at 37,502, and in 1867 at 38,540, while in 1874 they were estimated at 45,470, and in 1878 at 42,819. The estimates formerly made were, however, from the then state of feeling in the Maori population, necessarily much more imperfect and unreliable than those recently made.

EDUCATION.—The system of education is now regulated by the Education Act which came into operation on 1st January 1878. The whole colony has been divided into twelve education districts, not corresponding with the former educational divisions, nor with the Provincial Districts. The present districts are subdivided into school districts each being under an Education Board. The teaching is entirely secular and free: the subjects embraced being reading, writing, arithmetic, English grammar and composition, geography, history, elementary science, drawing, object lessons, vocal music, needlework, domestic economy and drill. Religious teaching during prescribed hours is entirely forbidden, but may be given after school hours under certain conditions. There is a statutory grant to the Education Boards of £3 15s. per annum for every child in average attendance at the Public Schools, and in addition a grant at the rate of 10s. per annum for every child in average daily attendance, for distribution among the School Committees for local educational purposes, and a further sum of 1s. 6d. per child for the support of scholarships; and there are also additional grants for the training of teachers and school inspection. During 1879 the number of schools open was 817, as compared with 748 in the previous year. In the number are included 47 half-time, and 39 aided or subsidised schools. The average number of scholars in attendance at all the schools was 58,738, as against 50,639 in the previous year, showing an increase of 8099 scholars; the attendance having risen from an average of 67.7 per cent., to an average of 71.9 for each school. The number of teachers employed was, 1773, classified thus:—Head masters 659, male assistants 113, male pupil teachers 113, head mistresses 278, assistant mistresses 265, female pupil teachers 345. In addition to the literary staff may be added 110 work mistresses or teachers of sewing. The total expenditure on public schools was £417,849 7s. 5d., the cost per scholar including management, school inspection, and

maintenance was £3 3s. 2d.; if the cost of new school buildings be included the average per scholar would be £7 10s. 10d., against £6 3s. 9d. for 1878. The expenditure on school buildings in 1879 was £172,867 14s. 3d. In connection with the school system are Public Libraries and Savings Banks for the use of the children. In 1879 the sum of £6074 0s. 7d. was expended on the former. The Savings Banks have not proved a success. Excluding the Universities and the Theological Colleges the average daily attendance at the Secondary Schools was 679 boys and 483 girls, who were taught by 21 male, and 23 female teachers there being also 29 visiting teachers. 96 scholarships were held from one to three years tenure, varying in value from £20 to £40, the total cost amounting to £2834 14s. 4d. On 1st January 1879 there were 236 private schools, with 526 teachers, and an average attendance of 8138 scholars. For Higher and Secondary Education there are the University of N.Z., the University of Otago and Canterbury College; and Auckland College and Grammar School, Auckland Girls' High School, Wellington College, Canterbury Girls' High School, Otago Boys' High School and Otago Girls' High School, Nelson College, and Christ College and Grammar School, Christchurch, with some other institutions of a less public character. The University of N.Z. is empowered to confer the same degrees as the Universities of Oxford and Cambridge. According to a recent return the number of undergraduates was 158. The income for the year 1879, including the Government grant of £3000, was £3551 8s. 3d., the expenditure was £2885 12s. 5d. At the Otago University for the year ending 31st March 1880 there were 111 students, of whom 15 matriculated. The total number attending the classes was 188. The income for the year was £12,704 5s. 11d.; the expenditure was £13,759 2s. 11d.

NATIVE SCHOOLS.—The number of schools established for the education of the Maori race was during 1877, 56. The number of pupils was 1088 males and 711 females, an increase as compared with the previous year of 94 males and 135 females. The number of instructors was 103, of whom 55 were males and 48 were females; of these four males and three females were of the Native race. The grants by the Government on account of these schools amounted to £10,740. Thirty-six European schools also received subsidies from the Government for the support of Maori pupils. 436 Maoris—viz., 231 males and 205 females, attended these schools, an increase on the previous year of 71 males and 85 females. The total number of Maori children thus receiving education in 1877 amounted to 2235.

PUBLIC WORKS.—The rugged character of the country generally, and the natural difficulties appertaining to many of the sites on which the chief towns were built, very early necessitated a large outlay on roads and public works. This necessity was fully recognised, and to some extent

met by most of the Provincial Governments, who have justly received great credit for their far-seeing and liberal exertions in that direction. A great deal of road-making, often of a very costly character, was accomplished; harbour and other improvements were begun, and immigration was encouraged. Something was also done in the way of making railways, notably in Canterbury, where a line unusually difficult and expensive in construction, involving some heavy tunnelling, was successfully carried through by the Provincial Government in order to provide easy means of communication between Christchurch and the Port of Lyttleton. Some advance towards the construction of a main trunk line had also been made in the same province. In Otago the City of Dunedin had been connected with Port Chalmers by a railway, constructed under the guarantee of the Otago Provincial Government, and some miles of railway had been made in Southland. But the work to be done in the colony generally was too vast to be grappled with by the exertions of local governments. It was therefore proposed that the General Government should take in hand the execution of all public works of a colonial character on an extensive and well-defined system, and a loan of ten millions raised to provide funds for that purpose. The objects to be accomplished were defined to be:—(1) Systematic immigration on a large scale. (2) Construction of a main trunk railway throughout each Island. (3) Construction of roads through the interior of the North Island. (4) The purchase of native land in the North Island. (5) The supply of water on gold-fields. (6) The extension of telegraph works. In accordance with the plan thus laid down, the Immigration and Public Works Act of 1870 was passed by the Legislature, and many who were greatly alarmed when the scheme was first propounded to the country by Sir Julius Vogel, and thought it wild and extravagant, have since admitted that the step taken was as wise as it was bold. A considerable extent of country has been opened up and settled by a large and thriving population in a surprisingly short space of time. As facilities were offered for the conveyance of the products of agriculture the value of land greatly increased—not its nominal value merely, but its actual value. Hundreds of thousands of acres worth, before the advent of railways, from £1 to £3 an acre, were afterwards sold at prices ranging from £10 to £20 per acre, and for the most part were bought by experienced farmers who had made their money in the colony and knew the real capability and value of the land so purchased. It may also be said that in addition to the reproductive indirect results of the public works policy, the outlay incurred, at least in the case of the railways constructed, is likely to prove a capital investment, and so be directly reproductive, many of the principal lines already yielding a fair interest on the money expended in their construction. The total amount expended on public

works by the General Government from the date of the Immigration and Public Works Act of 1870, and similar subsequent Acts, and under their authority up to 31st March 1880, was £15,286,621, which with the addition of the advances in the hands of officers of the Government (£315,763) and an estimated sum of £200,000 for discount and charges of raising the last loan, makes together £15,802,384, leaving a balance of £3,262,410 out of loans raised under the authority of the Act, amounting in the aggregate to £19,000,000 sterling.

IMMIGRATION AND EMIGRATION.—Up to the end of the year 1870 the conduct of immigration was entirely in the hands of the different Provincial Governments. The Public works and Immigration Act of 1870 provided a sum of £1,000,000 out of the loan then authorised, to be expended upon the introduction of immigrants into the colony. The liberal system under which immigration had been conducted, and which allowed residents in the colony to nominate suitable persons for free passages, has been modified for a time owing to the presence of a superabundance of labour coupled with the fact that more than the average number of the most desirable class of immigrants—small farmers and others with means—were coming forward and paying their own passages to the colony. The immigrants who have arrived, taken as a whole, may be said to be of a superior class. The total arrivals during 1879-80 amounted to 7413 persons. The number of immigrants brought to the colony at the public expense up till the 30th June 1880 was 84,499 statute adults.

REVENUE.—The total ordinary revenue for the colony in 1878 was:—Ordinary Revenue, raised by taxation, £1,533,393; Territorial Revenue, not raised by taxation, £2,634,496; Total revenue, £4,167,889. According to the Treasurer's statement the deficit on 30th June 1879 was £133,790; the expenditure for the nine months ending 31st March was £2,772,276; the liabilities on the same date £272,774; making a total of £3,178,840. The receipts for the same period were £2,133,758; land tax due 1st April £50,000; assets £5000; total revenue £2,188,758. Taking the total revenue from the total expenditure, there was a deficit of £990,081 for the period ended 31st March 1880, to meet which Treasury and deficiency bills were issued to the amount of £1,000,000. To equalise expenditure and revenue in the future it was proposed to reduce the salaries of ministers twenty per cent., to make expensive curtailments in the Civil Service, to reduce all salaries ten per cent., to impose an excise tax of three-pence per gallon on beer, and to increase the Succession Duties.

PUBLIC DEBT.—The public debt amounted on 31st March 1880 to £27,422,611; or, deducting the accrued sinking funds, £25,617,112 16s. 4d. This amount is exclusive of Treasury and deficiency bills for £992,000 held by the Public Works Fund and the £800,000 unsold debentures of the loan of 1870 guaranteed by the Imperial Government.

When these are disposed of the gross debt will amount to £29,214,611; or, deducting the accumulated sinking fund, £27,409,113, subject to an annual charge of about £1,535,000 for interest.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—The exports for the year 1878 (excluding imported goods exported) were £6,015,700. The imports were £8,755,663. The export of wool was 59,270,256lbs., valued at £3,392,807; tallow 100,380 cwt., value £178,502; hides 10,203, value £9,571; sheepskins 184,123, value £16,239; gold 311,437 ozs., value £1,244,190; coal 6362 tons, value £5139; flour 4031 tons, wheat 1,701,011 bushels, barley 102,476 bushels, oats 302,776 bushels, the whole valued at £555,071; preserved meats 28,188 cwt., value £74,225; Kauri gum 3,445 tons, value £132,975; hemp 622 tons, value £10,666; timber £183,618; sealskins £1245; sperm oil £5041. The imports comprised all kinds of manufactures and articles in daily use and consumption, £5,333,170 being from the United Kingdom. For 1879 the exports were £5,473,126; the imports £8,374,585. Between 1860 and 1865 the imports rose from £1,188,000 to £5,352,000, and the exports from £438,000 to £2,718,000. This advance was due to the gold discoveries.

BANKS.—On 30th June 1880 the aggregate average assets of the six banks doing business in the colony were £14,310,636 12s. 9d.; the average liabilities £9,424,825 15s. 2d. The dividends ranged from 6 per cent. (National) to 17½ per cent. (New South Wales,) the average being 12½ per cent., and the aggregate £382,514 5s. 5d. The total amount of reserved funds when the dividends were declared was £2,679,341 13s. 11d. The note circulation amounted to £907,084 1s. 7d. The deposits bearing interest were £4,457,230 18s.; not bearing interest, £3,140,522 10s. 11d. The total paid-up capital was £5,450,000.

GOVERNMENT INSURANCE.—An extensive system of life-assurance is carried on by the Government. During the nine and a half years it has been in existence the policies issued number 12,896, assuring the sum of £4,533,733. The accumulated funds on 30th June 1880 amounted to £372,654 14s. 5d.

MILLS AND MANUFACTORIES.—In 1879 there were 102 flour mills, 87 breweries, 31 flax mills. In addition to these there are 657 manufactories, works, &c., employing 7999 male hands and 195 female hands, and machinery of the aggregate of 4203 horse-power. The principal of these factories are 8 agricultural implement, 6 biscuit, 32 boiling down and meat preserving, 124 potteries, 13 candle and soap works, 49 coach building, 2 distilleries, 100 fellmongeries and tanneries, 11 furniture, 2 glue, 28 iron and brass foundries, 19 rope, cordage, and mat, 204 saw mills, sash and door, 43 ship and boat building, 3 woollen cloth. Railway trucks are made in the colony both at Government and private works.

PUBLIC LIBRARIES.—There are 161 institutions variously denominated as public libraries, mechanics' institutes, and literary institutes:

these had, on 1st January 1879, 98,039 volumes and 9411 members.

CROWN LANDS.—Prior to the abolition of Provincial Government the control and management of the Crown lands in each province was vested in the respective Provincial Governments, and the laws and regulations relating thereto were very various. In 1877 a general Land Act applicable to the whole colony was passed. Under this Act the supreme administration of all Crown lands was vested in the Minister of Lands; the colony being divided into ten land districts, each having a Crown Lands Commissioner, one or more Receivers of Land Revenue, and a Board of Commissioners. Land not sold by auction may, by special proclamation of the Governor, remain open for selection, at the upset price, on a system of deferred payments extending over a period of ten years. Although the Act applies generally to the whole colony, the Commissioners have authority to modify some of its provisions so as to meet certain exceptional cases. The Amendment Act which came into operation on 1st January 1880 contains some important provisions, not the least being the repeal of the Act of 1877. It gives power to the Governor to declare residence optional on bush land taken up on deferred payments; also to fix the price at which any allotments of rural or suburban land open for sale on deferred payment may be disposed of, the price being not less in any case than twenty shillings per acre for rural land and ninety shillings per acre for suburban lands. The Governor may increase the price of any allotments which he may consider to be of special value. The Act also provides that several small sections contiguous to one another may be grouped into one allotment. The total area of Crown land sold or otherwise disposed of from the first return in 1856 to 30th June 1879 amounted to 14,014,632 acres; of which 11,672,651 acres were sold for cash, realising the sum of £11,210,412. A total estimated area of 34,304,550 acres (exclusive of Native lands) still remains open for settlement. The total area of Crown lands held for depasturing purposes on 30th June 1879 was 12,253,876 acres, in the hands of 918 holders, the rents and assessments of which amounted to £111,000.

RAILWAYS AND ROADS.—Soon after the passing of the Immigration and Public Works Act in 1870 the construction of railways on a large and systematic scale was commenced, and has proceeded vigorously since that time. The total length of lines open for traffic on the 30th June 1879 was 1140 miles; and there were under construction 142 miles. The total amount expended in the construction of railways to that date was £8,057,188. The district roads are undertaken by the various Road Boards. The total number of these boards in 1877 was 320, and their expenditure for the year amounted to £387,534. Much road making has also been done by the General Government, especially in the North Island. During the period from June 1869 to June 1879 the General

Government expenditure in this department amounted to the sum of £975,552, the roads constructed being about 3000 miles.

ADMINISTRATION OF JUSTICE.—This is under the care of a Chief Justice and four puisne Judges of the Supreme Court, besides Judges of the district courts and Resident or Stipendiary Magistrates. A Court of Appeal, at which all the Judges sit, is held annually at Wellington.

CONSTITUTION.—In 1853 Constitutional Government was conferred on N.Z. (Act 15 and 16 Vict. cap. 72.) It is represented by a Governor appointed by the Crown, a Ministry who form the executive, and a Parliament of two chambers. The Legislative Council consists of forty-five members appointed by the Crown for life, of whom two are Maoris. The House of Representatives consists of eighty-eight members, thirty-two for the North Island, fifty-two for the South Island, and four Maori members, whose term of office is limited to three years. The members of both Houses receive £157 10s. each for every session, to cover travelling and other expenses, less a reduction of ten per cent. Every man twenty-one years of age, who has been resident in the colony one year, and six months in one electoral district, or any person who has for six months preceding the day of registration owned a property of £25 value, is qualified both to vote for, or to be a member of, the House of Representatives. The Maori qualification is possession of a freehold of the value of £25, or being a ratepayer within an electoral district. In 1879, 6686 Maoris were on the electoral roll. Each province till recently had its own separate local government, being in this respect similar to each State in the United States; the governing power was vested in a Provincial Council consisting of twenty to forty councillors, presided over by a Superintendent; both Council and Superintendent being chosen for four years; the provincial system was abolished by an Act of the General Assembly (39 Vict. No. xxi.) passed in 1875, the powers previously exercised by the Superintendents and other provincial officers being delegated to local boards, called County Councils, or vested in the Governor. A detailed description of each Provincial District is given under the several heads.

HISTORY.—I. *First Settlement.*—N.Z. appears to have been discovered and first peopled by the Maori race, a remnant of which still inhabits parts of the Islands. At what time the discovery was made or from what place the discoverers came are matters which are lost in the obscurity which envelopes the history of a people without letters. Little more can now be gathered from their traditions than that they were immigrants, not indigenous; and that when they came there were probably no other inhabitants of the country. Similarity of language indicates a northern origin, probably Malay, and proves that they advanced to N.Z. through various groups of the Pacific Islands in which they left deposits of the same race, who

to this day speak the same or nearly the same tongue. When Cook first visited the country he availed himself of the assistance of a native from Tahiti, whose language proved to be almost identical with that of the New Zealanders, and through the medium of whose interpretation a large amount of information respecting the country and its inhabitants was obtained, which could not have been had without it. The first European who made the existence of N.Z. known to the civilised world, and who gave it the name it bears was Tasman, the Dutch navigator, who visited it in 1642. Claims to earlier discovery by other European explorers have been raised, but they are unsupported by any sufficient evidence. Tasman did not land on any part of the islands, but having had a boat's crew cut off by the natives in the bay now known as Massacre Bay, he contented himself with sailing along the western coast of the North Island and quitted its shores without taking possession of the country in the name of the Government he served; a formality which, according to the law of nations (which regards the occupation of savages as a thing of small account,) would have entitled the Dutch to call N.Z. theirs—at least so far as to exclude other civilised nations from colonising it and conferring on themselves the right to do so. From the date of Tasman's flying visit to 1769 no stranger is known to have visited the islands. In the latter year Cook reached them in the course of the first of those voyages of great enterprise which have made his name illustrious.

II. *Cook's Discoveries.*—The first of Cook's voyages of discovery began in August 1768 when he was sent to Tahiti to observe the transit of Venus. Having performed this duty his instructions directed him to visit N.Z., of which nothing more was known than the little that Tasman had told. After a run of eighty-six days from Tahiti, having touched at some other places, he sighted the coast of N.Z. on 6th October 1769. On the 8th he landed in Poverty Bay on the east coast of the North Island. It is interesting to know what appearance it presented at the time of Cook's arrival. The aspect of most countries from the sea is less prepossessing than their internal features, and this holds good of the greater part of the east coast of both islands of N.Z. Portions of the west coast of both, however, present views from the deck of a ship unsurpassed in any part of the world. For instance, the hundred miles of Southern Alps whose snowy peaks pierce the sky at a height of nearly 14,000 feet, their sides clothed with dense evergreen forests in the very bosom of which lie gigantic glaciers, and their base chafed by the resounding surf of the Pacific Ocean. Then there is the stately cone of Mount Egmont, rising near 10,000 feet in solitary grandeur from an undulating wooded plateau almost on the margin of the sea. There are also the stupendous precipices of Milford Sound shooting up sheer many hundreds of feet from an almost fathomless depth of ocean frowned

down upon by the snowy summits of the great Alpine range, while cascades of nearly 1000 feet fall headlong down their sides. These great features remain to this day as they were at the period of Cook's arrival. Nor has the general character of the country as a whole been much changed in its principal features by the progress of colonisation. More of it no doubt was then in a state of nature; but much of it is so still. Dense forests exhibiting new and beautiful forms of vegetation, including the gigantic scarlet flowering myrtle (one of the largest forest trees,) the graceful tree-fern, and the bright eastern-like Nikau palm, clothed the mountain slopes and much of the undulating lower country. Elsewhere vast plains of brown fern, or coarse yellow and hay-coloured grasses, or big swamps bearing the farinaceous raupo and the native flax of the country, the well-known *Phormium* of commerce. Then there was the feature with which the voyagers from their long visits to Queen Charlotte's Sound would be so familiar—the little retiring cove with its sandy or pebbly beach, its few acres of level green backed up by steep hills covered with lofty trees, and an underbrush of velvety shrubs arranged by the hand of nature far more tastefully than could have been done by the Londons or Paxtons of the civilised world. Ship Cove, Cook's favourite rendezvous, was one of these beautiful nooks—a spot where as he observed if a man could live without friends, he might make a model home of perfect isolated happiness. To every Englishman, whose colonising taste has been inspired by his boyish reading of Robinson Crusoe, these charming little bays seem to realise the exact idea of his imagination. While there are large tracts of country in N.Z. which present no pleasant feature except to the mind of the sheep-farmer or agriculturist, there are others which combine all the grandeur and beauty that can delight the eye of the most fastidious lover of nature, the painter or the poet. And much of this must have lain under Cook's eye during his visits to the country. The spot where Cook landed, however, though by no means repulsive, was not one of the most inviting portions to look at. Hills of no great height or grandeur, backing a moderate-sized flat at the head of a bay, whose horns were two not very commanding white cliffs did not afford a prospect either very imposing or very inviting. At the present time it is the site of a prosperous and flourishing European settlement; but at the time of Cook's visit it was barren and unoccupied, except by a few natives of unfriendly character. No fields of waving corn, no cattle luxuriating on meadows of the now celebrated Poverty Bay rye-grass, no hamlet, no church spire, no cottages with children running in and out, no sign of civilisation, of material plenty or social life. It required an eye of faith to see it as it now is, and to believe that in a hundred years it would exhibit the picture it does. The circumstances of Cook's first landing were unfortunate. "We landed," he says, "abreast

of the ship on the east side of the river, which was here about forty yards broad; but seeing some natives on the west side with whom I wished to speak, and finding the river not fordable, I ordered the yawl to carry us over, and left the pinnace at the entrance. When we came near the place where the people were assembled they all ran away; however we landed, and leaving some boys to take care of the yawl we walked up to some huts which were about 200 or 300 yards from the waterside. When we had got some distance from the boat four men armed with long lances rushed out of the woods, and running up to attack the boat, would certainly have cut her off if the people in the pinnace had not discovered them and called to the boys to drop down the stream. The boys instantly obeyed, but being closely pursued, the coxswain of the pinnace, who had charge of the boats, fired a musket over their heads. At this they stopped and looked round them, but in a few minutes renewed the pursuit, brandishing their lances in a threatening manner. The coxswain then fired a second musket over their heads, but of this they took no notice, and one of them lifting up his spear to dart it at the boat, another piece was fired, which shot him dead. When he fell the other three stood motionless, as if petrified with astonishment. As soon as they recovered they went back, dragging the dead body, which however they soon left that it might not encumber their flight. At the report of the musket we drew together, having straggled to a little distance from each other, and made the best of our way back to the boat, and crossing the river we soon saw the native lying dead on the ground." The account which the natives themselves gave of their impressions on Cook's arrival is recorded by Polack, who had it from the mouths of their children in 1836:—"They took the ship at first for a gigantic bird, and were struck with the beauty and size of its wings, as they supposed the sails to be. But on seeing a smaller bird, unfledged, descending into the water, and a number of parti-coloured beings, apparently in human shape, the bird was regarded as a houseful of divinities. Nothing could exceed their astonishment. The sudden death of their chief (it proved to be their great fighting general) was regarded as a thunderbolt of these new gods, and the noise made by the muskets was represented as thunder. To revenge themselves was the dearest wish of the tribe, but how to accomplish it with divinities who could kill them at a distance was difficult to determine. Many of them observed that they felt themselves ill by being only looked upon by these atua (gods,) and it was therefore agreed that as the new comers could bewitch with a look the sooner their society was dismissed the better for their general welfare." It was not much to be wondered at that any further intercourse with the natives at this point should become impossible. Other collisions attended with similar fatal results followed on succeeding days; and on the 11th, three days after his first landing, Cook

weighed anchor and stood away from this "unfortunate and inhospitable place," as he calls it, and on which he bestowed the name of Poverty Bay, as it did not afford a single article they wanted, except a little firewood. Had his subsequent experiences been as unpropitious he would probably not have reported to his countrymen at home so favourably of N.Z. There is no doubt that the problem of initiating intercourse with a people of the temper exhibited by the Maoris, and so little civilised as they were, was one difficult of solution. As strangers had never but once before visited the country in the hasty manner in which Tasman came and departed, and at a place remote from that at which Cook arrived, the Maoris could hardly be expected to appreciate the relations which ought to exist between themselves and their visitors. It must have been a new sensation to most of them to know that there were such things as strangers; still more strangers resembling themselves so little and differing of themselves so much. It is not surprising that the first impulse of the Maoris of Poverty Bay should be to hurl their spears at the strangers. Cook's idea of meeting such a hostile greeting was, as he tells, first by the use of firearms to convince the savage of the superior power of the white man, and then to conciliate him by kindness and liberal dealing. Whether any other method were possible he does not seem to have been allowed by the natives time to consider, the first collision being in a manner forced upon him within five minutes of his arrival, though the challenge was perhaps too hastily accepted. He soon however discovered that the country was not all made up of "Poverty Bays," nor were the natives, when wooed with a less rough courtship, altogether incapable of access or entirely obnoxious to strangers. In Tolago Bay, Mercury Bay, Hawke's Bay, the Bay of Plenty, the estuary of the Thames, the harbour of Waitemata, in Whangarei, and at the Bay of Islands, and lastly at his favourite rendezvous of Queen Charlotte's Sound, he was able to procure the refreshments which Poverty Bay had failed to supply, and he established a footing with the natives which, if it had in it more of the spirit of barter than of hospitality, was less deterrent than the attitude taken up by those who greeted him on his first arrival, and which ended in the unfortunate events to which we have before referred. There was no object of greater interest to him than the newly-discovered Maori race, with whose habits and character he was specially instructed to make himself acquainted. He found them savages in the fullest sense of the word. Some writers who have given the reins to their imagination have pictured savage life as a state of Arcadian simplicity, and savage character as a field on which are displayed all the virtues which adorned humanity before civilisation brought vice, confusion, and trouble into the world. More truly has it been observed that "the peaceful life and gentle disposition, the freedom from oppression, the

exemption from selfishness and from evil passions, and the simplicity of character of savages have no existence except in the fictions of poets and the fancies of vain speculators, nor can their mode of life be called with propriety the natural state of man." Cook's experience fully verified these views. He found the Maoris almost entirely unacquainted with mechanic arts, their skill limited to the ability to scoop a canoe out of a tree, to weave coarse clothing out of the fibres of the native flax, to fabricate fishing nets, to make spears, clubs, and other rude weapons of war, or still ruder ornaments for the adornment of their persons, their huts, or their canoes. Beasts of burden they had none—the women supplied their place. Stone hatchets were the substitute for axes and all cutting tools. The country is full of iron ore, but the use of the metal was entirely unknown. They had no wheeled carriages. Their agriculture was limited to the cultivation apparently of two roots—the kumera or sweet potato, and the taro, another esculent plant. Their food consisted of those plants, of eels and sea-fish, rats, occasional dogs, wild fowl and human flesh; and their nearest approach to bread was the root of the wild edible fern, a not very wholesome or palatable substitute. Cereals they were without. Their religious notions were of a confused order, involving good and evil demons, but without any idea of worship or prayer. Their priests wielded a sort of half moral and half political power in the institution of the taboo, to which they subjected whom they pleased, and the infringement of which involved punishments of the severest sorts. But the one absorbing idea of the race was war. Every tribe and almost every family was at war with every other. Their time was almost wholly spent in planning or awaiting invasions of their neighbours, or in the bloody struggles which resulted; the consequence being, as Cook observes, a habit of personal watchfulness which was never for a moment relaxed. Female infanticide was a common and established practice, which appears to have reduced the proportion of females to males to something like seven to ten. Female virtue was entirely disregarded before marriage and not much valued afterwards; while to crown the whole, cannibalism was the universal practice of the race. Cook had been specially instructed to institute inquiries on this point. There were many persons at home who were sceptical on the existence of cannibalism among any people. The result of his daily observations was to leave no doubt of its existence, and to establish the fact that it was not merely an occasional excess to which those who practised it were impelled by fury and the spirit of revenge against an enemy, but that human flesh was their almost daily habitual food. A provision-basket was seldom seen without having in it a human head or other evidence of the fact. It is true that they told him that they ate only their enemies; but so incessant were their invasions of each other that enemies were never wanting, or if the supply

failed, slaves taken in former raids were substitutes at hand, and constantly killed in cold blood for the purpose. Much has been said and written of the deplorable fact that the foot of civilised man treads out the life of the savage; and there are not wanting those who impute to colonisation the extinction of the Maori race. A moment's reflection on their habits of life as described by Cook, and still more what we have since learned, must convince anyone that their decadence had set in long before his arrival; for it was impossible that any people whose habits of life were such as theirs, and who lived within a circumscribed area, could long continue to exist. Cook did what little was possible towards improving the condition of the New Zealanders. He tried, but failed, to acclimatise the sheep and goat; neither long survived the attempt. He was more successful with the pig, which rapidly increased, till at the time of arrival of the colonists nearly the whole Islands were found thickly stocked with wild herds, the descendants of his original importation. He also left the potato behind him, which succeeded well, and to a great extent supplemented the kumera, taro, and fern root. He also planted and gave to the natives the seeds of other vegetables and garden plants; but though their remains may be seen in the wild cabbage or turnip, and some other degenerated plants, the natives appear not to have succeeded in their cultivation. He also scattered among them a good many English tools and implements, and some articles of clothing, which, though no doubt soon wore out, gave the Maori a taste for European luxuries and necessities of life. Cook visited N.Z. several times during his three voyages of discovery, and altogether spent 327 days in the country or circumnavigating its coasts. He quitted it for the last time in February 1777, just two years before his melancholy death at Hawaii in the Sandwich Islands. Within a few years afterwards, N.Z. began to be occasionally visited by whaling ships; but, with the solitary exception of a shipwrecked sailor, who records his adventures in the two volumes entitled "The New Zealanders," published in "Knight's Library of Entertaining Knowledge," there is no English account of the state of the island from the time of Cook's departure until the arrival of the first missionaries. Soon after Cook's first visit the French Navigator De Surville, of the ship *St. Jean Baptiste*, anchored at Mongonui (in December 1769) while searching for an island of gold which it was believed the English had just discovered in the Pacific Ocean. He held friendly relations with the natives at first, but in the belief that they had stolen one of his boats he burned a village and carried away a chief. Three years later, on 11th May 1772 his countryman Marion du Fresne, with Crozet second in command, in the ships the *Mascarin* and the *Marquis de Castres*, anchored near the same spot. Friendly intercourse was maintained with the natives till the thirty-fourth day, when Marion and fourteen of his company were enticed on

land and murdered; a terrible retaliation followed, many natives were shot down and their villages burned.

III. *The First European Settlers.*—The first rough pioneers of civilisation among the Maoris were undoubtedly the English whalers and sealers from N.S.W. Others of the same craft but of different nations followed, who locating themselves on the coast of Cook Straits gradually improved their communications with the natives, and pursued a rude but lucrative trade in what is called shore-whaling, in contradistinction from deep sea-fishing—the whalers merely following the fishing boats from their settlements, where the buildings and implements for “cutting in” and “trying out” were established. The Sydney merchants gave employment to these land whalers, their vessels carrying away the oil and leaving money, clothes, arms and rum in payment. These rough-and-ready settlers amalgamated in some degree with the Maoris—half warriors, half fishermen—of the coasts. Some of them married the daughters and sisters of native chiefs, thereby securing the powerful protection of the latter; others contracted alliances of a less formal nature with native women, and a half-caste breed sprang up to cement the alliance between the races. In the numerous conflicts between native tribes the Englishmen sometimes sided with that which had shown them favour or was connected with them by marriage or traffic; and their furious bravery, their firearms—then rare in the country—and the formidable weapons of their trade, the harpoon, the axe, the lance and the whale-spade, caused the fortunes of the party against which they fought to kick the beam. They themselves sometimes suffered no trifling reverses. When absent in their boats in pursuit of fish some foraging party of hostile Maoris would rush upon the settlements, burn down the huts and whaling stages and carry off property, women and children, not perhaps so much out of enmity to the whites as in blind retaliation on the tribe among which they resided. The utter want, or rather absence of law or of any superior example of conduct, and the periodical plenty of strong waters, gave rise to and perpetuated scenes of drunken riot such as, knowing the actors, one can easily conceive, but which to describe would be impossible. Such being the European actors in the first scene of N.Z. civilised, there follows a straggling host of runaway sailors, military deserters, escaped convicts from N.S.W. and V.D.L., sawyers and lumberers, adventurers and evasives of every sort. The Maori's impressions of the European scale of morals and polite arts as furnished by these specimens could not by possibility rise high. Indeed the drunkenness and reckless debauchery of the Pakehas (foreigners) actually revolted the natives; for they are sober by nature and by practice even now. Moreover on those especial points on which the New Zealander was supposed to excel, namely merciless onslaughts on the unarmed and

unsuspecting adversary where neither sex nor age was a shield, there were not wanting instances in which Englishmen distinguished themselves above the savage, lending their vessels, boats, arms and personal aid through every stage of enormity. A certain master of a vessel named Stewart has been convicted by notoriety of furnishing means of transport, arms, ammunition, and his own countenance and assistance in the most truculent and destructive descent of one tribe upon another that ever was heard of—even to cooking the bodies of the slain, to which purpose he devoted his ship's coppers. This man met with a mockery of a trial at Sydney, and escaped through some flaw in the proceedings. But if the natives were not impressed with exalted notions of the white man's purity of conduct, nor of the code that ruled his morals, there was no mistake about the respect they entertained for the thews and sinews, the powers of endurance, the pluck and spirit, as well as the skill and perseverance of their foreign visitors. These rough denizens of the coast and wave were a race of men bronzed and bloated by sun, wind, sea, and rum, to a shade of red-brown that, were it not for the wicked blue eyes and wickeder oath, and for the rolling gait acquired on the sea and retained on land by seamen, a traveller might easily mistake one of them for an untattooed Maori. In some of their whale-chases the Englishmen were assisted by young natives, not only in pulling the boats, but occasionally in “fastening” to a fish; and oftentimes, when one of these giants of the deep got embayed on a lee shore near the native settlements, a boat entirely manned by them would harpoon him, and make signals for the English fishermen to come up and do the most difficult and dangerous part of the business; for which good service they were liberally rewarded with cash or goods to the amount sometimes of £20 or £25. With all their personal strength, courage, and desire of gain, it is affirmed that in no instance were the native fisherman known to have performed the feat of killing the whale with the lance,—the exclusive duty, and a most onerous and riskful one, of the “headsman” of the boat. Whaling, like all other sports, has its season; and during the intervals of idleness forced upon the rough society of Queen Charlotte's Sound and its neighbouring fishing bays, its pursuits and pastimes were not of an orderly or intellectual character. The most turbulent of the natives, many of them chiefs of rank and note, tolerated however, and associated familiarly with the whites for the sake of the traffic of fire-arms, ammunition, and other coveted European goods,—each race, with the natural proneness of humanity to evil, picking up the most prominent and peculiar vices of the other. If ever there was an earthly Pandemonium, it existed at that time and place. To complete this fortuitous aggregation of the wildest elements of society, nothing was wanting but to engraft upon it a convict penal settlement; and from this fate N.Z. was saved only by the character of ferocity

and treachery attributed generally to the natives. Among the numerous schemes of the English Government for the disposal and punishment of their criminals, that of exposing them in this lion's den of cannibalism either never occurred to them, or was considered too severe as a secondary punishment even in those times. This doom, happily, the land of the Maori escaped.

IV. *The First Missionaries.*—During a visit to England in 1808, the Rev. Samuel Marsden, Colonial Chaplain of N.S.W., laid the foundation of the Church of England Mission to N.Z. This was the great enterprise of his life; he will be for ever remembered as the Apostle of N.Z. Not that he had the exclusive honour of being the only one, although he was in point of time the first who began, about this period, to project the mission. The Wesleyans were early in the same field. The Rev. Samuel Leigh, a man whose history and natural character bore a marked resemblance to those of Marsden, was the pioneer of Methodism, and proved himself a worthy herald of the Cross amongst the New Zealanders. A warm friendship existed between the two. On his passage homewards he was a guest at Parramatta; and no tinge of jealousy ever appears to have shaded their intercourse, each rejoicing in the triumphs of the other. Marsden's position afforded him peculiar facilities, and having once undertaken it, the superintendence of the N.Z. mission became, without design on his part, the great business of his life. He had formed a high estimate of the Maori tribes. "They are a noble race," he writes to his friend John Terry of Hull, "vastly superior in understanding to anything you can imagine in a savage nation." This was before the mission was begun. But he did not speak merely from hearsay; several of their chieftains and enterprising warriors had visited Australia, and they ever found a welcome at the hospitable parsonage at Parramatta. Sometimes, it is true, they were but awkward guests, as the following anecdote will show, furnished by one of Marsden's daughters:—"My father had sometimes as many as thirty New Zealanders staying at the parsonage. He possessed extraordinary influence over them. On one occasion a young lad, the nephew of a chief, died, and his uncle immediately made preparations to sacrifice a slave to attend his spirit into the other world. Mr. Marsden was from home at the moment, and his family were only able to preserve the life of the young New Zealander by hiding him in one of the rooms. Mr. Marsden no sooner returned and reasoned with the chief, than he consented to spare his life. No further attempt was made upon it, though the uncle frequently deplored that his nephew had no attendant in the next world, and seemed afraid to return to New Zealand lest the father of the young man should reproach him for having given up this, to them, important point." The Church Missionary Society, which had been established about seven years, seemed fully disposed to co-operate with him; and at their

request he drew up a memorial on the subject of a mission. He lays great stress on the necessity of civilisation going first as the pioneer of the Gospel; "commerce and the arts having a natural tendency to inculcate industrious and moral habits, open a way for the introduction of the Gospel, and lay the foundation for its continuance when once received." Again, "Nothing, in my opinion, can pave the way for the introduction of the Gospel but civilisation." The missionaries he thought "might employ a certain portion of their time in manual labour, and that this neither would nor ought to prevent them from constantly endeavouring to instruct the natives in the great doctrines of the Gospel." He adds, "The arts and religion should go together. I do not mean a native should learn to build a hut or make an axe before he should be told anything of man's fall and redemption, but that these grand subjects should be introduced at every favourable opportunity, while the natives are learning any of the simple arts." The founders of the Church Missionary Society listened gratefully and with respect to the opinion of one so well entitled to advise; they determined on the mission, and they gave a high proof of their confidence in the wisdom and piety of their friend by consulting him in the choice of their first agents. But they did not adopt his views with regard to the importance of civilisation as the necessary pioneer to the Gospel. "It has been stated," they subsequently wrote, "that the mission was originally established, and for a long time systematically conducted on the principle of first civilising and then christianising the natives. This is wholly a mistake. The agents employed in establishing the mission were laymen because clergymen could not be had; and the instructions given to them necessarily correspond with their lay character. The foremost object of the mission has from the first been to bring the natives by the use of all suitable means under the saving influences of the grace of the Gospel, adding indeed the communication to them of such useful arts and knowledge as might improve their social condition." The committee's instructions to their first agents in the mission sustain these assertions. William Hall and John King were the two single-hearted laymen to whom the honour was committed of first making known the Gospel in N.Z. They bore with them these instructions ere they embarked in the same vessel in which their friend and guide Marsden himself returned to Australia:—"Ever bear in mind that the only object of the Society in sending you to N.Z. is to introduce the knowledge of Christ among the natives, and in order to this, the arts of civilised life." Thomas Kendall followed; a third layman, for no ordained clergyman of the Church of England could yet be found. The same instructions were repeated, and in December 1815 when the Rev. John Butler, their first clerical missionary, entered on his labours, he and his companions were exhorted thus: "The committee would observe that they wish in all the missions of the Society that the

missionaries should give their time as much as possible, and wholly if practicable, first to the acquisition of the native language and then to the constant and faithful preaching to the natives." Before he left England Marsden formed or renewed an acquaintance with Wilberforce, Sir George Grey, Rev. Daniel Wilson (late Bishop of Calcutta,) Rev. Charles Simeon, Rev. Josiah Pratt, Dr. Olinthus Gregory and Dr. Mason Good. The latter's introduction to Marsden much impressed him. He saw and wondered at his self-denial; he admired the true sublimity of his humble, unassuming, but unquestionable and active piety. "The first time I saw Mr. Marsden," says his biographer, "was in January 1808. He had just returned from Hull and had travelled nearly the whole journey on the outside of a coach in a heavy fall of snow, being unable to secure an inside place. He seemed scarcely conscious of the inclemency of the season, and declared that he felt no inconvenience from the journey. He had accomplished his object and that was enough. And what was that object, which could raise him above the exhaustion of fatigue and the sense of severe cold? He had engaged a ropemaker who was willing at his (Mr. Marsden's) own expense to go and teach his art to the New Zealanders." Marsden left England in August 1809. The ship *Ann*, in which he sailed, carried with her one who subsequently played a part only less important than his own in the conversion of N.Z. The ship had been some time at sea before Marsden observed on the fore-castle amongst the common sailors a man whose darker skin and wretched appearance awakened his sympathy. He was wrapped in an old great coat, very sick and weak, had a violent cough accompanied with profuse bleeding. He was much dejected and appeared as though a few days would close his life. This was Duaterra, a N.Z. chieftain, whose story as related by Marsden himself is almost too strange for fiction. And as this young chief became, as he tells, "one of the principal instruments in preparing the way for the introduction of the arts of civilisation and the knowledge of Christianity into his native country," a brief sketch of his marvellous adventures will not be out of place: When the existence of N.Z. was yet scarcely known to Europeans, it was occasionally visited by a South Sea whaler distressed for provisions, or in want of water. One of these, the *Argo*, put into the Bay of Islands in 1805, and Duaterra, fired with the spirit of adventure, embarked on board with two of his companions. The *Argo* remained on the coast for above five months, and then sailed for Port Jackson, Duaterra sailing with her. She then went to fish on the coast of New Holland for six months, again returning to Port Jackson. Duaterra had been six months on board, working in general as a common sailor, and passionately fond of this roving life. He then experienced that unkindness and foul play of which the New Zealander has always had sad reason to complain.

He was left on shore without a friend and without the slightest remuneration. He now shipped himself on board the *Albion* whaler, Captain Richardson, whose name deserves honourable mention; he behaved very kindly to Duaterra, repaid him for his services in various European articles, and after six months cruising on the fisheries, put him on shore in the Bay of Islands, where his tribe dwelt. Here he remained six months, when the *Santa Anna* anchored in the bay, on her way to Norfolk Island and other islets of the South Sea in quest of seal skins. Duaterra again embarked; he was put on shore on Norfolk Island at the head of a party of fourteen sailors, provided with a very scanty supply of water, bread, and salt provisions, to kill seals, while the ship sailed, intending to be absent but a short time, to procure potatoes and pork in N.Z. On her return she was blown off the coast in a storm, and did not make the land for a month. The sealing party were now in the greatest distress, and accustomed as he was to hardship, Duaterra often spoke of the extreme suffering which he and his party had endured, while, for upwards of three months, they existed on a desert island with no other food than seals and sea fowls, and no water except when a shower of rain happened to fall. Three of his companions, two Europeans and one Tahitian, died under these distresses. At length the *Santa Anna* returned, having procured a valuable cargo of seal skins, and prepared to take her departure homewards. Duaterra had now an opportunity of gratifying a desire he had for some time entertained of visiting that remote country from which so many vast ships were sent, and to see with his own eyes the great chief of so wonderful a people. He willingly risked the voyage, as a common sailor, to visit England and see King George. The *Santa Anna* arrived in the Thames in July 1809, and Duaterra requested that the captain would make good his promise, and indulge him with a sight of the King. Again he had proof of the perfidiousness of Europeans. Sometimes he was told that no one was allowed to see King George; sometimes that his house could not be found. This distressed him exceedingly; he saw little of London, was ill-used, and seldom permitted to go on shore. In about fifteen days, the vessel had discharged her cargo, when the captain told him that he should be put on board the *Ann*, which had been taken up by the Government to convey convicts to N.S.W. The *Ann* had already dropped down to Gravesend, and Duaterra asked the master of the *Santa Anna* for some wages and clothing. He refused to give him any, telling him that the owners at Port Jackson would pay him in two muskets for his services on his arrival there; but even these he never received. Marsden was at this time in London, ignorant of the fact that the son of a N.Z. chief in circumstances so pitiable lay on board a South Sea whaler near London Bridge. Their first meeting was on board the *Ann* when she had been some days at sea. His

sympathies were roused and also his indignation. He inquired of the master where he met with him, and also of Duaterra what had brought him to England and how he came to be so wretched and miserable. He answered that the hardships and wrongs he had endured on board the *Santa Anna* were exceedingly great and that the English sailors had beaten him very much, which was the cause of his spitting blood, and that the master had defrauded him of all his wages and prevented his seeing the King. Marsden soothed his afflictions and assured him that he should be protected from insults and that his wants should be supplied. By the kindness of those on board Duaterra recovered, and was ever after truly grateful for the attention shown him. On their arrival at Sydney Marsden took him into his house for six months, during which time he applied himself to agriculture; he then wished to return home, and embarked for N.Z. The two laymen, Hall and King, sailed from England with Marsden in 1810 and were soon after followed by Kendall; and the three assembled at N.S.W. intending to sail thence without delay for the scene of their future work. But fresh difficulties arose. Marsden's intention was to accompany them and in person to meet the first dangers, and lay as it were the first stone. But this the Governor absolutely forbade. To him the whole scheme seemed utterly preposterous. The idea of converting the savages of N.Z. was the chimera of a pious enthusiast—a good and useful man in his way, but one who was not to be allowed thus idly to squander the lives of others, to say nothing of his own. Nor were the Governor's objections altogether without foundation. The last news from N.Z. was that an English ship, the *Boyd*, had been seized and burned by the cannibals in the Bay of Islands, and every soul on board, seventy in all, killed and eaten. The report was true, save only that out of the whole of the ship's company, two women and a boy had been spared to live in slavery with the savages. A N.Z. chief had sailed on board and had been treated with brutal indignities similar to those which Duaterra suffered from the captain of the *Santa Anna*. He smothered his resentment, and waiting the return of the *Boyd* to the Bay of Islands summoned his tribe, who on various pretences crowded the deck of the ship, and at a given signal rushed upon the crew, dispatched them with their clubs and hatchets, and then gorged themselves and their followers on the horrible repast. All that Marsden could obtain at present was permission to charter a vessel if a captain could be found sufficiently courageous to risk his life and ship in such an enterprise, and to send out the three missionaries as pioneers; with a reluctant promise from the Governor that if on the ship's return all had turned out well, he should not be hindered from following. For some time no such adventurous captain could be found. At length for the sum of £600 for a single voyage an offer was made, but Marsden looked upon the sum as too much; and this with

other considerations induced him to purchase his own missionary brig the *Active*, in which Hall and Kendall finally set sail for the Bay of Islands. They carried a message to Duaterra entreating him to receive them kindly, and inviting him to return with them to Parramatta, bringing along with him two or three friendly chiefs. Duaterra after his visit to Marsden had again suffered great hardships from the perfidy of the master of the *Frederick*, with whom he had embarked from N.S.W. under an agreement to be set on shore at the Bay of Islands where his tribe dwelt. He was carried to Norfolk Island and there left; and to aggravate his wrongs and sorrows the vessel passed within two miles of his own shores and in sight of his home. He was defrauded too of his share of the oil he had procured with his companions, worth £100. A whaler found him on Norfolk Island almost naked and in the last stage of want, and brought him once more to Australia and to his friend and patron Marsden. A short stay sufficed; he sailed again from Sydney and soon found himself to his great joy amongst his friends in N.Z. On the arrival of the *Active* with its missionaries he was there to greet them and to repay the kindness of his friend in the welcome he secured for these defenceless strangers. They carried with them a present which, trifling as it may seem, was not without its share of influence in the great work. Duaterra had been provided by Marsden with a supply of wheat for sowing on his return to N.Z. To this accomplished savage the honour belongs of first introducing agriculture into an island destined, within forty years, to rival the best farms of England in the value of its crops and the variety of its produce. The neighbouring chiefs and their tribes viewed with wonder first the green ears and then the growing corn. The wild potato, the fern, and a few other roots were the only produce of the earth they were yet acquainted with, and when Duaterra assured them that his field of wheat was to yield the flour out of which the bread and biscuits they had tasted on board English ships were made, they tore up several plants, expecting to find something resembling their own potato at the root. That the ears themselves should furnish the materials for a loaf was not to be believed. Duaterra meant to impose upon them, or else he had been duped, but they were not to be cajoled with the tales of a traveller. The field was reaped and the corn threshed out, when Duaterra was mortified with the discovery that he was not provided with a mill. He made several attempts to grind his corn with the help of a coffee-mill borrowed from a trading ship, but without success; and he was laughed at for his simplicity. At length the *Active* brought the important present of a hand-mill for grinding corn. Duaterra's friends assembled to watch the experiment, still incredulous of the promised result; but when the meal began to stream out beneath the machine their astonishment was unbounded; and when a

cake was produced, hastily baked in a frying-pan, they shouted and danced for joy. Duaterra was now to be trusted when he told them that the missionaries were good men. And thus the first favourable impression was made upon the Maoris, whose race was in the next generation to become a civilised and Christian people. Hall and Kendall having introduced themselves and their mission in N.Z. returned to Sydney, accompanied by Duaterra and six other chiefs, amongst whom was Duaterra's uncle the famous Shunghie, or Hongi, the most powerful of N.Z. Chieftains; such was the confidence Marsden's name and the good conduct of the missionaries had inspired. The *Active* reached Sydney on 22nd August 1814. Marsden experienced great joy on the successful termination of the voyage, and having obtained the Governor's permission, he determined to accompany the missionaries on their return to the Bay of Islands. He wrote just before he sailed:—"It is my intention to visit N.Z. and see what can be done to promote the eternal welfare of the inhabitants of that island. I have now several of the chiefs living with me at Parramatta. They are as noble a race of men as are to be met with in any part of the world. I trust I shall be able, in some measure, to put a stop to those dreadful murders which have been committed upon the island for some years past, both by the Europeans and the natives. They are a much injured people, notwithstanding all that has been advanced against them." On 19th November 1814 he embarked on his mission with a motley crew of savages and Christian teachers and enterprising mechanics, their wives and children, besides cattle and horses. Of this strangely assorted company he gives the following description:—"The number of persons on board the *Active*, including women and children was thirty-five; the master, his wife and son, Messrs. Kendall, Hall and King, with their wives and children, eight New Zealanders, (including Duaterra and his uncle the great warrior Shunghie or Hongi) two Otaheitans, and four Europeans belonging to the vessel, besides Mr. John Lydiard Nicholas and myself; there were also two sawyers, one smith and a runaway convict whom we afterwards found on board, a horse and two mares, one bull and two cows, with a few sheep and poultry. The bull and cows have been presented by Governor Macquarie from his Majesty's herd." On 15th December, they were in sight of land; the next day the chiefs were sent on shore, and a friendly communication was at once opened with the natives. But even before they had landed a canoe came alongside the *Active* with plenty of fish, and shortly afterwards a chief followed from the shore, who immediately came on board. Marsden's fame, as the friend of the New Zealanders, had arrived before him. "I told them my name with which they were all well acquainted. We were now quite free from all fear, as the natives seemed desirous to show us attention by every possible means in their power." The

Active dropped her anchor a few days after at Wangaroa, near the Bay of Islands, the scene of the massacre of the *Boyd's* crew, and there amongst the very cannibals by whose hands their countrymen had fallen so recently the first Christian mission to N. Z. was opened. A fierce and unholy revenge had been taken in the murder of Tippahee, a native chieftain, and all his family by an English crew who had visited Wangaroa after the *Boyd's* destruction, and Tippahee as Marsden always maintained suffered unjustly, having had no share in the dreadful massacre. Amongst a people so exasperated did these first missionaries venture forth as the heralds of the Gospel. Marsden's journal of his first visit to N.Z. is a document of singular interest, and when published at the time in England made a deep impression. It is written in plain and forcible language and is characterised by that vein of good sense and practical wisdom which distinguished him. Duaterra and Shunghie had often told of the war arising out of the affair of the *Boyd* that was raging while they were at Parramatta between the people of Wangaroa (the tribe of Tippahee) and the inhabitants of the Bay of Islands, who were their own friends and followers; the Wangaroans accusing the people of the Bay of Islands of having conspired with the English in the murder of Tippahee. When the *Active* arrived several desperate battles had been fought, and the war was likely to continue. Marsden determined to establish peace amongst the contending tribes. He was known already as the friend of Duaterra and Shunghie; he felt that he must convince the other party of his good intentions. He did not come amongst them as an ally of either, but as the friend of both; he resolved therefore to pass some time with the Wangaroans; and with a degree of intrepidity astonishing even in him, not only ventured on shore but passed the night accompanied by his friend Nicholas alone with the savages who had killed and eaten his countrymen. After a supper of fish and potatoes in the camp of Shunghie, they walked over to the hostile camp distant about a mile. They received the two white strangers very cordially. He sat down amongst them and the chiefs surrounded them. Marsden introduced the subject of his embassy, explained the object of the missionaries in coming to live amongst them, and showed how much peace would conduce in every way to the welfare of all parties. A chief to whom the Europeans gave the name of George acted as interpreter; he had sailed on board an English ship and spoke English well. Marsden tells us how the first night was passed: "As the evening advanced the people began to retire to rest in different groups. About eleven o'clock Mr. Nicholas and I wrapped ourselves in our great coats and prepared for rest. George directed me to lie by his side. His wife and child lay on the right hand and Mr. Nicholas close by. The night was clear, the stars shone bright and the sea in our front was smooth, around us were innumerable spears stuck

upright in the ground, and groups of natives lying in all directions, like a flock of sheep upon the grass, as there were neither tents nor huts to cover them. I viewed our present situation with sensations and feelings that I cannot express, surrounded by cannibals who had massacred and devoured our countrymen. I wondered much at the mysteries of Providence, and how these things could be. Never did I behold the blessed advantage of civilisation in a more grateful light than now. I did not sleep much during the night. My mind was too seriously occupied by the present scene, and the new and strange ideas it naturally excited. About three in the morning I rose and walked about the camp, surveying the different groups of natives. When the morning light returned we beheld men, women and children asleep in all directions like the beasts of the field. I had ordered the boat to come on shore for us at daylight; and soon after Duaterra arrived in the camp." In the morning he gave an invitation to the chiefs to breakfast on board the *Active*, which they readily accepted. "At first I entertained doubts whether the chiefs would trust themselves with us or not, on account of the *Boyd*, lest we should detain them when we had them in our power; but they showed no signs of fear, and went on board with apparent confidence. The axes, billhooks, prints, &c., I intended to give them were all got ready after breakfast; the chiefs were seated in the cabin in great form to receive the presents, I sat on the one side, and they on the other side of the table; Duaterra stood and handed me each article separately that I was to give them. Messrs. Kendall, Hall, and King, with the master of the *Active* and his son, were all one after the other introduced to the chiefs. The chiefs were at the same time informed what duty each of the three persons were appointed to do. Kendall to instruct their children, Hall to build houses, boats, &c., King to make fishing lines, and Hanson to command the *Active*, which would be employed in bringing axes and such things as were wanted from Sydney, to enable them to cultivate their lands and improve their country. When these ceremonies were over, I expressed my hope that they would have no more wars, but from that time would be reconciled to each other. Duaterra, Shunghie, and Koro Koro shook hands with the chiefs of Wangaroa, and saluted each other as a token of reconciliation by joining their noses together. I was much gratified to see these men at amity once more." The chiefs then took their leave, much pleased with the attention of Marsden, and still more with his presents; and they promised for the future to protect the missionaries and never to injure the European traders. Some of the presents excited no little wonder; no New Zealander, except the few who like Duaterra had been on foreign travel, had ever seen either cows or horses, for the largest quadruped yet naturalised in the island was the pig, and even that had been introduced but recently. Duaterra had often told his wondering countrymen of the horse and its

rider, and in return was always laughed at; but when the horses were now landed and Marsden actually mounted one of them, they stood in crowds and gazed in mute astonishment. The first Sunday on which Christian worship was held in N.Z. was Christmas Day 1815. Marsden thus describes it:—"Duaterra passed the remaining part of the previous day in preparing for the Sabbath. He enclosed about half an acre of land with a fence, erected a pulpit and reading-desk in the centre, and covered the whole either with black native cloth or with some duck which he had brought with him from Port Jackson. He also procured some bottoms of old canoes and fixed them up as seats on each side of the pulpit for the Europeans to sit upon, intending to have Divine worship performed there the next day. These preparations he made of his own accord, and in the evening informed me that everything was ready for Divine service. I was much pleased with this singular mark of his attention. The reading-desk was about three feet from the ground and the pulpit about six feet. The black cloth covered the top of the pulpit and hung over the sides; the bottom of the pulpit, as well as the reading-desk, was part of a canoe. The whole was becoming and had a solemn appearance. He had also erected a flagstaff on the highest hill in the village, which had a very commanding view. On Sunday morning when I was upon deck I saw the English flag flying, which was a pleasing sight in N.Z. I considered it as the signal and the dawn of civilisation, liberty, and religion in that dark and benighted land. I never viewed the British colours with more gratification, and flattered myself they would never be removed till the natives of that island enjoyed all the happiness of British subjects. About ten o'clock we prepared to go ashore to publish for the first time the glad tidings of the Gospel. I was under no apprehension for the safety of the vessel, and therefore ordered all on board to go on shore to attend Divine service, except the master and one man. When we landed we found Koro Koro, Duaterra and Shunghie, dressed in regimentals which Governor Macquarie had given them, with their men drawn up ready to be marched into the enclosure to attend Divine service. They had their swords by their sides and switches in their hands. We entered the enclosure and were placed on the seats on each side of the pulpit. Koro Koro marched his men and placed them on my right hand in the rear of the Europeans, and Duaterra placed his men on the left. The inhabitants of the town, with the women and children and a number of other chiefs, formed a circle round the whole. A very solemn silence prevailed—the sight was truly impressive. I rose up and began the service with singing the Old Hundredth Psalm, and felt my very soul melt within me when I viewed my congregation and considered the state they were in. After reading the service, during which the natives stood up and

sat down at the signals given by Koro Koro's switch, which was regulated by the movements of the Europeans, it being Christmas Day, I preached from the second chapter of St. Luke's Gospel and tenth verse, 'Behold, I bring you glad tidings of great joy,' &c. The natives told Duaterra that they could not understand what I meant. He replied that they were not to mind that now, for they would understand by-and-by, and that he would explain my meaning as far as he could. When I had done preaching he informed them what I had been talking about. Duaterra was very much pleased that he had been able to make all the necessary preparations for the performance of divine worship in so short a time, and we felt much obliged to him for his attention. He was extremely anxious to convince us that he would do everything in his power, and that the good of his country was his principal consideration. In this manner the Gospel has been introduced into N.Z.; and I fervently pray that the glory of it may never depart from its inhabitants till time shall be no more." The confidence of the natives in Marsden was now unbounded and scarcely less was the confidence he reposed in them; and he resolved upon a short coasting voyage with the view of exploring their different harbours and making arrangements for the future extension of the mission. Many of the chiefs and warriors, led by Duaterra, wished to sail with him, and without the slightest misgiving twenty-eight savages fully armed after the fashion of their country were invited on board the *Active*, manned as she was by only seven Europeans. Their leave of absence having nearly expired Marsden and his companions were obliged to prepare for their voyage homeward. They had laid the foundations of a great work—how great none of them could tell. As patriots they exulted in the prospect of extending the renown of England. Marsden, in his conversations with the natives, explained to them the nature of the English government and the form of trial by jury; he discoursed with them upon the evils of polygamy and showed his marked abhorrence of their darling vices—*theft and lying*. A chisel being lost from the *Active* a boat was sent on shore, manned by Duaterra and other chiefs, to demand restitution; the culprit was not found nor the implement restored; but a whole village was aroused from its slumbers at midnight, and the inhabitants literally trembled with fear of the consequences when they saw the angry chiefs, though no harm was permitted to ensue. An example of high integrity was always set. Marsden might have obtained land or timber or whatever he required in exchange for ammunition and muskets; but he interdicted the sale or barter of these articles upon any terms whatever, and to this resolution he always adhered. And he took an opportunity upon all occasions to impress upon their minds the horrors their cannibalism excited; how much their nation was disgraced by it and dreaded on this account. One thing still remained to be done. The missionaries

possessed no land, and were liable after his departure to be removed or driven out at the mere caprice of the tribes amongst whom they settled. He therefore determined if possible to purchase for them a small estate. It consisted of about 200 acres; and the first plot of ground to which England can lay claim in N.Z. was formerly made over in a deed of which Nicholas preserved a transcript. It was executed in the presence of a number of chiefs who were assembled to take leave of the *Active* on the day before she sailed, and ran as follows:—"Know all men to whom these presents shall come that I, Anodee O Gunna, king of Rangheehoo, in the island of N.Z., have in consideration of twelve axes to me in hand now paid and delivered by the Reverend Samuel Marsden of Parramatta, in the territory of N.S.W. given, granted, bargained and sold; and by this present instrument do give, grant, bargain, and sell, unto the committee of the Church Missionary Society for Africa and the East, instituted in London in the kingdom of Great Britain, and to their heirs and successors, all that piece and parcel of land situate in the district of Hoshee in the island of N.Z., bounded on the south side by the bay of Lippouna and the town of Rangheehoo, on the north side by a creek of fresh water, and on the west by a public road into the interior, together with all the rights, members, privileges and appurtenances thereto belonging; to have and to hold to the aforesaid committee of the Church Missionary Society for Africa and the East, instituted in London in the kingdom of Great Britain, their heirs, successors, and assigns for ever, clear and freed from all taxes, charges, impositions and contributions whatsoever, as and for their own absolute and proper estate for ever.

"In testimony whereof I have to these presents thus done and given, set my hand at Hoshee in the island of N.Z., this twenty-fourth day of February, in the year of Christ, one thousand eight hundred and fifteen.

(Signatures to the grant.) "THOMAS KENDALL.
"J. L. NICHOLAS."

To this was affixed a complete drawing of the "amoco" or tattooing of Gunna's face, done by Shunghie, on one side of which he set his mark. Marsden returned from his first voyage to N.Z. accompanied by ten chiefs, landing at Sydney on 23rd March 1815. He and Nicholas immediately presented themselves to the Governor who congratulated them on their safe return from what he regarded as a most perilous and rash adventure. Duaterra had been left sick, and four days after Marsden's departure he died. He was a noble specimen of human nature in its savage state. His character was cast in the mould of heroes. At the very period of his death after ten years of as much privation, danger, and hardship as nature could well bear, his courage was unsubdued and his patriotism and enterprise unabated. He told Marsden with an air of triumph, "I have now

introduced the cultivation of wheat into New Zealand; New Zealand will become a great country; in two years more I shall be able to export wheat to Port Jackson in exchange for hoes, axes, spades, tea and sugar." He had made arrangements for farming on a large scale and had formed his plan for building a new town with regular streets after the European mode, on a beautiful situation which commanded a view of the harbour and the adjacent country. "I accompanied him to the spot," says Marsden; "we examined the ground fixed on for the town and the situation where the church was to stand." Other trials followed the death of Duaterra. Fresh wars broke out. One hostile tribe encamped in sight of the mission premises, and, no longer restrained by Marsden's presence, threatened, not indeed to expel the missionaries, but to kill and eat them. For months together the affrighted band kept watch night and day; their children were laid to sleep in their cots dressed, to be ready for instant flight, and the boat was always kept afloat, with its oars and sail in readiness. The storm blew over, and they remained steadfast at their posts. Soon afterwards the Wesleyan Methodists established their mission in the island, and the missionaries gained strength from each other in society and mutual counsel. The first Wesleyan missionary, Samuel Leigh, was well known at Parramatta, and Marsden viewed his labours with thankfulness and hope; but the reports which reached him from time to time of the difficulties to which the missions were exposed still added much to his anxieties. His thoughts seem to have been always alert, turning every hint to account, seizing every occasion and employing every likely instrument to promote the grand design. The excellent quality of the N.Z. flax had not escaped him. He induced two young natives whom he had brought with him to Parramatta, to visit England, which they did in H.M. ship *Kangaroo*, and were placed under the care of his friends in London. "I wish on no account," he writes, "that they should be idle; if they cannot be useful in forming a vocabulary (of the Maori language of which he was now anxious that a grammar should be prepared) let them be put into a rope walk, and be kept close to labour while they remain in England. They were both chieftains, Tooï and Teterree. When their English education was completed the young chieftains returned to Parramatta, and Marsden embarked a second time for N.Z. taking them with him, with several missionaries, three mechanics and their families. They landed in the Bay of Islands on 12th August 1819. The rival chiefs Shunghie and Koro-Koro now contended for the site of the new missionary settlement which Marsden contemplated, each being anxious that his own domain should be preferred, and offering a grant of land. The spot was selected at Kiddee Kiddee (or Keri-Keri) a district in the territory of Shunghie, at the head of a fine harbour; but such

was the distress of the disappointed chieftain that Marsden almost relented:—"He made strong appeals to our feelings and urged his request by every argument that he could advance, so that we were obliged to promise to accompany him on the next day to Parroa, and that we would build him and Tooï a house if the situation pleased us, and send one or two Europeans to reside amongst them." The stores were landed, and all the beach exhibited "a scene of busy civilisation; fourteen natives sawing timber, others cutting knees, &c." "A sight more grateful to a benevolent mind could not possibly have been seen; our hearts overflowed with gratitude. We viewed the various operations with delight, and considered them the dawn of civil and religious liberty to this land of darkness, superstition, and cruelty." On the next Sabbath day the work was consecrated with prayer and praise. Marsden's language best describes the scene:—"We assembled on the beach for public worship, as there was no place sufficiently spacious to hold the people. We were surrounded with natives and a number of chiefs from different districts. It was gratifying to be able to perform worship to the true God in the open air without fear or danger when surrounded by cannibals with their spears stuck in the ground, and their pattoo-pattoos and daggers concealed under their mats." During a three months sojourn, besides the attention which Marsden gave to the missions in the Bay of Islands, he made a circuitous journey of 700 miles, exploring the country with a view to more extensive operations. His arrival overland and in health at the Bay of Islands on his return relieved the minds of the missionaries. "There is not one in ten thousand, I think," writes Hall, "who could or would have borne the privations, difficulties and dangers which he has undergone." He landed during a coasting voyage, with young Tooï, on the small island of Motooroa. The first object that struck his eye was a man's head stuck on a pole near the hut where they were to sleep; the face appeared beautifully tattooed; it was the head of a chief who was killed by Shunghie's people. Shunghie, the greatest of the N.Z. warriors, was a striking instance of that union of gentleness and ferocity which characterised this people. To the missionaries his kindness was always great, and his respect for Marsden knew no bounds. An instance of his good feeling may be noticed. In the beginning of 1817 a naval expedition under his command sailed from the Bay of Islands. It consisted of thirty canoes and about eight hundred men. Its object was to obtain peace with his enemies at the North Cape. The chief took an affectionate leave of the settlers and told them that if he fell they must be kind to his children, and if he survived he would take care of their families when they should die. The expedition returned however in about a fortnight, his people having quarrelled with those of Wangaroa, into which place they had put for refreshment; and being afraid, he said, that the Wangaroa

people would attack the settlers in his absence, he for the present abandoned the expedition. Shunghie was again preparing for war when Marsden paid his second visit to N.Z.; his army, to the number of several thousand men, were already assembled; his war-canoes were ready, and all his preparations complete; yet in deference to the remonstrances of Marsden he again abandoned his scheme of conquest or revenge and dismissed his followers. Shunghie paid a visit to England about the year 1820. His majestic person, graceful manners and gentle yet manly disposition were much admired. He was one of Nature's nobles; what might not be expected from such a man when he returned home again? George the Fourth invited him to Carlton Palace and received him with marked attention, presenting him with some military accoutrements and costly fire-arms. Yet the heart of a savage never ceased to beat beneath this polished exterior, while his pride was fanned to madness by the consideration he received in England. "There is," he exclaimed, "but one king in England; there shall be only one king in New Zealand." Returning by way of Sydney he there happened to meet with Inacki, another chief, with whom he had an ancient feud. He told him that when they got back to N.Z. he would fight him. Inacki accepted the challenge and Shunghie accordingly assembled on his return no fewer than two thousand men to attack Inacki. The latter was prepared to receive him, and for some time the event of the battle that ensued was doubtful. At length Shunghie, who had the greatest number of muskets and who had arranged his men in the form called in Roman tactics the cuneus or wedge, placing himself at the apex and directing those behind him to wheel round the enemy from the right and left, or to fall back into their original position as opportunity offered, shot Inacki. The savage Shunghie immediately sprang forward, scooped out the eye of the dying man with his knife and swallowed it; and then holding his hands to his throat into which he had plunged his knife, and from which the blood flowed copiously, drank as much of the horrid beverage as the two hands could hold. Amongst the horrible superstitions of the Maoris, one was that the eye of a victim thus devoured became a star in the firmament, and thus the ferocious Shunghie sought for honour and immortality. With the sword which he had received as a present from King George in England, he immediately cut off the heads of sixteen of his captives in cold blood; this was done to appease the spirit of his son-in-law who had fallen in battle. In this battle Shunghie and his tribe were armed with muskets, his opponents only with the native weapons, the club and spear. His victory therefore was an easy one, but his revenge was cruel. Amongst the few who escaped the general slaughter was Koromona, a chief who became blind soon afterwards, but hearing Archdeacon Williams preach at Matamata, was

converted. Amidst such scenes the missionaries dwelt in peace. War and cannibalism showed themselves at their gates but were not allowed to hurt them. Under God, their security was owing in a great measure to the prudence and courage with which Marsden planned and carried out his projects. Himself a stranger to fear he infused courage into those around him. He arrived at home after this second visit in November 1819. In February 1820 he was once more on his way back to N.Z. The Governor had consented to his recent visit with reluctance, and had limited the period of his absence with military precision, threatening at the same time to deprive him of his chaplaincy unless he returned within the given time. The last day arrived, and the expected vessel was not in sight. The Governor repeated his determination to those around him, and Marsden's friends were filled with anxiety, and his wife and family at length gave up all hope. Towards evening the long-wished-for sail appeared in the offing, and at eight o'clock in the evening Marsden quietly walked into the Governor's drawing room with the laconic and yet respectful address, "Sir, I am here to report myself." H.M.S. *Dromedary*, Captain Skinner, was directed by the Government to proceed from Sydney to the Bay of Islands to receive a cargo of N.Z. timber for trial in the dockyards of England; and Sir Byam Martin, controller of the navy, knowing something of the energy of Marsden's character, and his great acquaintance with the islands, requested that he would accompany the *Dromedary*, which was joined by the *Coromandel*, in order to facilitate the object of their visit. With this request he felt it his duty to comply. He arrived in N.Z. on 20th February, and embarked on board the *Dromedary* to return on 25th of November. Thus nearly the whole year was given to the service of N.Z., travelling amongst the natives teaching them the first elements of civilisation. In July 1823 Marsden again embarked for N.Z.; his intention being to visit the stations of the Church Missionary Society and to arrange its affairs. Since his previous visit fresh causes for anxiety had appeared. In consequence of Shunghie's misconduct, the natives were now alienated from the missionaries; they had become indifferent to education and agricultural improvements; and the gospel it was too evident had made little progress hitherto. Shunghie declared that as to himself "he wanted his children to learn to fight and not to read." The Maoris about the settlement insisted upon being paid for their services in fire-arms and ammunition. "Since Shunghie's return" writes one of the missionaries, "the natives, one and all have treated us with contempt. They are almost past bearing; coming into our houses when they please, demanding food, thieving whatever they can lay their hands on, breaking down our garden fences, stripping the ship's boats of everything they can. They seem in fact ripe for any mischief; had Mr. Marsden himself been

amongst us, much as he deserves their esteem, I believe he would not escape without insult; but the Lord is a very present help in time of trouble." Amongst the missionaries themselves certain evils had appeared, the growth of a secular and commercial spirit which had injured their cause and threatened to frustrate the end for which the mission was projected. Marsden heard of these untoward events, and hastened his departure full of anxiety but not abating one jot of his confidence in the final triumph of the cause. He was accompanied on his voyage by the Rev. Henry Williams and his family, who went to strengthen the mission, of which he soon became one of the most effective leaders. One of Bishop Selwyn's first steps when he was appointed bishop of N.Z., was to make Williams one of his archdeacons, and he was subsequently designated to a bishopric in a district inhabited exclusively by Christianised Maoris. This was his fourth visit, and though in some respects it was painful, yet in others there was ground for joy. At length, after nine years toil, hopeful symptoms appeared amongst the Maoris. Their visitor observed with much pleasure, he says, that since his last visit the natives in general were much improved in their appearance and manners; and now for the first time he heard them sing hymns and repeat prayers in their own language. This convinced him that, notwithstanding the misconduct of a few of the Europeans the work was gradually going on, and the way preparing for the Gospel. Yet he had a painful duty to discharge. He had to rebuke some of the missionaries, and even to dismiss one of them. Several chiefs, among whom was Tooi, warmly took up the cause of the missionary who had been dismissed. Marsden writes:—"Tooi, addressing me, said a missionary had informed him that day that he was going to leave N.Z., and the chiefs wished to know whether this person had been dismissed for selling muskets and powder to the natives. To this I replied that he was directed, by the gentlemen in England who had sent him out as a missionary, not to sell muskets and powder; that it was not the custom in England for clergymen to sell muskets and powder; and that no missionary could be allowed to sell them. As several of the chiefs present had been at Port Jackson, I observed that they knew that the clergymen there did not sell muskets and powder. They knew that I had not one musket in my house, and that they had never seen any when they were with me. They replied, they knew what I said was true. I further added we did not interfere with the Government of N.Z., they did what they pleased, and the missionaries should be allowed to do what they pleased. Tooi said that this was but just, and observed, 'We are at present in the same state as the Otaheitans were some time back. The Otaheitans wanted only muskets and powder, and would have nothing else, and now as they knew better they wanted none; and the New Zealanders would care nothing about muskets when they knew better, which they

would in time.' All the chiefs acquiesced in the observations Tooi made. I said, Tooi's remarks on the conduct of the Otaheitans were very just, and told them that the *Queen Charlotte* brig, which had sailed from the bay the preceding day, belonged to the young king Pomare; that the Otaheitans had sent oil and various other articles to Port Jackson, and that they had received in return tea, sugar, and flour, and clothing, as they wanted these articles, and that the New Zealanders might in time have a ship of their own to procure sperm oil, spars, &c., which they might sell at Port Jackson, and many of them were able to kill the whales, having been employed on board the whalers. When they got a vessel of their own, they would soon be equal to the Otaheitans, and give over their cruel wars. They expressed much pleasure at having a vessel of their own. After some further explanation the chiefs were satisfied that Mr. — had violated our laws and had brought all his distress upon himself." The conduct of the natives confirmed the impression which Marsden had previously formed, that they are a race of men of considerable mental capacity, of great perseverance and enterprise, who never lose sight of an object upon which they have once set their minds; powerful reasoners on any subject within their knowledge; possessed of quick perception and natural sagacity, which enables them to form a just acquaintance with human nature as it presents itself before them. Marsden paid a visit at Wangaroa to the Wesleyan missionary station. He found Leigh, founder of their mission, very ill, and invited him to return with him on a voyage of health and recreation to Port Jackson; and having taken leave of the Church Missionary brethren he re-embarked on the 6th of September 1823. Like the first and greatest of missionaries, it was ordained that he, too, should suffer shipwreck and be cast upon a desert island. His journal gives us the story of his danger and deliverance:—"Sunday 7th.—This morning we weighed anchor. The weather was very threatening and stormy; the wind from the eastward and strong, blowing directly into the mouth of the harbour. We lay in Kororarika Bay, on the S. side of the harbour, and had to sail along a lee rocky shore. In working out with the wind dead on the land, the ship being light and high out of the water she would not answer her helm, and twice missed stays. The lead was kept continually sounding, and we soon found ourselves in little more than three fathoms of water, with a rocky bottom and a shoal of rocks on our lee, and it was then high water. When the captain found the situation we were in, he immediately ordered to let go the anchor, which was done. When the tide turned the ship struck, the gale increased, and the sea with it; a shipwreck was now more than probable; there appeared no possible way to prevent it. Mr. Leigh was very ill, and felt the disturbance much, Mrs. Leigh also being very ill. I requested the captain to lend me the boat to take Mr. and Mrs. Leigh to the nearest island, where

we arrived very safely, the island being but two miles distant. The natives expressed much concern for us, made a fire, prepared the best hut they could, which was made of bulrushes, for our reception. I requested them to send a canoe to Rungheeche, to inform Mr. and Mrs. Hall of the loss of the ship, and to bring their boat to assist in bringing the people to land. At the same time, I desired they would tell the natives to bring a large war canoe. The natives for some time alleged that their canoe would be dashed to pieces by the waves, but at length I prevailed upon them. They had between five and six miles to go through a very rough sea. About three o'clock Messrs. Hall, King, and Hanson arrived in Mr. Hall's boat, and a large war canoe with natives; they immediately proceeded to the ship, and we had the satisfaction to see them arrive safe, and waited until dark with the greatest anxiety for their return. The rain fell in torrents, the gale increased, and they had not returned; we lay down in our little hut full of fear for the safety of all on board. The night appeared very long, dark, and dreary. As we could not rest we most anxiously wished for the morning light to learn some account of them. When the day arrived we had the happiness to see the vessel still upright, but driven nearer the shore. No boat or canoe from her; the gale still increased; about mid-day we saw the mainmast go overboard. The natives on the island screamed aloud when the mast fell. I concluded they had cut away the mast to relieve the vessel. We spent the rest of this day in great suspense as we could not conjecture why all the passengers should remain on board in the state the ship was in. At dark in the evening Mr. Hall returned and informed us that the bottom of the vessel was beaten out, and that both her chain and best bower cable were parted, and that she beat with such violence upon the rocks when the tide was in that it was impossible to stand upon the deck; at the same time he said there was no danger of any lives being lost as he did not think the vessel would go to pieces, as she stood firm upon the rock when the tide was out. He said the passengers on board had not determined what they would do or where they would land as yet; they wished to wait till the gale was abated. Mr. Hall's information relieved us much; as it was now dark, the wind high, and the sea rough, we could not leave the island, and therefore took up our lodgings in our little hut. The natives supplied us with a few potatoes and some fish. My pleasing prospect of returning to Port Jackson was at an end, for some time at least. I was exceedingly concerned for the loss of so fine a vessel on many accounts, as individuals who are interested in her must suffer as well as the passengers on board, and spent the night in reflections on the difficulties with which I was surrounded; while the raging of the storm continued without intermission. At the return of day we discovered the ship still upright, but she appeared to be higher on the reef. I now determined

to return to Kiddee-Kiddee in Mr. Hall's boat with Mr. and Mrs. Leigh. We left the island for the missionary settlement where we arrived about nine o'clock. Our friends had not heard of the loss of the ship until our arrival as there had not been any communication between the different settlements in consequence of the severe weather. We were very kindly received by the brethren; I informed them in what situation we had left the ship and requested that every assistance might be given to land the passengers and luggage. The wreck was about twelve or fourteen miles from the settlement. Four boats were immediately sent off; Mr. Hall's boat took the women and children to Rungheeche, and two of the boats returned with part of our luggage, and we went to the station of the Rev. Henry Williams. All the brethren rendered every aid in their power. The boats on their return brought the welcome news that all was well on board, and Mr. Leigh did not appear to have suffered much injury from the wet and cold he endured on the island, though in so weak a state." The shipwreck of the *Brampton*—which was the vessel's name—occurred on 7th September, and in consequence Marsden was detained in N.Z. until the 14th November, when he returned home in the *Dragon* and arrived at Sydney in the beginning of December 1823. He drew up rules for the guidance of the missionaries and Christian settlers in their intercourse with the shipping which now began to visit the Bay of Islands. He encouraged the erection of a school-house for the natives. "The foundation," he says, "must be laid in the education of the rising generation. The children possess strong minds, are well-behaved and teachable. They are capable of learning anything we wish to teach them." During his detention he also addressed a circular letter to the missionaries respecting a grammar in the Maori language, pointing out the necessity of adopting some more systematic method for its arrangement and pronunciation. This led to a new vocabulary of the native language, and in a short time to a new method of spelling. Shunghie became E'Hongi; Kiddee Kiddee, Keri Keri; and so in other instances. A political object also occupied Marsden's thoughts. The incessant and desolating wars which the native tribes waged against each other were he saw the great obstacle to the progress of N.Z. The missions were always insecure, for the country was always more or less disturbed. Add the ferocity of N.Z. warfare, its cannibalism and its undying spirit of revenge, and nothing more was wanted to degrade the country into a very pit of darkness. Marsden conceived that if he could succeed in establishing some one chief as supreme, a plan of government might be drawn up securing life and property throughout the island. He consulted Shunghie, Wyatto, Riva, and other powerful chiefs. Shunghie's ambitious spirit would have embraced the proposal, the condition being, of course, that he should

be the sovereign; but the jealousy of the rest prevented anything like unanimity. Riva justly remarked that to have any superior would degrade them; yet all the chiefs appeared tired of war and the unsettled state consequent upon it. So the project failed. At length he returned home, accompanied by six N.Z. youths, whose eagerness was such that they gladly promised to sleep upon the deck rather than miss the opportunity. Mr. Leigh was also his fellow voyager. Leigh writes:—"The shipwreck which we have experienced will, I have no doubt, prove favourable to the reputation of the New Zealanders. For several days we were in their power, and they might have taken all that we had with the greatest ease; but instead of oppressing and robbing us, they actually sympathised with us in our trials and afflictions. Mr. Marsden, myself, and Mrs. Leigh were at a native village for several days and nights without any food but what the natives brought us; what they had they gave us willingly, and said, 'Poor creatures! you have nothing to eat, and you are not accustomed to our kind of food.' I shall never forget the sympathy and kindness of these poor heathens. I do hope that the Rev. S. Marsden will be successful in his endeavours to put an end to the frequent wars in N.Z. I have heard many natives and chiefs say, 'It is no good to go to fight and eat men; we wish to cease from war and retire to some peaceful place.' I pray that this object may soon be effected among this people. The Christian world, and especially the Church Missionary Society, will never be able fully to appreciate the valuable labours of the Rev. Samuel Marsden. His fervent zeal, his abundant toil and extensive charity in the cause of missions are beyond estimation." In 1826 Marsden made his fifth voyage to N.Z. A great change had just taken place in the conduct of several chiefs towards the missionaries in consequence of their fierce intestine wars. At Wangaroa the whole of the Wesleyan missionary premises had been destroyed; the property of all the missionaries was frequently plundered and their lives were exposed to the greatest danger. The worst consequences were apprehended, and the missionaries, warned of their danger by the friendly natives, were in daily expectation of being at least stripped of everything they possessed, according to the N.Z. custom. For a time the Wesleyan mission was suspended, and their pious and zealous missionary, Turner, took refuge at Sydney, and found a home at the parsonage of Parramatta. The clergy of the Church mission deeply sympathised with him. Williams writes:—"The return of Mr. Turner will be a convincing proof of our feelings on this point. In the present unsettled state of things we consider ourselves merely as tenants for the time being, who may receive our discharge at any hour." As soon as the painful intelligence reached him Marsden determined to proceed to the Bay of Islands and use his utmost exertions to prevent the abandonment of the

mission. He was under no apprehension of suffering injury from the natives, and his long acquaintance with their character and habits led him to anticipate that the storm would soon pass away. He sailed in H.M.S. *Rainbow* and arrived in the Bay of Islands on 5th April 1827. He found the state of things improved, peace had been restored, and the missionaries were once more out of danger. He conferred with them and gave them counsel; reasoned with the chiefs on the baneful consequences of the late war, and at the end of five days from his arrival he was again upon the ocean on his way back to Sydney. Brief as the visit was, it confirmed his confidence in the speedy conversion of N.Z. In consequence of his co-operation with the missionaries, the labours of the press now for the first time reached the Maori tribes. During a visit to Sydney Mr. Davis had carried through the press a translation of parts of Genesis and Exodus and parts of St. Matthew and St. John, and some hymns. These prepared the way for the translation of the New Testament into Maori, which was printed a few years afterwards at the expense of the British and Foreign Bible Society. In 1830 Marsden perceived that N.Z. was about to undergo a great change. His efforts to induce the chiefs to unite under one head or sovereign elected by themselves had totally failed. Shunghie had been slain in battle and his ambitious projects of gaining a N.Z. throne by conquest were at an end. War was the natural condition of all the Maori tribes, and this, rendered more deadly, though possibly less ferocious by the introduction of fire-arms, was fearfully thinning their numbers from year to year. They were subject also to periodical returns of a terrible scourge, a disease resembling the influenza, which cut off multitudes. On the whole it was calculated that not more than a hundred thousand Maoris now survived; while twenty years before, when the island was first visited, the numbers were at least two hundred thousand. It was evident that they could not long maintain their independence as a nation. European ships began to crowd the Bay of Islands. English settlers were already making their way into their choice and fertile lands. To minds less sagacious than Marsden's the result could be no longer doubtful—N.Z. must become an English colony. He foresaw the necessity, and though at first with reluctance, cordially acquiesced in it even for the sake of the Maoris themselves. His concern now was to prepare them for a measure which must sooner or later take place. Everything was in a lawless state; the progress of the missions was greatly interrupted, and his presence was once more highly necessary. His own anxiety was great, first on behalf of the missions which had so long been the especial objects of his care, and then for N.Z. at large that the policy of Great Britain should respect the rights of the native tribes and pledge itself to their protection. On his arrival in March 1830 he was greeted before the ship had cast anchor by

Williams and others of the missionary band, who hastened on board and expressed their joy at his unexpected appearance among them. It was a critical moment, for they were in greater anxiety and difficulty than they had experienced at any former period of the mission. The natives were at open war, and but a day or two before a great battle had been fought on the opposite beach of the Bay of Islands, in which about 1400 had been engaged. The alleged cause of the war was the misconduct of an English captain who had offered indignities to some native women on board his vessel. One tribe espoused his cause, while another came forward to avenge the insult. Six chiefs had fallen in the battle, and 100 lives were lost; several whaling vessels were lying in the Bay, and their crews as well as the missionary stations were in the utmost peril from the revenge of the victorious tribe, which now lay encamped at Keri-Keri. There was not an hour to be lost. Marsden crossed the bay with Henry Williams early the next morning to visit the camp as a mediator. The chiefs, many of whom from different parts of the island had formerly been acquainted with Marsden, all expressed their gratification at meeting him again. After conversing with them on different points connected with proposals of peace, the two friendly mediators crossed over to the camp of their opponents, and entered at once on the subject of their mission. They spoke to them of the evils of war, and more particularly of the civil war in which they were engaged. "They heard all we had to say," he writes, "with great attention, and several of them replied to the different arguments we had used. They contended that we were answerable for the lives of those who had fallen in the battle, as the war had been occasioned by the misconduct of the captain of a vessel, one of our own countrymen; they wished to know what satisfaction we would give them for the loss of their friends who had been slain. We replied that we would give them no satisfaction, that we condemned his conduct, and were sorry that any of our countrymen had behaved so badly, and that we would write to England and prevent his return." This the savages requested that Marsden would not do; they longed for his return that they might take their own revenge. Marsden then proceeded to inform them that he had had an interview with the chiefs on the other side who were willing to come to terms of peace, and wished him to assist in settling their quarrel. This information was received in a friendly way by the greater part; one or two still wished to fight. The mediators returned to the beach which they found covered with war canoes and armed men. A war council was held, and Henry Williams stated the business upon which they had come amongst them. The natives listened attentively. Many of the chiefs gave their opinion in turn, with much force and dignity of address. These orations continued from an early hour in the morning till the shades of evening were closing. It was finally agreed

that the mediating party should proceed next morning to the opposite camp and repeat what had taken place. After a long discussion it was concluded that two commissioners from each party should be appointed along with Marsden and Williams to conclude terms of peace. Having urged all that was in their power to bring about a reconciliation they walked over the ground where the battle had been fought; a dreadful scene under any circumstances, unutterably loathsome where cannibals were the contending parties. The remains of some of the bodies that had been slain were lying unconsumed on the fires; the air was extremely offensive and the scene most disgusting. The next day (Sunday) was spent by Williams at the camp, for it was not considered safe to leave the savage warriors whose angry passions smouldered. Marsden proceeded to the station and preached to the infant church. He thus describes the scene as he sketched it upon the spot:—"The contrast between the state of the east and west side of the bay was very striking. Though only two miles distant the east shore was crowded with different tribes of fighting men in a wild savage state, many of them nearly naked and when exercising entirely naked; nothing was to be heard but the firing of muskets, the noise, din, and commotion of a savage military camp; some mourning the death of their friends, others suffering from their wounds, and not one but whose mind was involved in heathen darkness without one ray of divine knowledge. On the other side was the pleasant sound of the church-going bell; the natives assembling together for divine worship, clean, orderly and decently dressed, most of them in European clothing; they were carrying the litany and the greatest part of the church service, written in their own language, in their hands with their hymns. The church service, as far as it has been translated, they can write and read. Their conduct and the general appearance of the whole settlement reminded me of a well-regulated English country parish. In the chapel the natives behaved with the greatest propriety and joined in the church service. Here might be viewed at one glance the blessings of the Christian religion, and the miseries of heathenism with respect to the present life; but when we extend one thought over the eternal world how infinite is the difference!" These were trying times. The missions had existed fifteen years, and yet paganism raged in all the horrors of cannibal warfare close to the doors of the missionary premises. On the following Tuesday Marsden was aroused from his bed by a chief calling at his window to tell him that the army was in motion and that a battle seemed to be at hand. He arose immediately and was informed that thirty-six canoes had been counted passing between the mainland and the island. He immediately launched the missionary boat and proceeded to meet them. When he came up to them he found they had left their women and children on the island, and that they were all fighting men well armed and ready

for action in a moment's notice. He counted more than forty men in one war canoe. Yet amongst these infuriated savages the missionaries felt no alarm:—"We were under no apprehension of danger; both parties placed the utmost confidence in us, and we were fully persuaded the commissioners would be cordially received." If the event had turned out otherwise Marsden and his friends had notice given them by the native commissioners that they would be seen alive no more. The missionaries' confidence was not misplaced. "The whole day was spent in deliberation; at night, after a long oration, the great chief on one side clove a stick in two to signify that his anger was broken. The terms of peace were ratified, and both sides joined in a hideous war-dance together, repeatedly firing their muskets. The missionaries then took their departure from these savage scenes with much satisfaction, as they had attained the object they were labouring for." Even then the "Day-spring from on high" had visited this savage race. In no part of the world was the Sabbath-day more sacredly observed than by the converts in the missionary settlements; their lives gave evidence that their hearts were changed. Marsden was waited on one evening by several native young men and women who wished to converse on religious subjects; when they came in their anxious countenances explained the inward working of their minds. "When I had addressed them at some length," he adds, "a young native woman begun to pray. I never heard any address offered up to heaven with such feelings of reverence and piety, so much sweetness and freedom of expression, with such humility and heavenly mindedness." Amongst the audience in the room were the widow and two daughters of Shunghie. When they rose from their knees the ex-queen exclaimed, "Astonishing, astonishing!" and then retired; "and I confess," adds Marsden, "I was not less astonished than she was." A few days after Marsden married an Englishman to a native Christian woman, who repeated the responses very correctly in English which she well understood; she conducted herself with the greatest propriety and appeared neatly dressed in European clothing of her own making, for she was a good sempstress. Marsden considered this marriage to be of the first importance, and the New Zealanders appear to have been of the same mind and to have done due honour to the occasion, for the company came in a war canoe and brought their provisions with them, a pig and plenty of potatoes. Shortly afterwards he united a young native man and woman in marriage; they were both Christians, domestic servants to one of the missionaries, and seemed to have a great affection for each other. The young man was free and of a good family; the young woman was a slave, having become such by capture; for all their prisoners of war if not massacred were reduced to slavery. Clarke therefore redeemed her from her

master for five blankets, an axe and an iron pot. So confident was Marsden in the good feeling of the natives towards himself that he had taken one of his daughters with him, and she accompanied him in his visits to the chiefs, one of whom, known by the title of King George, demanded her in marriage for his son, "an honour," writes her father, "which I begged permission to decline." Fearful indeed had been the condition of females hitherto amongst these savages, as the following extract attests. He is describing the great change which Christianity had effected among the New Zealanders:—"On one of my former visits, sitting in the room I am at present in, the natives killed and ate a poor young woman just behind the house. In this little spot, where so late hellish songs were sung and heathen rites performed, I now hear the songs of Zion, and the voice of prayer offered up." Marsden's seventh and last visit to N.Z. was made in February 1837. He sailed in the *Pyramus* and landed on the southern side of the island at the river Hokianga. He remained amongst the Wesleyan missionaries for about a fortnight; after which he crossed over to the Bay of Islands, carried all the way in a litter by the natives. In this way he visited the whole of the missionary stations in the neighbourhood of the Bay of Islands, as well as Kaitia, a station at the North Cape. On the arrival of H.M.S. *Rattlesnake* he accompanied Captain Hobson (afterwards Governor of N.Z.) to the river Thames and the East Cape, returning at length to Sydney in that ship, where he arrived on 27th July, after an absence of five months. When entering the heads of Port Jackson one of the officers of the ship observed, "I think Mr. Marsden you may look upon this as your last visit to N.Z." He replied, "No I don't, for I intend to be off again in about six weeks. The people in this colony are becoming too fine for me. I am too old to preach to them, but I can talk to the New Zealanders." An English barque had lately been wrecked on the coast, but fortunately Guard the captain, his wife, two children and the crew, twenty-eight in all, escaped to land. At first the natives treated them with kindness, which they soon exchanged, in consequence of what provocations on either side it would be useless to ask, for open hostilities. A quarrel was got up between two tribes and an engagement followed in which twelve Europeans and about forty Maoris fell. Guard and his party were taken prisoners. On condition of returning with a cask of powder as a ransom for himself and the rest, Guard and five of his men were allowed to proceed to Sydney, where he laid the matter before Sir Richard Bourke. Relying on the accuracy of Guard's narrative, the Governor requested Captain Lambert to proceed with H.M.S. *Alligator*, which happened to be lying in Port Jackson, to obtain the restoration of the British subjects then in the hands of the New Zealanders. He was instructed to abstain from any act of retaliation and to obtain the restoration of the captives by

amicable means, and Guard and his five men returned in the same ship. Soon after the arrival of the party Guard recognised the chief who was now the proprietor of the shipwrecked women and children, and the unsuspicious native rubbed noses with him in token of amity, at the same time expressing his readiness to give up his prisoners on receiving the "payment" guaranteed to him. This however was not the way in which the affair was to be settled; Guard and his sailors seized him as a prisoner and dragged him into the whale boat in which the party had gone ashore. Great cruelty was practised towards this unfortunate man and fearful havoc committed by the English. The British subjects were restored, as indeed they might have been without the loss of a single life, through the intervention of the missionaries and of the British resident at the Bay of Islands, and the expedition having gained its object by force and stratagem, returned to Sydney with the troops and the liberated captives. The native tribes were still at war with each other and with the European settlers—the miserable effect of Guard's conduct. From the missionary station at Pahia, Marsden's daughter counted one morning twenty-one canoes passing up the bay. A battle followed, which she witnessed at a distance, and the Europeans all around fled to the missionary station. In the engagement three chiefs fell; a second fight occurred soon afterwards. "We have heard firing all day," she writes; "many have been killed: we saw the canoes pass down the river containing the bodies of the slain." Marsden himself was absent on a visit to the southward, or his presence might possibly have prevented these scenes of blood. Wherever he appeared he was received by the converted natives with salutations and tears of joy; the heathen population welcomed him with the firing of muskets and their rude war dances. Wherever he went he was greeted with acclamations as the friend and father of the New Zealanders. One chieftain sat down upon the ground before him gazing upon him in silence, without moving a limb or uttering a single word, for several hours. He was gently reproved by Williams for what seemed a rudeness. "Let me alone," said he, "let me take a last look; I shall never see him again." "One principal chief," writes Marsden, "who had embraced the Gospel and been baptised, accompanied us all the way. We had to travel about forty miles by land and water. He told me he was so unhappy at Hokianga that he could not get to converse with me from the crowds that attended, and that he had come to Waimate to speak with me. I found him to be a very intelligent man and anxious to know the way to heaven." While at Kaitai he held a constant levée, sitting in an arm chair in an open field before the mission house; it was attended by upwards of a thousand Maoris, who poured in from every quarter; many coming a distance of twenty or thirty miles, contented to sit

down and gaze on his venerable features; and so they continued to come and go until his departure. He presented each with a pipe and fig of tobacco; and when he was to embark at last, they carried him to the ship, a distance of six miles. The state of things in those parts of the islands where depraved Europeans had settled is graphically described by Marsden. Contrasting the happy state of the mission settlement at Waimate, he proceeds:—"On the opposite side of the harbour a number of Europeans have settled along with the natives. Several keep public-houses and encourage every kind of crime. Here drunkenness, adultery, murder, &c., are committed. There are no laws, judges, nor magistrates; so that Satan maintains his dominion without molestation. Some civilised Government must take New Zealand under its protection or the most dreadful evils will be committed by runaway convicts, sailors and publicans. There are no laws here to punish crimes. When I return to N.S.W. I purpose to lay the state of N.Z. before the Colonial Government to see if anything can be done to remedy these public evils. I hope in time the chiefs will get a Governor. I shall inform the Europeans in authority how much they are distressed for want of a Governor with power to punish crime. The Bay of Islands is now in a dreadful state." The venerable founder of the missions—advocate of its native population and friend of all that concerned its welfare—took his last leave of the shores of N.Z. in H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*. The signal gun was fired and all the friends from Waimate and Keri-Keri arrived to accompany their revered father to the beach.

V. *The New Zealand Company*.—For a period of more than fifty years after its discovery by Cook N.Z. continued to be the scene of unceasing savage warfare; and it was left in the occupation of its aboriginal native race. It was not until the great natural advantages of the country and its political importance were prominently brought before the public by the N.Z. Association that the true value of the islands was fully understood. Believing that the occupation of the country would prove injurious to the natives and a hindrance to the mission, the Committee of the Church Missionary Society opposed the project put forward by the N.Z. Company for planting settlements in the islands; and the Government, averse to new projects, refused to sanction the scheme. In vain was it represented by the promoters of the undertaking that the French were contemplating the establishment of a settlement in the country, and that unless British right to the sovereignty was openly maintained and immediately acted on, the French would gain a footing in the country and the sovereign rights of Great Britain would be lost. It was maintained by the Government that any right of sovereignty obtained from Cook's discoveries had already been abandoned; that it had in various legislative enactments admitted that N.Z. was no part of the

British dominions, and that His Majesty King William the Fourth had made the most solemn declaration that it was a substantive and independent State. While this controversy was in progress adventurers from the neighbouring colonies were flocking to N.Z. to purchase land from the natives, and a joint stock company was formed in England for colonising the country; and while the Government were demonstrating the theoretical difficulties which prevented the occupation of the country English adventurers were engaged in practically effecting its colonisation. The company formed for colonising N.Z. had Lord Durham at its head and consisted of political economists, colonial reformers, influential shipowners, bankers and merchants connected with London; and in political influence it was one of the most powerful joint stock associations of the day. Amongst the directors were men of high character who were influenced in becoming members of the association solely by patriotic and disinterested motives; but there were also some who had a stronger interest in their individual advantage than in the success of an undertaking formed to promote a great national object; and although men of rank and high character were made to appear before the public as taking an influential part in their proceedings, those gentlemen were frequently but the instruments of more able but less disinterested colleagues. Gibbon Wakefield wrote: "I was the principal founder of the Company and its principal managing director from the time of its formation till the summer of 1846, allowing for intervals of absence occasioned by illness and other occupation at a distance from England. My incapacity changed the whole character of the direction of the Company's affairs, which then fell into the hands of a few persons in whose minds sound principles of colonisation and colonial government were as nothing compared with pounds, shillings and pence." Referring to the Company in his speech on the second reading of the New Zealand Bill, Earl Grey said: "They did not display that judgment that might have been expected from them in conducting the great enterprise into which they had somewhat rashly entered." According to Sir William Molesworth who was for some time connected with them, "the Company was founded for two objects: the one was to put in practice certain views with regard to colonisation; the other was to make money. Some of these views proved correct; others erroneous. The pecuniary speculation utterly failed; partly in consequence of the obstacles put in the way by the Colonial Office, in defiance of whom it had been undertaken; but it had chiefly failed in consequence of great mismanagement." The first object of the Company was to induce the Government to erect the islands into a British colony; but disappointed in their endeavours they themselves fitted out and dispatched a preliminary expedition for the purpose of making purchases of land from the natives, for selecting suitable localities

for the sites of settlements, and to prepare for the reception of emigrants on their arrival in the country. And calculating on the success of their agent they proceeded at once to offer for sale by lottery in England the right of selection amongst the lands thus anticipated to be acquired by them; and though the country was at that time almost a byword for barbarism—without law or government and inhabited by a wild and warlike native race—and though officially warned that their proceedings could not be sanctioned by the Government, the Company found purchasers in England to the amount of more than £100,000. Without waiting to hear what locality had been procured by their agent for the site of a settlement, or whether he had succeeded in making the purchase of a single acre of land, they sent out several ships filled with emigrants to be located on that spot, wherever it might be, which on their arrival in the country they might find to have been procured for that purpose. Yet at that time and for several years after N.Z. became a dependency of the Crown, little was known of the common law of real property in force amongst the native owners of the soil; few were aware of the accurate knowledge they have of boundaries; of the use they make and the value they attach to tracts of country which appear waste and worthless; of the tenacity with which they defend their territorial rights; of the number of individuals who on different grounds have various degrees of interest in the same piece of land; of the necessity in order to make a safe purchase of any particular tract of country of ascertaining who have individual rights to particular portions as well as who are the chiefs and others who have general rights on the whole; and particularly of having well ascertained and clearly defined the sacred places, eel-fisheries, and other favourite localities which the owners may desire to have reserved for themselves. It was not then known in fact that to complete a safe and satisfactory purchase of land from the natives is a work of as much difficulty, requires as much time, careful investigation, and knowledge of native law and custom as to complete the purchase of an English baronial estate. The majority of the Select Committee of the House of Commons appointed in 1844 to inquire into the proceedings of the Company had assuredly no desire to deal hardly with that body; but they were compelled to report—"That the conduct of the Company in sending out emigrants, not only without the sanction, but in direct defiance of the authority of the Crown, was highly irregular and improper." In most of the localities best adapted for the sites of settlements, purchases of land from the natives had already been made by the old residents, by absentee Sydney speculators, and by a host of land-jobbing adventurers. Thus limited in his range of choice, and daily expecting the arrival of some hundreds of the Company's emigrants from England, their agent, Wakefield, had little time or opportunity for a

careful examination of the country. Meeting with natives asserting themselves to be the sole owners of the land in the neighbourhood of Cook Straits, and but imperfectly acquainted with the native law of real property, Wakefield proceeded to deal with them as if they were its sole and rightful owners; and within a short time after his arrival, he reported to the Company that he had completed the purchase of the harbour of Port Nicholson and a large tract of the surrounding country, together with a considerable portion of the northern part of the Southern Island. The colonisation of N.Z. was thus forced on the British Government; and to protect the natives, to avert a war of races, and to rescue the emigrants themselves from the evils of a lawless state of society, it was now resolved "to adopt the most effectual measures for establishing amongst them a settled form of civil government." Captain Hobson, who had recently visited N.Z. for the purpose of affording protection to English subjects there, and who had shown great ability and judgment in his report on the state of the country and its people, was selected to conduct the undertaking. All claim to sovereignty on the ground of discovery having been abandoned, Hobson was instructed to urge upon the native chiefs the impossibility of extending to them any effectual protection, unless the Queen were acknowledged as the Sovereign of their country; and he was commissioned to enter into a treaty with them for the formal cession of the sovereignty to the Crown.

VI. *Governor Hobson*.—On his arrival in the country in the character of British consul, N.Z. was an independent State; its native inhabitants were a wild and lawless race; its European occupants were unrestrained by any law and amenable to no tribunal, and had been alternately the authors and victims of every species of crime and outrage. Before a British colony could be founded, everything was yet to be done. The sovereignty over the country had to be obtained by treaty from the natives; territory for the occupation of British settlers had to be acquired; and the machinery of civil government was to be organised and set in motion. Nor was the establishment of British authority an easy or popular task. Its native inhabitants were a high-spirited, well-armed, warlike race. A large portion of the European population had long been living in a state of utter lawlessness. To curb and restrain, where all restraint had been unknown—where every man had been a law unto himself—and to put a stop to all private dealings with the natives for the purchase of their lands could be no popular duty for the Minister of the Crown. His first great object was to obtain the concurrence of the principal chiefs to a treaty ceding to the Crown all their rights and powers of sovereignty; yet no inconsiderable difficulty was experienced by him in prevailing on them to become parties to the treaty from a jealous fear lest by ceding the sovereignty they might be deemed to have parted

with the property in the soil; and at the outset of his proceedings the project had nearly been defeated. After announcing to the chiefs assembled at Waitangi the object of his mission, he carefully explained to them that it was the sovereignty and not the land that would pass to Her Majesty by virtue of the proposed treaty; that, to use their own figure, "the shadow would go to the Queen, but that the substance would remain;" and he assured them that they might rely implicitly on the good faith of Her Majesty's Government in the transaction. Many of the assembled chiefs addressed the meeting on the subject, and a protracted and stormy discussion ensued. Several of them, having been instigated into opposition by disaffected Europeans, opposed the cession of the sovereignty with so much skill and ability that apprehensions were for a time entertained as to the result of the negotiation. "Send the man away" said one of the opposing chiefs turning to Hobson. "Don't sign the paper. If you do you will be reduced to the condition of slaves and be obliged to break stones for the roads and your lands will be taken from you." And but for the timely interference of one of the most influential of the northern chiefs it is probable that the project would have been completely defeated; but the eloquence of this faithful ally ultimately turned the scale. "You must be our father" said Tamati Waka, turning to Hobson in concluding his address. "You must not allow us to become slaves; you must preserve our customs and never permit our lands to be wrested from us." With this touching confidence in British honour did the native inhabitants of the islands consent to place themselves under the dominion of the British Crown. The example of Tamati Waka decided the waverers, and a large number of the most influential chiefs of the north became parties to the treaty of Waitangi; the adherence of many powerful chiefs in other parts of the Northern Island was afterwards secured. Many however steadily refused, believing that if they put their signatures to the treaty their land would be taken from them. They had heard, they said, of the history of America, of New South Wales, and of many countries taken possession of by the English, and they could not but be jealous of the intentions of the British Government. In some instances those who signed the treaty refused to accept any present lest it might be construed as a payment for their land; and many influential chiefs in various parts of the country, though strongly urged to give in their adherence, to the last continued steadily to refuse. Before the negotiations were brought to a conclusion, and while agents were still engaged in various parts of the country in endeavouring to obtain signatures, intelligence reached Hobson that the settlers sent out by the Company had organised a system of government under the authority of the Port Nicholson chiefs; and deeming the proceeding to be of a reasonable character he at once (February 1840,) and without

waiting for the completion of the cession, proclaimed the Queen's sovereignty over both islands. For a few months they were annexed as a dependency to N.S.W.; but on the 16th November following, by a Charter under the Great Seal of the United Kingdom, the islands of N.Z. were erected into a separate and independent colony. One of the earliest duties which devolved on Hobson was to select a suitable site for the seat of Government. Having migrated from a warmer climate, the Maori race had settled themselves for the most part in the more congenial latitudes of the N.Z. group; and they were chiefly to be found congregated in the northern part of the Northern Island, nineteen-twentieths of the whole native population being settled in that island alone. And as the principal object of the Government in establishing British authority in the country was to promote their civilisation and advancement, other considerations besides the natural advantages of the locality had to be taken into consideration in deciding upon the most suitable situation for establishing the capitals of the colony. When the Company sent out their exploring expedition they explained to Wakefield that there was probably some one part of N.Z. better suited than any other to become the centre of its trade. The shores of safe and commodious harbours, the sheltered embouchures of extensive rivers communicating with a fertile country, were the situations to which his attention was directed; and he was especially instructed to make purchases of land on the shores of that harbour which should appear to offer the greatest facilities as a general trading depôt and port of export and import for all parts of the islands. But closely followed unfortunately by several hundred intending settlers, Wakefield had no time to spare in selecting a site for their location. Many harbours, in other respects suitable for extensive settlement, were already occupied by claimants still earlier in the field; and in the selection of a site for their first and principal settlement the Company were confined to unoccupied localities; while Hobson, as the representative of the Crown, had all before him where to choose. There are many good harbours in N.Z., and many districts abounding in rich and fertile land, and not a few where the facilities of internal water communication are considerable; but the difficulty was to find these natural advantages in combination. The Bay of Islands as a harbour is second to none; but the country in the immediate neighbourhood is hilly and broken with but a limited extent of open country available for agricultural purposes. Taranaki has a large extent of excellent land, well watered and beautifully wooded; but it has no harbour and abuts upon an open roadstead. Wellington has a spacious harbour surrounded by beautiful scenery, but owing to the broken and hilly character of the neighbouring country there is little available land within a radius of eight or ten miles of the port. The harbour of Nelson is

of second-rate character; and there also the available land in the neighbourhood is of limited extent; and both at Wellington and Nelson the facilities of internal water-communication are inconsiderable. At Canterbury the harbour is not of first-rate character, but the district possesses a vast extent of open available fertile land, covered throughout its whole extent with fine natural grass; though the plains are separated from the harbour by a lofty ridge. The Otago district comprises a large extent of fine open grassy country; but its harbour, although sufficiently good for the purposes of the settlement, is not by any means of a first-rate character. The district of Auckland, however, in addition to its excellent harbour, with a second port within six miles on the opposite coast and extensive natural facilities of internal communication, has its town, suburban, and country lands in a compact and convenient area; and all impartial testimony is united in favour of the wisdom of Hobson's choice. Without the aid of a map it is difficult to convey a clear impression of the position selected for the capital of N.Z.; begirt as it is by harbours, and forming a centre from which water-communication radiates inland in every direction. It is the centre of the great bulk of the native population; it possesses unusual facilities for internal water-communication; it has a safe and commodious harbour and several smaller ports in its immediate neighbourhood abounding with valuable timber; and it is surrounded by a considerable extent of available land. "With my present knowledge of N.Z.," wrote Hobson, addressing the Secretary of State, "having for some time resided at the Bay Islands; having visited Cook Straits and Banks Peninsula; and after seeing the Company's settlement formed at Port Nicholson, I do not hesitate to state my opinion that the neighbourhood of Auckland combines advantages for a very extensive and prosperous settlement not to be found in any other part of this colony." "There can be no question," also wrote Dieffenbach, the naturalist who accompanied the Company's preliminary expedition and who had a personal knowledge of the locality, "that the place has been judiciously chosen for the site of a town; as commanding a great extent of cultivable land in its neighbourhood, great facility of communication with the coast and the interior of the Northern Island, and as being a central point for the most powerful native tribes—the Nga-Puhi to the northward, the Waikato to the southward, and the Nga-te-haua to the eastward;—separating them in a military point of view, but uniting them for the purposes of civilisation and commerce." It was not until some weeks after Hobson's death that the intelligence reached the colony that his choice had been confirmed. "In reference to your selection of Auckland in preference to Port Nicholson as the site of the capital of N.Z., I am happy to acknowledge," wrote the Secretary of State, "that the grounds on which you proceeded

appear to me satisfactory. On a subject so peculiarly local and to the right understanding of which so much topographical knowledge is essential, my opinion must of course be guided by the comparison of the statements transmitted to me and by balancing the weight of conflicting authorities. Approaching the question in that manner, and unaided by any personal acquaintance with the localities, I have thought there is such a clear prepared course of motives in favour of your choice as to justify me in advising the Queen to decide that Auckland should be the seat of Government of the new colony, and I have received Her Majesty's commands to acquaint you that such is Her Majesty's pleasure." In fixing the seat of Government amidst the great bulk of the native population in the north Hobson drew on himself the hostility both of the Company and their settlers, who were disappointed that the settlement planted by the Company at Wellington was not selected by Hobson for the capital, overlooking the fact that Auckland was chosen with reference to the permanent interests of the country, while Wellington was selected by a private company with reference to the private interests, limited means and present views of a trading association whose proceedings had not then received either the sanction or recognition of the Crown; their intending emigrants having in fact, before leaving England, been officially informed that the Government had no connection with the Company nor any knowledge of their proceedings, and could hold out no expectation that her Majesty would be advised to recognise or sanction them. Knowing the great natural advantages of the northern portion of the islands as a field for colonisation, and foreseeing the prestige which would attach to the locality fixed upon as the capital, the Company from the first regarded the settlement founded at Auckland by Hobson with undisguised jealousy, and at the outset of his proceedings the first Governor drew on himself and upon his government their bitter and increasing hostility. Seeing that the country was already inhabited by a powerful native race it was especially desirable that the Government should have the power of directing the course of colonisation, determining the localities to be from time to time occupied by settlers, and prescribing the limits within which their colonising operations should in the first instance be confined. But systematic colonisation had been rendered almost impossible by the delay which had taken place in commencing the undertaking. Without the sanction and in direct defiance of the authority of the Crown, the Company had sent out a large body of emigrants from England; and while the controversy between the Government and the Company was still pending, and during the two years immediately preceding Hobson's arrival in the country, large numbers of speculators and adventurers had flocked over from N.S.W. with ready-made deeds in English common form, in the expectation that they would be able speedily

to make valid purchases of land from the natives for little more than a nominal consideration. And by the time British authority was proclaimed in the country, the claims to land were so numerous and extensive as to make it at once obvious how essential it was to the systematic colonisation of the country, not only that no land should in future be ceded by the natives except to the Crown, but that the purchases alleged to have been already made from them should be subjected to investigation; the basis of the enquiry being the assertion on the part of the Crown of a title to all lands in N.Z. which had been granted by the chiefs in accordance with the customs of the country, and in return for some adequate consideration. Accordingly during the short period that N.Z. continued in the relation of a dependency of the neighbouring colony, the Legislature of N.S.W. in accordance with instruction from the British Government, passed an Act providing that all claims to land alleged to have been purchased from the natives before the establishment of British authority, should be submitted to the investigation of a commission of enquiry; that in case it should be proved by the claimant that he had made a purchase, that the quantity of land to be granted to him should be regulated by the sum expended in the purchase; and that as a general rule no claimant should have granted to him more than 2560 acres. At that time nearly the whole European population of the North Island were claimants of land alleged to have been purchased from the natives before the proclamation of the Queen's authority: the number of claims, in addition to the gigantic claims of the Company, amounted to upwards of twelve hundred; and in extent they varied from a single rood to more than a million and a quarter of acres. Three of these claims exceeded a million of acres each; three of them comprised more than half a million of acres each, three others exceeded a quarter of a million of acres, and upwards of thirty of the claims comprised more than twenty thousand acres each. For some of these claims, the claimants had nothing to show but the ornamental scrawl or signature of one or more chiefs to a deed which in its terms and phraseology must have been utterly unintelligible to those who signed it; comprising a description of the boundaries purporting to be conveyed by it so vague and indefinite as to render it void for uncertainty. Some of the most extravagant of the claims were never actually prosecuted before the Commissioners; many were ultimately commuted for scrip credit at the sale of land by the Government; and for several hundreds of them Crown grants were issued, after a lengthened but unavoidable period of delay. In carrying out a measure almost universally regarded by the claimants as an act of general confiscation, the Local Government, though but the instruments of superior authority, was involved in the most unfriendly relations with the whole of the European population of the north; and for many

years the country was kept in a state of unprofitable agitation by their angry and determined opposition. After a lapse of eighteen years a few of these old claims remained unsettled; and the question which so long and so vexatiously agitated the country had hardly been entirely set at rest. Having large families growing up around them, and having no reasonable expectation that N.Z. would shortly become a regularly settled English colony affording a profitable field for the industry and enterprise of their children, it is hardly surprising that some of the missionaries and catechists stationed in the country availed themselves of the permission given them by the Church Missionary Society to purchase land from the natives for the use and benefit of their families; but these missionary claims eventually proved to the parent society a source of painful interest. The Roman Catholic and Wesleyan missionary bodies prohibited the purchase of land by their missionaries from the people they are commissioned to convert. The Church missionary body were placed in a false position when it could be said, with but the slightest appearance of the truth, that unlike the self-denying members of other denominations their missionaries had taken advantage of their position to secure their own aggrandisement. A few only of the members of the Church missionary body had made purchases exceeding what might fairly be considered a reasonable provision for their families; and some were not purchasers of so much as a single acre. The real evil indeed was not so much in the extent of the land purchased as in the fact of the purchase itself: the error of the society consisted in giving any sanction to the purchase of land from the natives by their missionaries even to a moderate extent. The prejudice however which in the first instance was studiously excited amongst the colonists against the members of the missionary body was soon seen by them to be unfounded and unjust; and whatever difference of opinion were entertained by the settlers of the extent of missionary influence amongst the natives, all agreed that the missionaries had rendered important services to both races, and that but for their labours a British colony would not have been established in the country. For the few months during which N.Z. continued to be a dependency of N.S.W. the newly-founded colony was subject to a code of laws enacted for a penal settlement; and even after it had been erected into a separate and independent colony, in November 1840, N.Z. continued for a while to be subject to the laws of the convict colony; for by an early Act of the Legislature it was provided that, until the laws necessary for its government could be specially framed with that object by the local Legislature, all such laws of N.S.W. as were applicable to the colony should continue to be in force. Happily the period of bondage was of short duration. Soon came English lawyers, imbued with English spirit, and eager to relieve the colony from the baneful influence of a convict

code; and measures were speedily enacted for establishing courts of judicature and for providing for the administration of justice, for the establishment of municipalities, for the transfer of real property, for the regulation of marriages and a variety of other important subjects. In the structure of the laws themselves the precedent was established of framing them in simple, concise and intelligible language; of confining the matter of each clause to a single subject; of arranging the clauses methodically under appropriate heads, and of avoiding the prolixity and tautology by which English legislative enactments are usually distinguished. And not being hampered by any complicated pre-existing system, nor impeded by the opposing influence of a powerful profession, the lawgivers of the colony were also enabled to effect amendments in the law which the British Legislature has hardly yet succeeded in accomplishing. A simple system of oral pleading suited to the primitive condition of the community was established for eliciting the issue in civil actions; and the form and language of indictments in criminal proceedings were materially amended. Of enactments of a more permanent character, that relating to real property is perhaps the most conspicuous for the boldness of its alterations. Many useless forms and subtleties in this abstruse branch of the law were abolished; not a few of its rules were amended. Many doubtful points not even yet well settled in England were set at rest by declaratory enactment, and to reduce the length of purchase-deeds, mortgages and other conveyances it was provided that a single, short and simple deed should be sufficient; and the more certainly to provide against unnecessary prolixity, that professional men should be remunerated according to a prescribed scale of charges irrespective of the length of the instrument itself. By this means and by the further enactment that they shall imply the lengthy covenants and provisions in common use, instruments for mortgaging and conveying land in N.Z. have in practice been kept within a moderate compass. These alterations in the law of real property, complemented by a system of registration affording to an intending purchaser or mortgagee an easy means of ascertaining the true state of the title, have done much to render the dealing with real property a comparatively simple and easy transaction. The changes effected in this important branch of the law were of so sweeping a character as even to attract the attention of the authorities at home. "Her Majesty would have been advised to confirm and allow the ordinance for facilitating the transfer of real property and simplifying the law relating thereto," wrote the Colonial Minister, Lord Stanley, "had it not been that this enactment introduces innovations of such magnitude and importance that no opinion of its probable effects antecedently to the actual trial of the experiment would seem entitled to much weight. I am gratified in observing how large a range of knowledge and

how much diligence have been brought to bear in the structure of this Ordinance; nor do I dissent from the learned framer of it in the general opinion that it is an object of inestimable importance to relieve a new society in its infancy, when alone it can be relieved, from thralldom to that complex and artificial system of law regarding the acquisition and transfer of real property which has grown up in this country. I therefore do not object to this experiment, venturous as it is. But neither am I willing to advise the Queen to sanction it until I shall be able to lay before Her Majesty some surer proof than I can at present command of the real wisdom of the fundamental changes." Although the seat of Government was established in the centre of the great bulk of the native race and of the European population settled in the north, it soon became obvious that one general central authority could not satisfactorily legislate in detail for the several settlements almost contemporaneously planted in the country. In addition to the settlement founded by the Crown at Auckland, three settlements were planted by the Company at Wellington, Nelson, and New Plymouth; all widely separated from each other, and some of them at that time distant from the capital a four weeks journey or a fortnight's sail; and one of the earliest enactments of the Colonial Legislature was a comprehensive measure of a Municipal character, empowering the colonists to manage their own local affairs and to provide for the good order, health, and convenience of the public. The measure was based upon the principle that the people themselves are best qualified to provide for the management of their own local affairs. It was so framed as to entitle any then existing or future settlement, whenever its population should amount to 2000 souls, to be erected into a separate Municipality; and if cordially accepted by the colonists it was expected that it would relieve the general Government from a duty which it could but ill perform, and that the progress of the colony generally would be promoted by the honourable rivalry which might be expected to spring up amongst the various settlements when entrusted to their own local management. The duties which devolved on the local Government in founding the colony, arduous as they would have been under any circumstances, had to be performed amidst the angry opposition of an irritated community; and the most strenuous efforts were made, not only by land claimants in the north and by the disappointed settlers in the south, but by a powerful English Joint-stock Association, to effect Hobson's recall. Almost alone—looking in vain for despatches from home, failing in health, surrounded by angry opponents and assailed by the bitterest abuse, uncertain whether his proceedings would be approved by the Ministers of the Crown—the last few months of Hobson's life were passed in a state of painful and harassing suspense. Had he lived but a few weeks longer he would have been cheered by the

knowledge that his general administration of the affairs of N.Z. was approved by Her Majesty's Government; that his selection of the site of the capital had received the sanction of the Crown; and that in all his transactions with the Company he might rely upon the support of Her Majesty's Government against the "exaggerated pretensions" of that Company and their agents. Hobson had a novel and arduous duty to perform; he laboured honestly and assiduously to discharge it, and his services entitled him to the favourable consideration of his country. "Mother Victoria," wrote one of their greatest chiefs, addressing Her Majesty after Hobson's death, "my subject is a Governor for us and for the strangers of this island. Let him be good man. Look out for a good man: a man of judgment. Let not a troubler come here. Let not a boy come here, or one puffed up. Let him be a good man as the Governor who has just died." Brief as it was Hobson's career as the first Governor and founder of the colony will always deserve a prominent place in the history of N.Z. Between January 1840 and September 1842, during his administration of affairs in the several characters of Consul, Lieutenant-Governor, and Governor, the sovereignty over the country was obtained by treaty from the native chiefs; considerable tracts of land became by purchase the demesne land of the Crown; the machinery of Government was organised and put in motion; the purchase of land from the natives by private individuals was put down; the seat of Government was established on a well-chosen site; an important body of laws was devised and enacted for the peace, order, and good government of the colony; and almost for the first time colonising operations excited the interest and attention of the British public. It was now seen however that an experiment was about to be tried deeply affecting the interests of humanity; that a pledge was given by the Ministers of the Crown that the natives of the islands should if possible be saved from that process of extermination under which uncivilised tribes had hitherto disappeared when brought into contact with civilisation; and that the British Government was for the first time in earnest about to try the experiment whether a fragment of the great human family, long sunk in heathen darkness, could be raised from its state of social degradation and maintained and preserved as a civilised people: whether it were possible to bring two distinct portions of the human race in the opposite conditions of civilisation and barbarism into immediate contact without the destruction of the uncivilised race; and whether in rendering the colonisation of a barbarous country possible by his religious teaching the Christian missionary is not also at the same time the pioneer of the destruction of its heathen people. Such were the grave issues involved in the proceedings taken by Great Britain for the colonisation of the country.

VII. *The Wairau Massacre.*—Early in the year 1840, and before British authority was established

in the country, the N.Z. Company's first fleet reached Wellington; and no sooner had the emigrants disembarked than the want of authority for the preservation of order amongst them began to be felt. Ignorant of the difficulties of the enterprise into which they had hastily engaged, the Company had made it their boast that they had undertaken the colonisation of the country in defiance of the authority of the Crown; but their first body of colonists soon found that, whatever may be its form, some governing power is the first necessity of the social state. Before leaving England the emigrants had entered into a compact amongst themselves that, when they reached their adopted country, every offender should be punished in the same manner as if the offence had been committed against the law and within the realm of England; that certain members of the colonising body should constitute a council of government; and that in all criminal proceedings, an umpire, assisted by assessors, should decide on the guilt or innocence of the party accused. Hardly had their first body of settlers reached the country, when they were officially warned from England, not only that any act of coercion or authority done by them under the agreement would be illegal, but that they would be liable to a prosecution for usurping the functions of the Crown and Parliament in setting up an independent jurisdiction, and that it was the intention of the Government to enforce the strict letter of the law. A serious difficulty was thus experienced at a critical period of their adventurous undertaking; and without some controlling power the community must soon have been broken up. A prompt and efficient remedy was essential to its very existence. The colonists, however, were Englishmen, practised in the exercise of political functions: not a few of them equal to any emergency; able, energetic, and determined. Self-preservation was the paramount consideration. They could not carry British law into effect, even by mutual consent; but there was no law to prevent them living in an independent State, enjoying its protection and subject to its laws. A constitution and laws adapted to the habits of an enterprising body of Englishmen were not, it is true, at that time to be found amongst the wild tribes of N.Z.; this, however, was a small difficulty; for the country had at all events long since been officially declared by the Government to be an independent State. Some years previously, the British residents, for the purpose of providing some means of regulating their increasing commerce, had collected together a number of the northern chiefs who agreed to meet in congress at Waitangi, in the autumn of each year, for the purpose of framing laws for the dispensation of justice, the preservation of peace and good order, and the regulation of trade. Although this attempted confederation failed to effect the object of its author, it served as a useful hint to the newly-arrived settlers at Port Nicholson; and they at once perceived a means of

obtaining the protection of laws of their own framing, without any violation of the laws of their own country. Following the example of the British residents, the Port Nicholson settlers called together the "sovereign chiefs" of the district, and went through the form of obtaining from them the adoption and ratification of the Contract of Government entered into by themselves before leaving England. Besides ratifying the agreement, these sovereign chiefs conferred upon the council of government which had been established by the settlers all such powers of legislation as they might themselves exercise and perform. In resorting to these proceedings the southern colonists had no intention of establishing a permanent independent Republic: it was simply an act of self-preservation, to enable them to maintain order amongst themselves without violating the law of their own parent State. And this ephemeral constitution answered the object of its founders: it gave them the appearance at least of legitimate authority; and it had the effect of hastening the establishment of British rule. But the Wellington settlers had yet no conception of the helpless position in which they had been placed by the precipitate proceedings of the Company by whom they had been sent out. For a short time after their arrival they continued to live on the most friendly terms with the natives, and anticipated no opposition to their peaceful occupation of the country. But the defects in the Company's title soon became apparent. When their surveying parties began to cut the boundary lines, or when their purchasers proceeded to take actual possession of the land, natives from various parts of the country who had not been parties to the sale came forward to assert their rights, and regarding the Company's settlers as unauthorised intruders actively opposed their occupation of the land; while the colonists, ignorant of the native law of property, naturally viewed the claims put forward by the natives as but a pretext for acts of violence and for making extortionate demands. And thus, prevented from occupying the soil, the intending settlers were confined in a state of complete inactivity to the strip of land forming the site of the projected town of Wellington. From an early period of the settlement angry relations sprung up between the Company's settlers and the natives, and during a long period of unprofitable inaction capital remained idle or was unprofitably expended, labour remained unemployed and the best energies of a numerous body of enterprising colonists were wasted on the Wellington beach. No long time elapsed however before the settlers had reason to believe that the Company had sold land to them which they had never in fact purchased from the natives, and the question arose, What were the rights, the claims and the obligations of the several parties? As to land which they had not sold to the Company, it was clear that the natives not only continued to have an undoubted right to it, but that they had also a claim upon the British Government to be

supported in the peaceable possession of it. Before the country was colonised repeated disclaimers were made by the Queen and Her Majesty's predecessor of every pretension to seize upon it. By the treaty of Waitangi too, "Her Majesty the Queen of England confirmed and guaranteed to the chiefs and tribes of N.Z. the exclusive and undisturbed possession of their lands." By the Royal instructions the Governor was directed especially to protect them in their persons and in the free enjoyment of their possessions, and the Secretary of State declared that "Her Majesty had distinctly established the general principle that the territorial rights of the natives as owners of the soil must be recognised and respected." Thus the rights of the natives and their claims on the British Government did not admit of a question. If the Company had been even tacitly allowed to colonise N.Z. they might have had some claims upon the Government for consideration, but they were informed by Lord Normanby before the sailing of their preliminary expedition, that "Her Majesty could not recognise the authority of the agents whom the Company might employ," and that "no pledge could be given for the future recognition by Her Majesty of any proprietary titles to land within N.Z. which the Company or any other persons might obtain by grant or purchase from the natives." So far from the Company's operations having been conducted under the sanction or with the permission of the Government it was made a boast by the Company that they colonised N.Z. in spite of the Government. Neither against the natives nor against the Government therefore could the Company have any claims to land which they had not purchased. But the settlers themselves, it was urged, had claims either against the Government or against the natives, because "upon the faith of an Agreement between the Company and the English Government which seemingly recognised and adopted the Company's title many of the settlers had expended sums of money." Unfortunately for the Port Nicholson settlers this agreement contained an express declaration on the part of the Government that "the Company having sold or contracted to sell land to various persons, Her Majesty's Government disclaim all liability for making good any such sales or contracts;" and to make the case stronger, in answer to an enquiry made on behalf of a number of purchasers of land in the Company's first or principal settlement, and before the first body of settlers sailed from England, the Colonial Minister replied that Her Majesty's Government had no connection with that Society and that he "could not hold out any expectation that Her Majesty would be advised to recognise or sanction them." To a similar enquiry made on behalf of a small community of intending emigrants, it was replied that Her Majesty's Government had not in any manner recognised the proceedings of the Association, and could enter into no engagement as to the validity of any titles to land which might

be derived from that body. On the British Government therefore it was clear that the Company's settlers had no claim. Neither had they any equitable claim against the natives. It is true that according to English notions of equity, if the owner permits a stranger without warning or interruption to erect buildings or to expend money on his land, the stranger acquires a right to some consideration; but in the present instance the natives by no means acquiesced; they constantly protested; they did more; they in some cases pulled down the buildings erected on the land, and drove off the intruder by force. The first really serious collision between the two races occurred not where many hundreds had settled in the vicinity of a populous native settlement, but in the thinly peopled Southern Island, and in a district not permanently occupied by the natives. About the middle of July 1843 the startling intelligence reached the seat of Government that a party of colonists belonging to the settlement founded by the Company at Nelson had come into collision with the natives, and had been cut off almost to a man; and that upwards of twenty of them, including nearly all the leading members of the Nelson Settlement had been tomahawked or shot. The claims of the Company to land amounted to some millions of acres; partly in the Northern Island and partly in the northern part of the Southern Island: in many instances these claims had been denied, and in some cases openly resisted by the natives, on the ground that the land had never in fact been sold by them to the agents of the Company. In order to carry out the plan on which the Nelson settlement was founded, it became necessary, for want of land in the neighbourhood, after putting the settlers into the possession of their town and suburban sections, to resort to the Wairau valley, a fine district in Cloudy Bay, about seventy miles from Nelson, for the purpose of finding land to supply the original purchasers with their 150 acre sections of country land; and in April preceding, several surveying parties were despatched on the part of the Company to survey the district. Almost immediately on their commencing work, the natives who disputed the sale of that district ordered off the surveyors, pulled up their ranging rods and stakes and did everything in their power to prevent the survey from proceeding. Whilst this was being done by some of their people, Rauparaha and Rangiaiaata, two of the most powerful and least civilised chiefs of that part of N.Z., who were the original native owners of the district, were at Porirua, on the other side of Cook Straits, urging the Land Claims Commissioner, Spain, to hasten over to settle the land claims at Wairau, as they wished the surveyors to be withdrawn; and the commissioner agreed to hear these claims towards the end of June. In the meantime both the chiefs crossed the Straits to Cloudy Bay, went up the Wairau with their party, found the surveyors still there, collected a number of them

together, their tents and provisions, and told them that they intended to send them all off the land together. Previous to this they had set fire to Cotterell's (one of the surveyors) hut, having first assisted him to move all property of value to prevent its destruction. Early in June, Cotterell proceeded to Nelson to inform Captain Arthur Wakefield, the Company's agent there, of what had taken place: Tuckett, the Company's chief surveyor attempting, but in vain, during Cotterell's absence to obtain permission of the chiefs for the survey to proceed. On arriving at Nelson, Cotterell (on 12th June) laid an information before the police magistrate, Thompson, who issued a warrant against Rauparaha and Rangiaiaata for burning Cotterell's hut; and accompanied by Wakefield and several other officers and men in their employment, shortly afterwards started for the Wairau, with the intention of executing it. Distinguished for his high character, humanity and courage, Wakefield, the leader of the Nelson settlement, was esteemed and respected by all who knew him; and the last lines he ever wrote record his belief that in engaging in the ill-fated undertaking he was acting for the benefit of all. "We heard on Sunday," he wrote to his brother, "that Te Rauparaha and Rangi have commenced operations on the Wairau, and have burned one of the surveyors' houses. The magistrates have granted a warrant on the information, and Thompson accompanied by myself, England, and a lot of constables are off immediately in the Government brig to execute it. We shall muster about sixty, so I think we shall overcome these travelling bullies. I never felt more convinced of being about to act right for the benefit of all, and not less especially so for the native race." On the 13th June Thompson, the police magistrate, Wakefield, Richardson, Captain England (late of H.M. 12th Foot,) Howard, the Company's storekeeper, Patchett, merchant, Cotterell, Company's surveyor, Brooke, who acted as interpreter, the Chief Constable of Nelson, three constables, and about twenty-five other persons, mostly labourers and others connected with the Company's survey department, started on the expedition. Before reaching the Wairau they were joined by one of the Company's boats having on board Tuckett and ten or twelve men who joined the party. On Thursday evening they anchored at the mouth of the Wairau, and remained there; and at a Pah at the entrance of the river Howard served out arms to the men (about thirty-five in number) consisting of muskets, bayonets, pistols, swords, cutlasses, and several rounds of ball-cartridge; the constables were also armed with guns, muskets and pistols. One or two of the men were sworn in as special constables; some were told they were going to take Rauparaha and Rangiaiaata on a warrant; few knew that they were on a hostile service, and many of the party expressed their intention not to use their arms. In the course of their progress they were joined by Barnicoat,

another of the Company's surveyors, and his man. Early on Saturday morning the party who had left their boats when the river became shallow and marched up the banks, came up to the place where they expected to find Rauparaha and Rangiaiaata and their party; and found them encamped on the opposite bank of a narrow creek. By the directions of Thompson and Wakefield the European party was now formed into two bodies under England and Howard, who gave orders to their men not to interfere until directed. As a means of communication with the other side of the creek where the chiefs were encamped a canoe was placed across the water to serve as a bridge. Thompson, Wakefield, Chief Constable Brooke, and some others then crossed over. Thompson, Wakefield and Cotterell walked backwards and forwards for nearly half an hour with the natives, and apparently in a friendly manner. Three women, the wives of Rauparaha, Rangiaiaata, and Puaha, sat in the centre; the party of resident natives on one side and the armed natives of the northern island on the other side of the group. Puaha stood in the centre with a Testament in his hand reading to the natives and exhorting both parties to peace. Rangiaiaata was in the back-ground out of sight. Thompson then showed his warrant, directed the constable to execute it on Rauparaha, and instructed Brooke to explain the meaning of it. Thompson also stated that he was the Queen's representative and *that* (pointing to the warrant) was the Queen's book; that Rauparaha must go on board the brig with the constable and that it was for burning Cotterell's house, and had nothing to do with the land question. Rauparaha told them to sit down and talk and not make a fight, and to wait till Spain and Clarke came and hear what they would say. Thompson then inquired of Rauparaha whether he would come or not? to which he replied he would not; but that if Clarke or Spain was there he would. Thompson then said if he would not go he would make him. Rauparaha still refusing, Thompson, pointing to the Europeans, said: "There is the armed force and they shall fire upon you all if you won't go." Thompson it appears then became "exasperated" and the discussion violent. Rangiaiaata called on him not to fire. "For God's sake, Thompson, mind what you are about!" also shouted Richardson from the other side. Thompson however called to the armed party to fix bayonets and advance, Wakefield placing the canoe across the stream for a bridge gave the word, "Englishmen, forward!" A few of them had entered the canoe when a shot was fired—whether by accident or design is not quite clear—on the side of the Europeans. Upon this the firing immediately became general on both sides and several fell. Three of their party having fallen, the Maoris hesitated whether they should run away, but Rauparaha urged them to pursue. When the firing commenced Thompson, Wakefield and the rest of the party who had been in communication with the chiefs re-crossed the creek to

join their own party, who were now retreating up the hill pursued by the natives. At each step in the ascent Wakefield again and again attempted to rally the men and entreated them to make a stand, to fix bayonets and charge. An irregular firing was still kept up, but the European party continued retreating. "For God's sake, come back, men!" cried Thompson, "the Maoris are coming upon us." But the greater number made good their retreat, and there was running in all directions. Wakefield finding it impossible to rally the men ordered those who remained to lay down their arms and surrender. Brooke, the interpreter, called to the Maoris: "Leave off, enough!" But after this some shots were fired by those in retreat who had reached the top of the hill and were too far distant to know what was going on below. When signals of surrender had been made one or two Maoris also threw down their arms, and advanced with their arms stretched out in token of reconciliation. It seems that while the surrender was taking place by the gentlemen below, and the firing by the stragglers above, Rangiaia came up enraged. He had discovered that his wife had been shot. "Rauparaha," said he, "remember your daughter!" The dreadful carnage then commenced, and Rangiaia alone with his own hand, it is said, destroyed the greater number. "Puaha, Puaha!" cried out the wife of a chief from a distance, "save some of the chiefs (gentlemen) that you may have it to say that you have saved some." But it was then too late. On the European side the number of armed men was forty-five men; on the Maori side about forty were engaged: their loss was four killed and five wounded. On the Wednesday following Mr. Ironsides, Wesleyan missionary, having heard of the fatal conflict hastened to the spot, where he found nineteen European bodies, including those of Wakefield and Thompson. On Thursday they were buried: Ironsides reading at the grave the funeral service of the Church of England. On his way to the fatal spot Ironsides met Rauparaha and Rangiaia and obtained permission to go and bury the dead. They told him that they had no intention to fight: that it was the wrath of the Europeans that made them fight; that the Europeans had fired upon them and one or two of their number had fallen before they began to fight; and that it was not until the wife of Rangiaia was shot that "they began to seek for payment." In addition to the nineteen bodies found dead on the field five of the party were severely wounded and four were missing. In defence of the survivors who fled early in the conflict it was urged that many of them were common labourers on the Survey-staff of the Company, not hired to risk their lives in fighting with the natives; that they had no interest in the contest; and that they had wives and families depending on them for support. But in answer, it was said that they ought in the first instance to have refused to take up arms; or, having taken them up, to have manfully used

them; but that they took up arms, advanced, and fired, and entered into the conflict under the direction of leaders, and thus undertook to support and obey them; and that if they had done so, the most revolting features of the case would have been spared, and many valuable lives; but that, as far as it was possible for them to do so, they damaged the British character in the estimation of the Maoris; and having entered so far into the conflict as to fire upon a body of people guilty of no offence as far as they were concerned, they then, heedless of the rallying cry of Wakefield, and deaf to the entreaties of Thompson for support, left their comrades in the hour of need to the savage fury of those whom they had themselves provoked. Before the affray commenced the prestige of the English stood high; and if they had shown a steady front and made a determined stand the natives would probably have given way. Immediately after the fatal conflict Rauparaha and Rangiaia crossed over Cook Straits, and with a strong party took up their position at Waikanae and Otaki, about fifty miles from Wellington. Anticipating retaliation from the English they were meditating an attack on the town; and the Wellington people, not without reason, became seriously alarmed. At that time no troops were stationed there: the whole military force in the colony, stationed at Auckland nearly five hundred miles distant, did not exceed one hundred men; and they could not be brought down to Wellington in less than a month. As a precautionary measure it was resolved, at a meeting of the magistrates in Wellington, that Spain, Commissioner of Land Claims, should be requested to go and communicate to the native chiefs their determination not to make or sanction any attempt to take vengeance for the death of the white men at the Wairau, but to leave the whole matter to the decision of the Queen's Government. Few men at that moment would have sought the commission; but Spain was not the man to shrink from the honour thus conferred upon him by his brother magistrates; and he at once proceeded up the coast, when he met Rauparaha himself, and addressed a large assemblage of the natives, informing them that it was not the policy of the English law to punish the innocent for the guilty; that the statements both of the Maoris and the white men engaged in the conflict had been sent to Auckland to the Governor who would decide upon the steps to be taken; and that in the meantime, no act of aggression would be committed upon them by the English. At the conclusion of his address, Spain was asked by Rauparaha if his object in coming amongst them was not, first to quiet them, in order that the English might have time to get troops, and when they came, if the English did not intend to attack them? "Rauparaha," says Spain, "seemed to feel the difficulty of my situation. 'I hope, at all events,' said he, 'you will act as gentlemen, and that if the Governor should decide upon sending soldiers to take me and Rangiaia that you will

send and let us know when they arrive : you need not take the trouble to send up here for us. If you will only send, I will come down to Wellington with 1000 Maoris, and have a fight with the white men ; if they beat us they shall have N.Z., and we will be their slaves ; but if we beat them, then they must stand clear.'” Rauparaha, whose name had for many years been a terror to the country, was a most powerful speaker, and a crafty, able man. He told the natives that the English in retaliation would certainly make an attempt to kill all the Maoris ; that they had already sent for soldiers, and were preparing at Port Nicholson ; and that now was the time to attack the white people before they were prepared. Happily for the peace of the country, the people of the district had for some time been living under the ministration of one of the most devoted and influential missionaries in N.Z. ; and it is hardly too much to affirm that Wellington owed its safety at that moment to a single individual, the Rev. Octavius Hadfield. He had arrived in December 1838 with the Bishop of Australia, by whom he had recently been admitted to deacon's orders. Five years afterwards, he was appointed, by the Bishop of N.Z., Rural Dean of the district of Wellington and Taranaki ; then Archdeacon of Kapiti ; and he was subsequently nominated first Bishop of the See of Wellington ; an office which, from ill health, he was unable to accept. Yet a single false step on the part of the Government would have been fatal. If the natives had then attacked Wellington in force, probably not even the patrimony of God would have been spared ; but “the smoke of the town would have gone up like the smoke of a furnace,” and like Kororarika, the Company's “first and principal settlement,” would have been totally destroyed. On the side of the Maoris it was complained by Rauparaha that the attack made on them was unjust ; that the English first took away his land and then wanted to take himself and Rangiaiaata into custody, for having destroyed a hut built on his own land of toe-toe and wood grown upon it : and “is this,” he asked, “the justice the Queen of England promised to the Maoris ?” The Nelson people on the other hand sent a deputation to wait on the Government to express their views of the catastrophe. “We have no hesitation in stating,” said the deputation, “that it is the general opinion of the settlers at Nelson that our countrymen who were killed at the Wairau plain lost their lives in endeavouring to discharge their duties as magistrates and British subjects, obedient to British law ; and that the persons by whom they were killed are murderers in the eyes of common sense and justice.” On the part of the Colonial Government it was replied that for the recent bloodshed an awful responsibility had been incurred ; but what was the degree of criminality of those concerned in the fatal conflict, and on whom that criminality chiefly rested, were questions on which no opinion could then be given, as the transaction might

become the subject of judicial enquiry ; but whatever might be the crime and whoever might be the criminals, it was clear that the event had arisen in consequence of some of the Company's surveyors, without the knowledge or concurrence of the Government, proceeding to take possession of and to survey a tract of land in opposition to the original native owners, who had uniformly denied the sale of it. Fortunately for the safety of the country, the Government were so far removed from the scene of action as to be able to form a dispassionate judgment. After careful consideration of the evidence before them they arrived at the conclusion that the proceeding, so far as Thompson the police magistrate was concerned, was illegal in its inception, and in every step in its execution, up to the moment of the attack itself ; that it was unjustifiable in the magistrate and the four constables, and that it was criminal on the part of the rest of the attacking party. The British Government, still further removed from all disturbing influences, arrived at the same conclusion. “So manifestly illegal,” wrote the Secretary of State, “unjust and unwise were the martial array and the command to advance, that I fear the authors of that order must be held responsible for all that followed in natural and immediate sequence upon it . . . Whether I try the proceedings of Mr. Thompson and his followers by general principles, or the narrow rules of the law of England, I am compelled to adopt the same conclusion : I adopt and I record it with that serious concern with which alone we can contemplate the errors of our fellow-countrymen, when expiated by the most lamentable sufferings, and even, as unhappily in this case, by death. But my regard for the memory of the deceased (among whom were several gallant and meritorious men, and eminent benefactors of the colony,) does not acquit me of the obligation of stating explicitly my judgment of their proceedings. It is a painful duty : but that judgment is that they needlessly violated the rules of the law of England, the maxims of prudence, and the principles of justice.” The attempt was made by the Company to fix on the local Government “the massacre of the Wairau, and the crime of having, by unjust and ill-judged proceedings, involved first the Northern and then the Southern districts in insurrection and bloodshed.” But ten years after the fatal event, when all excitement had entirely passed away, a committee of the House of Representatives, composed of the leading members from every province, and having certainly no leaning in favour of the executive authorities by whom the colony had been governed, thus recorded their judgment on the subject :—“It is with great pain and reluctance that your Committee refer to the melancholy affair at Wairau in 1843 ; nor is it with the smallest intention of casting any reflection upon the memories of the men who fell there : whom they believe to have been men of high and generous character, and actuated by honest motives ; although, from their ignorance

of the native character, almost necessarily mistaken. But your committee cannot admit that the responsibility of the massacre of the Wairau rests with the local Government, or that it has any necessary connection with the selection of the site of the Nelson settlement. There can be no doubt of the fact that the Massacre of the Wairau was caused by the agents of the Company attempting to take possession of a district with regard to which the natives always denied that they had sold it; and although the local Government may seem to be implicated in the matter, inasmuch as its representative, the Police Magistrate, headed the expedition, it is nevertheless perfectly notorious that the Company's agent was the real instigator of that expedition which led to such lamentable results. The native war in the North there is every reason to believe was occasioned by the success of the natives in the conflict with the white men at the Wairau. In consequence of that success, the superstitious feeling with which the natives had previously regarded the power and the law of the white man was destroyed; the jealousy of the natives on the subject of their territorial possessions was indefinitely stimulated, and a feeling was created which prompted the restless and turbulent among a race of savages fond of the excitement of war to seek to emulate in another field what they considered to be the triumph of their countrymen. In fact instead of deducing the native wars from the proceedings of the Local Government as their sole or principal cause (the position assumed by the Company) there appears to your committee greater reason to say that the first conflict between the settlers and the natives was precipitated by the conduct of the Company and its agents." This first collision between the natives and the colonists is commemorated as "The Wairau Massacre," and a column to the memory of the victims has been erected on the spot where they fell.

VIII. *Joint Stock Colonisation.*—Having in the first instance been taught to regard the natives and the Colonial Government as the cause of their misfortunes, the Wellington settlers for some time made common cause with the Company; but the proceedings in the Court of Commissioners of Land Claims brought to light the fact that the Company had received from their settlers money for land which the Company had never purchased and of which the native title had never been extinguished, and the southern settlers now directed their complaints against the Company themselves. "It is distressing," said Charles Buller, a leading member of the directors of the Company, writing to the Secretary of State, "to hear the tales of individual disappointments and woe which reach us every day. All emigration to N.Z. is stopped; the first colonists are quitting it as fast as they can." "These returned colonists," said the directors themselves addressing their shareholders, "come straight to us and afflict us with their complaints of disappointment and ruin.

We tell you," they add, "that it is our deliberate conviction that unless a great change takes place immediately, your settlements will not be worth preserving. We come here to fritter away borrowed money, to consider claims we have no means of satisfying, and to hear the most distressing complaints without being able to assist the sufferers." Such was the account given by the Company themselves of the result of their colonising operations as regards their first and principal settlement. Having discovered the real authors of their misfortunes, the whole body of resident landholders in the settlement of Wellington and Wanganui claimed compensation from the Company who had sent them out from England. "We address you," said they, "not as supplicants for your bounty—not as men suing for favour at your hands—but as parties deeply and grievously injured; as men protesting against great wrongs inflicted by you; and as such demanding redress. And to what causes are the disasters which have befallen us attributable? You cannot and dare not deny that the immediate and proximate cause of our ruin has been the non-fulfilment by you of the contract formed with us seven years ago." No great length of time elapsed before the unhappy situation of the Company's settlers became known in England; with what result may be readily imagined. "The accounts which have reached home," wrote their chairman addressing the Secretary of State, "have produced a like cessation of income from land sales here; for the Commissioners Court has rendered them unmarketable, and the Company has altogether ceased to obtain any return from its lands. These difficulties must we think be ascribed to one cause; namely, the dispute respecting the Company's titles to land. This is the one thing which appears to have led to all the bad blood between the natives and the settlers. It was the direct cause of the unhappy business at Cloudy Bay (the Wairau,) and of the subsequent disastrous state of feeling." Although the attempt was made by the Company to impute the misfortunes of themselves and their settlers to the bad faith of the natives, the Report of the Land Claims Commissioner, soon afterwards made public, showed that they had sent out settlers to occupy land which they had never purchased, and had sold to them land to which they never had a claim. "I am of opinion," reported the Commissioner of Land Claims, "that the greater portion of the land claimed by the Company in the Port Nicholson district, and also in the district between Port Nicholson and Wanganui, including the latter place, has not been alienated by the natives to the Company; and that other portions of the same district have been only partially alienated by the natives to that body; and it appears to me so far as the evidence has gone that all the Company's purchases were made in a very loose and careless manner." To the precipitate proceedings of the Company, in a second time sending out a body of emigrants before it was known that a suitable

locality had been secured for their reception, is to be attributed the catastrophe at the Wairau. However plausible it might have been in theory, their scheme of the Nelson settlement failed also in bringing together the three necessary elements of land, capital and labour, in the prescribed ratios. Formed in England, upon paper, the plan was attempted to be carried out in a locality unsuited to the purpose. A sufficient price had been paid for the land by the settlers before leaving England; but on arriving on the site of the settlement, the land itself was not to be found; and in the attempt to obtain the greater portion of the quantity required, and that at a distance of seventy miles, more than twenty valuable lives were thrown away. Labour, it is true, was carried out; but no adequate amount of capital was sent out to employ it; and failing to find employment amongst the settlers, a large number of labourers fell back upon the Company who had sent them out, and for a time about three hundred were employed by them upon public works. Disappointed in the expectations they had been led to entertain, finding themselves employed almost out of charity by the Company, at what they believed to be an inadequate rate of wages, the labouring class broke out into open mutiny, and threatened to plunder the Company's stores. Nor were the land-purchasers themselves better satisfied with their lot: the failure of the Company to put them in possession of land, naturally occasioned them much disappointment and loss; and, like the Wellington settlers, they also claimed compensation from the Company, for breach of their agreement. For some time these claims were strenuously resisted by the Company: eventually, however, they announced to the Nelson land-purchasers that they had submitted to counsel a case for a legal opinion as to the respective rights and liabilities of themselves and their settlers; that they had authorised their agent at Nelson to act in behalf of the Company, taking the opinion which might be given on the case as the basis of the arrangement; and promising that the opinion itself should be sent out by the earliest opportunity. Shortly after a legal opinion to the effect that the Company were *not* liable to their settlers, either for breach of contract or for the losses sustained by them, was sent out and made known to its Nelson settlers by the Nelson agent: and believing this to be the legal opinion referred to, having no knowledge of any second or different opinion, and finding that they had no legal rights against the Company, the Nelson land-purchasers agreed to a compromise on the most favourable terms they could procure. It was publicly charged against the Company that the "opinion" sent out by them for the guidance of the settlers at Nelson was a changeling: that the opinion of their own counsel (a member of their own body and a man of character and standing) was that the Company were not only liable to return to the Nelson land-purchasers their original purchase-money with interest, but to make compensation also for their

losses; and that suppressing this opinion they submitted a case to another counsel, little known in the profession, from whom they obtained an opinion that the land-purchasers had no claims against them, and had sent out this second opinion as the one to which they had originally referred as the basis of the proposed arrangement, thereby entrapping the settlers into making a compromise disadvantageous to themselves. It must have been mortifying to many honourable men who joined the association with no other object than to aid and take part in what they believed to be a laudable undertaking, to find its governing body afterwards charged before Parliament with deceiving their own colonists by means of a deliberate suppression of the truth. With reference to the settlement of Nelson itself, the Chairman of the Company, in his place in Parliament, made the candid admission that it did not fulfil the strict letter of the law; that the scheme of it was not well advised; and that it had not answered the expectations either of the Company or of the settlers. "In so far as that field of settlement extended," said the Report of the Committee of the House of Representatives, "the Company was entirely unobstructed in its operations, and its failure there, and the misery of its settlers are mainly chargeable upon its own mismanagement and the utter unfitness of the scheme of colonisation attempted to be carried out as applicable to the peculiar features of the colony. So long as the Company attempted to carry out that scheme and actively interfered in the affairs of the settlement money was squandered, labour was misapplied, there was no production and no vitality; and the dawn of progress, healthfulness and production dates from the day when the Company's works were suspended, the Company's system of colonisation was abandoned and working men placed upon allotments of land." With respect to the class of labouring emigrants sent out by them, it would be unjust to the Company not to acknowledge that eventually, and as a body, their emigrants bettered their condition by going out. But in their case, as well as in that of the land purchasers, it would not be difficult to point to instances of promises unfulfilled or sought to be evaded. The case of the labourers at Taranaki on any other evidence than the admission of the parties implicated would be incredible; but that case rests on the written statement of the Company's agent, published in the Appendix to their 12th Report. "You are aware," he writes, "that the emigrants in this settlement hold what they call embarkation orders, being a sort of handbill in which it is distinctly stated that the Company's agent will at all times give them employment in the service of the Company, if from any cause they should be unable to obtain it elsewhere. Being unable to give any other interpretation to this promise than the words quoted seemed to imply, and yet bearing in mind that the court of

directors view their engagement in a different light, I endeavoured to evade it by sending the applicants for employment a long distance from home, making no allowance for time spent in the journey or for time lost in bad weather. The necessities of the men and their families were such as compelled them to submit for several weeks to these conditions; but many came home sick and claimed the promised medical aid, and others commenced the trade of pig and sheep stealing, not having yet had time to raise potatoes for themselves." Nor were the Company more successful in establishing for themselves a high character for straightforward honesty of purpose in the conduct of their proceedings in England. When N.Z. first became a British Colony the Chatham Islands, lying about 500 miles to the eastward of the group, were not included in the Governor's commission. In the year 1841 but little was known of the Company beyond the fact that they were an influential association, comprising amongst their directors men of name and reputation, and it was thought inexplicable that the Under-Secretary of State for the Colonial Department should have sought and obtained permission from Lord John Russell (then Colonial Minister) to be relieved from the duty of ever again receiving any of the directors at any interview relating to their affairs. Sir James Stephen must have had good reasons for resorting to so significant a proceeding. The correspondence which soon afterwards took place between the Company and the Government on the subject of the Chatham Islands makes it probable that his apprehensions of the danger of transacting business with them, in the absence of documentary evidence, were not without foundation. After entering into negotiations with a German Colonisation Company for the sale of the Chatham Islands, they commenced a correspondence with the Government on the subject; and the governor of the Company wrote to the Secretary of State (Lord Stanley) informing him that the directors being in treaty for the sale of the Chatham Islands to a German Company, they considered it right to inform his lordship of the circumstance. To give useful neighbours to the settlement which they had founded in N.Z. was, they affirmed, the motive which principally induced them to dispose of their property in these islands. In reply, Mr. G. W. Hope was directed to state that Lord Stanley could not discover on what grounds the Company could claim a right to enter into negotiations with the diplomatic agents of a foreign State for creating a foreign colony in the neighbourhood of the British settlements and the protection of the commerce and navigation of Great Britain with the proposed colony; and that the opinions of the Attorney and Solicitor-General would be taken as to the consequences in point of law of the assumption and exercise by the Company of such powers. To escape this dilemma, it was stated by Somes (governor of the Company) that the Company had not entered into any contract in their capacity of

directors; that in fact the Chatham Islands were not claimed by them at all, but belonged to the old Company; and they trusted that the circumstance of their having, perhaps rather unguardedly, stated that the directors were in treaty, would not prejudice them in his lordship's judgment. Lord Stanley then informed them that as it appeared from their own statement that they had no property in the Chatham Islands, he thought it unnecessary to pursue any correspondence with them on the subject. Three weeks later Hope was directed to inform the directors that the law officers had reported their opinion that the purchase of the Chatham Islands and the proposed sale of them by the directors were unauthorised by their Charter; that their proceedings in the transaction were an interference with the Royal prerogative and therefore unlawful; and that an abuse of their powers might be the forfeiture of their Charter. The Company in reply stated that no act had been done between them and the parties with reference to the projected arrangements. But three months later they were informed that Lord Stanley had received the copy of a despatch from Her Majesty's Chargé d'Affaires at Hamburgh, enclosing the copy of an agreement for the sale of the Chatham Islands, purporting to be made between Mr. Sieveking of the one part, and John Ward Esq., acting on behalf of the N.Z. Company of London incorporated by Royal Charter, of the other part. The Company were informed that thenceforward the Chatham Islands would form part of the colony of N.Z., and that no claimant would be allowed a greater quantity of land than 2500 acres. Nothing now remained for the directors but to disavow Ward's proceedings; and Lord Stanley was assured that the steps taken by Ward in his communication with Sieveking were not taken in pursuance of instructions from the Company! The proceedings of the Company as a colonising body had now come to a dead lock. They had expended a considerable amount of capital in fitting out their preliminary expedition in sending out emigrants and in payments to natives for land. But they hardly succeeded in a single instance in making a really valid purchase; on the contrary, the proceedings in the Land Commission Court proved that in almost every instance their claims were either defective or wholly without foundation. This discovery led to a lengthened and angry discussion between them and the Government. The Company having represented themselves to be the purchasers of large tracts of land from the natives, the Government had agreed to grant to them, not the whole quantity claimed to have been purchased, but four times as many acres as they had expended pounds in the work of colonisation. According to the terms of this agreement they would have been entitled to a grant of upwards of a million acres. The agreement however was based throughout on the assertion of the Company that they really had made large purchases of land. Failing however to prove a valid purchase of the land claimed by

them, the Company nevertheless maintained that it was immaterial to them whether or not they had in fact extinguished the native title to the land, as the Government were bound under any circumstances to put them in possession, if not of the particular land itself, at least of the stipulated quantity. As this claim could only be satisfied by making a purchase of upwards of a million acres from the native owners of the soil out of the public funds and at the expense of the British nation, it was strongly resisted, so long as Lord Stanley continued to administer the government of the colonies. The affairs of the Company were now in an utterly hopeless condition. They had not only sold land to their settlers to which they had no title, but they were unable to put them in possession. On all sides they were beset with claims for compensation and redress; their capital was expended, and the native owners of the soil, exasperated by their attempts to take possession of the land by force, were now unwilling to deal with them for the sale of it on reasonable terms. In bringing before the public their project for colonising the islands, they in the first instance expressed the most considerate regard for the rights of the native race, and avowed their desire to promote their permanent interests; but their colonising operations were beset with difficulties, and there appeared to them to be but one mode of surmounting them, and that was by urging the British Government to set aside the treaty with the natives by which the sovereignty over N.Z. had been gained. "We have always had very serious doubts," urged the Company, addressing the minister, "whether the treaty of Waitangi, made with naked savages by a consul invested with no plenipotentiary powers, without ratification by the Crown, could be treated by lawyers as anything but a praiseworthy device for amusing and pacifying savages for the moment." Happily the honour of the Crown and of the country was in honourable keeping, and the suggestion to set aside the treaty was met by a reply which cannot be more fitly characterised than as being worthy of a Minister of the British Crown. "Lord Stanley is not prepared, as Her Majesty's Secretary of State, to join with the N.Z. Company in setting aside the treaty of Waitangi, after obtaining the advantages guaranteed by it; even though it might be made with 'naked savages,' or though 'it might be treated by lawyers as a praiseworthy device for amusing and pacifying savages for the moment.' Lord Stanley entertains a different view of the respect due to the obligations contracted by the Crown of England; and his final answer to the demands of the N.Z. Company must be that, so long as he has the honour of serving the Crown, he will not admit that any person, or any Government acting in the name of Her Majesty, can contract a legal, moral, or honorary obligation to despoil others of their lawful or equitable rights." Failing in the attempt to induce the Government to break faith with the natives the Company as a last resource claimed compensation from the

Government, and a Committee of the House of Commons was appointed to examine into the complaints made by them of losses sustained by them in consequence, as they alleged, of the proceedings of the Colonial Office and of the local Government. Lord Howick, who had taken an active part in supporting the case of the Company before the House, was appointed chairman; and the Committee reported their opinion that the Company had sustained injury from the Government and were entitled to redress. But the Committee appointed some years afterwards by the House of Representatives itself, to inquire into the subject of the Company's debt, arrived at a different conclusion. When Lord Grey came into office as Colonial Minister he was appealed to by the Company for that redress which his predecessor had steadily refused. Nor was the appeal in vain. Lord Grey not only reversed the policy of his predecessor, and admitted to be valid claims which Lord Stanley had resisted as unjust, but notwithstanding the antecedents of the Company he passed a measure through Parliament vesting in that body the whole of the demesne lands of the Crown in the province of New Munster; granting to them, in addition to a previous loan of £100,000, a further loan of £136,000; and finally, providing that if they should find themselves unable to continue their proceedings with profit to themselves and benefit to the colony, they might wind up their affairs, freed from all liability to repay the loan of £236,000, and with a charge in their own favour of the sum of £268,370 15s. on all future sales of the demesne lands of the Crown throughout N.Z.: the Government agreeing to accept as an equivalent the lands which the Company merely claimed to have acquired or to have become entitled to. Of the terms of the agreement entered into between the Government and the Company there is but one opinion. It is only just to Lord Grey to believe that in being a party to such an agreement he was himself mistaken and deceived; and that, notwithstanding their antecedents and the ill success which had attended the colonising operations of the Company, he still believed they might be turned to useful account, as instruments in promoting a great scheme of emigration for the benefit not only of N.Z., but of the kingdom at large. If such were Lord Grey's expectations, no one could be more grievously disappointed than himself. Out of the large sums of public money placed at their disposal for the purpose of restoring the prosperity of the existing settlements of the Company, and to promote efficient colonisation, less than £30,000 was expended in emigration; and instead of being applied to its legitimate objects a considerable sum was lent by the Company to its own shareholders, and lost. Other large sums were laid out, ostensibly in the purchase of private estates, but really to buy up troublesome claims for compensation; and further sums of considerable magnitude were appropriated by the directors of the Company amongst themselves on

account of past fees. Notwithstanding the ample means which had been placed at their disposal by Earl Grey they still found themselves unable to continue their proceedings either with profit to themselves or with benefit to the colony; and, taking advantage of the very favourable arrangement obtained from Parliament on their behalf, they surrendered their Charter, and as a colonizing association ended their career without having given a single legal title to a single individual of a single piece of land; leaving the whole of their engagements in respect of the disposal of land, during a period of twelve years unfulfilled and uncompleted, and leaving the whole colony burdened with a debt of £268,000. Despairing of obtaining the active interference either of the Government or of Parliament, the Colonial Legislature ultimately authorised a compromise to be made. It was agreed that the colony should pay to the Company the sum of £200,000 in full of all demands; and in order to raise the amount application was made to Parliament to guarantee a loan to be raised by the colony for the liquidation of the debt. "This proposed loan," said Sir J. Trelawny in the course of the debate, "is in fact nothing but hush-money in order that all discussion about past transactions may be put an end to." "It has been my misfortune," said Sir James Graham, "to see the commencement of the proceedings connected with this subject, to watch them and to resist them; but I do not think it expedient now to revive the discussion of those proceedings. Much light was thrown upon the transactions to which I refer in 1852, when the late Sir William Molesworth called the attention of the House to the subject. The House then obtained from the Colonial Office detailed information with respect to the occurrences that had taken place; and although I do not think they will bear very close investigation, I cannot but regard the Act of 1852 as a condonation of them." Without re-opening the discussion Parliament agreed to guarantee the loan. So far as the company are concerned the debt is now but a matter of curious history.

IX. NATIVE INSURRECTION.—Having neither money nor men—charged with the duty of governing a semi-barbarous race, who as a body had not even professed submission to British rule—and responsible for the safety of several isolated English settlements, the local authorities were placed in a painful and anomalous position. Some time however elapsed after British authority had been formally proclaimed, before the natives had any conception of the consequences of ceding to us the sovereignty of the country. Before the colonists came into actual collision with them, the prestige of British power stood high and they were disposed to regard the Government with respect; but from the want of firmness displayed on the occasion of the conflict at the Wairau, they soon conceived a low estimate of the warlike prowess of the British: and in their first conflict with regular

troops they were unfortunately victorious. From time immemorial land had been the principal cause of quarrel amongst them; and with their independent spirit and sensitive jealousy as to their territorial rights they soon began to regard with mistrust the introduction of British rule. Their territorial claims were not confined to the land they had brought into actual cultivation but they claimed and exercised ownership over the whole surface of the country, and there is no part of it however lonely of which they did not know the owners. Forests in the wildest part of the country had their claimants. Land apparently waste was highly valued by them. Forests were preserved for birds; swamps and streams for eel-weirs and fisheries. Trees, rocks and stones were used to define the well-known boundaries. Land was held by them either by the whole tribe or by some family of it, or sometimes by an individual member of a tribe. Over the uncultivated portions of territory held by a tribe in common every individual member had the right of fishing and shooting. When any member of a tribe cultivated a portion of the common waste he acquired an individual right to what he had subdued by his labour; and in case of a sale he was recognised by the tribe as the sole proprietor. If undisposed of by sale it generally descended from father to son. And even the power of disposing of land by will orally expressed at the point of death was recognised amongst them. A certain man had a male child born to him; then another male child; and then a third male child. He also had daughters. At last the father of this family being at the point of death the sons and daughters and all his relations assembled to hear his last words and to see him die. And the sons said to their father: "Let thy mouth speak O father that we may hear your will, for you have not long to live." Then the old man turned towards his younger brothers and spoke thus: "Hereafter O my brothers be kind to my children. My cultivations are for my sons. Such or such a piece of land is for such or such a nephew. My eel-weirs, my potato-gardens, my potatoes, my pigs, my male slaves, and my female are all for my sons only. My wives are for my younger brother." Such was the disposition of a man's property; it related only to the male children. The custom as to the female children was not to give them any land; for their father bore in mind that they would not abide on the land. They might marry husbands belonging to another tribe not at all connected with their parent's family; therefore no portion of land was given to them. Not so the male children; they stand fast always on the land. Such was the account given by an intelligent New Zealander of the custom amongst them as to the disposal of landed property. The natives who were parties to the treaty of Waitangi were by no means aware of the important consequences to themselves of ceding Sovereign authority to a foreign power; but the practical effect of the proceeding soon began to be

experienced by them. As early as the year 1843 an attempt was made by a party of settlers in the south to gain forcible possession of their land. For some time previously immigrants had been rapidly flocking into the country; and seeing their independence threatened, and fearing that when the European population became sufficiently powerful the attempt would be made to ignore their title to the soil, some of the Northern tribes only arrayed themselves against the Queen's authority. The New Zealanders were in the zenith of their power—independent of all other nations—the uncontrolled masters of the country—and looked up to and conciliated by the strangers whom they had permitted to reside amongst them. Early in 1840 Captain Hobson arrived in the character of British Consul, commissioned to treat with the chiefs for the cession to Her Majesty of the sovereignty over the whole or any part of the country which they might be willing to place under the dominion of the British Crown. The treaty of Waitangi which formed the basis of his negotiations, provided that the chiefs should still continue to exercise their "chieftainship" with its incidents; the chiefs on their part giving to the Crown the exclusive right of pre-emption over such lands as they might be disposed to alienate. The terms made use of in the native language were such as would clearly convey to the natives who signed the treaty, the idea that their chieftainship with whatever might be incident to it was to remain unaltered; but the terms did not and could not convey to them a distinct understanding of what was understood and intended to be understood by the language made use of to cede to the Crown of England the sovereignty over the country; there being no word in the native language by which that term could be clearly expressed. Thus they had but a very imperfect knowledge of the force and effect of the terms of the agreement; and throughout the whole of the negotiations it was held out to them by the agents of the Crown that their cession of the sovereignty would at all events be productive of signal and substantial advantages to themselves: indeed, the only clear idea which they formed of the consequences of ceding the sovereignty over the country was, that they should be the immediate gainers. Those who became parties to the treaty looked forward with eager expectation for the promised fruits; but they were doomed to speedy disappointment. Instead of receiving immediate advantage from the change, the natives—especially those of the northern district who were the first and principal parties to the treaty—found their condition suddenly and in almost every respect altered for the worse. For no sooner were the negotiations concluded and the Queen's Sovereignty proclaimed in the north, than Hobson having now assumed the office of Lieutenant-Governor removed his head-quarters from the Bay of Islands and fixed the seat of Government at Auckland. This proceeding had the effect of withdrawing a large

portion of the European population from the northern district; and the immediate consequence was the very reverse of that expected by the natives in the north in becoming parties to the treaty. The influx of immigrants to the Bay of Islands immediately ceased; the greater part of those who had originally settled there, while N.Z. was acknowledged as an independent State, followed the Lieutenant-Governor to the newly-chosen site of the capital. The trade with the natives at the Bay gradually decreased; many of the whalers which had frequented the harbour ceased to do so, now that law and authority was established there and customs regulations brought into force. The free intercourse with the shipping, which the natives had enjoyed while in their state of independence, was restrained by custom-house regulations; the prices of their favourite articles of consumption were increased by the duties levied on imported goods. The natives themselves were now no longer regarded by the settlers as the all-powerful chiefs of former times, but were sometimes addressed with curses, foul language and abuse. A large portion of their land they now saw in the possession of strangers, greatly increased in value, while the consideration they had received in exchange for it had been long since expended. And in consequence of the treaty, they found they could no longer dispose of their land as heretofore to the European settlers; neither did the Crown become the purchaser of a single acre in that part of the country. So many unexpected results, following so closely upon the establishment of British authority, could scarcely fail to excite in the minds of the natives serious misgivings; and there were not wanting amongst the European settlers men mischievous enough, for the sake of gratifying their own disappointed hopes, to endeavour to stir up in the minds of the natives feelings of hatred and distrust of British rule. They were told that by-and-by all their lands would be seized by the Government, and that they would themselves be made slaves; that N.Z. was not the first country which had been taken from its native inhabitants; that in other countries, as in N.Z., Englishmen had first arrived in small numbers with missionaries among them, then in greater numbers, then a Governor and soldiers were sent, and at last the natives were hunted like wild beasts and driven off their lands. Such being the circumstances under which N.Z. was colonised, it is not remarkable that Heki, the first to sign, should be the first to break the treaty; and that after the lapse of a few years, some unruly spirits should have risen into rebellion against the authority of the Crown; but it is remarkable that the natives of the north did not immediately rise to a man, to throw off what to them would naturally appear to be the baneful dominion of a treacherous foreign sway. Nor were their jealous apprehensions altogether without foundation. The Company had already urged the British Government to set aside the Treaty of Waitangi; and a Committee of the British

Parliament—ignorant probably of the territorial rights of the natives, and of their power to defend them; ignorant also it may be hoped, of the extent to which the honour of the Crown and of the nation had been pledged to them that their rights should be recognised and respected—agreed to a resolution that “means ought to be forthwith adopted for establishing the exclusive title of the Crown to land not actually occupied and enjoyed by the natives;” overlooking the fact that in undertaking the colonisation of the country the Government expressly disclaimed all intention to acquire any right to the soil in acquiring the sovereignty, and especially instructed Hobson “to obtain by fair and equal contracts with the natives such waste lands as may be progressively required for the occupation of settlers resorting to N.Z.” But almost at the moment the Committee were urging the propriety of the measure, the natives were demonstrating its impracticability. When the two races first came into collision the settlers were the aggressors; but the natives, emboldened by their success at the Wairau, and utterly disabused of the opinion they had previously entertained of the prowess of the British, now boldly ventured to try their strength in the open field against disciplined English troops. And as if to give a decisive illustration of the practical unsoundness of the theory, that the uncivilised inhabitants of any country have but a qualified dominion or a right of occupancy only; and as if practically to establish the opposite axiom, that the civilised inhabitants of a country can have but a qualified dominion over any other country, or a right of occupancy over so much of it only as they can take and keep by force of arms, the oldest settlement in the country, under the protection of a sloop of war and a small detachment of troops, was openly attacked. Despite the efforts of the soldiers, seamen, and armed settlers, the royal flag-staff was cut down—the military blockhouse was taken—the soldiers, seamen, and the whole population of the settlement abandoned it and took refuge on board ship; the habitations of the people, with scarcely an exception, were sacked, plundered, and destroyed; and, to increase the humiliation, the whole of this painful and disastrous scene was enacted within range of the silent guns, and in the unmoved presence of a foreign ship of war. The destruction of Kororarika, and the threat of Heki to march his victorious forces to the south, spread alarm throughout the country. The northern district of the colony was declared by proclamation to be subject to martial law; and as soon as the troops were reinforced a series of military operations was undertaken, but with little effect in restoring the prestige of the British power: instead of being put down, the disaffection spread from north to south. Hardly had the troops taken the field when they were three times attacked by the insurgents; and though they always gallantly repulsed them at the point of the bayonet, the officer in command had to report that the attempt made by the troops to carry

Heki's fortified pah had failed; that they had been repulsed with heavy loss; and that one-third of the men actually engaged had fallen in the attack. And when he again took the field with a force of more than 1000 men (soldiers, seamen, and marines,) together with an auxiliary body of several hundred native allies, he with difficulty gained possession of the fortified pah at Ruapeka-pekapa, occupied by less than half the number of the attacking force. In the south, too, the settlers were driven from the valley of the Hutt; in the town of Wellington the colonists were in arms for weeks together, keeping watch and ward in daily expectation of attack; at Whanganui, the out-settlers were driven in, houses in the settlement itself and within gunshot of a strongly fortified military post were plundered and destroyed; and the Queen's troops during a period of several weeks could only show themselves outside of their own stockade at the hazard of being shot. The loss sustained by the natives during the insurrectionary struggle was never correctly ascertained, but there is reason to believe that it was less considerable than that of the British. In their various encounters with the insurgents, the loss of the troops between March 1845 and July 1847 was 65 killed and 165 wounded. During the same period martial law was six times proclaimed; of the five natives executed under its authority, four were the murderers of an unoffending woman and her children: one was condemned to execution as a rebel; and the few who were transported under the authority of martial law were soon afterwards sent back from V.D.L. and shortly set at liberty. A more unprovoked and cold-blooded murder than that for which the four natives suffered death was never committed in a civilised country; and as their guilt was clearly proved and afterwards confessed, there could be no hesitation as to what should be their fate, and they promptly met with the punishment they deserved. But on another occasion when some natives had been taken and tried as rebels by court-martial, the military authorities found themselves in an embarrassing position. An example had already been made, and a native had been put to death under martial law for rebellion against the Queen's authority; and considering the circumstances under which the sovereignty had been acquired, and that the natives for the most part had not undertaken any special allegiance to the Crown, the court were naturally unwilling to condemn them to an ignominious death; so not knowing that the punishment could not be carried into effect they sentenced them to transportation, and they were accordingly sent out of the country: but the authorities in V.D.L. having no legal warrant to receive or detain them they were soon afterwards returned to N.Z. and restored to their friends. In this particular instance it is not improbable that several lives were saved in consequence of the ignorance of the military tribunal of the nature and extent of their powers: but it is to be regretted that no

work of authority was ever published, showing the circumstances under which it is held justifiable to bring martial law into operation; by whom it may be proclaimed; how it is to be administered; and what are the powers and jurisdiction of those who carry it into effect. For some time after the British authority had been proclaimed, the difficulty of carrying it into practical effect was not fully comprehended even by the Colonists themselves; and the anomalous position of the Local Government at that time has hardly been fully understood. With an inadequate military force and an empty treasury; surrounded by powerful native tribes suddenly conscious of their strength and responsible for the safety of several distant and isolated settlements; the local authorities were for some time left unaided, to contend as best they might with the difficulties of their perilous position. Governor FitzRoy, than whom no man has ever come to N.Z. with a more ardent desire to benefit its native people, was hastily condemned and suddenly re-called; but as the difficulties he had to contend with have become known, Governor FitzRoy's proceedings have been more justly appreciated. Whether the proceedings taken by the Government for establishing British authority in N.Z. were the most judicious that could have been adopted is a point on which opinions may differ. It may even be good international law, according to the law of the strongest, and as maintained by the Parliamentary Committee, "that the uncivilised inhabitants of any country have but a qualified dominion or a right of occupancy only." But seeing that whether wisely or not the acknowledgment of their right to the soil of the country had been repeatedly made to its native inhabitants; that the honour of the Crown and of the nation had repeatedly been pledged to them by the Queen's representative by the officers of the New Zealand Government, and by various missionaries and ministers of religion, that Great Britain would not and did not intend to acquire territorial rights by the acquisition of the sovereignty; seeing too that it was on the faith of these solemn assurances alone that the New Zealanders were induced to cede to Great Britain the sovereignty over their country, it is difficult to understand on what principle it was suggested that England should afterwards set up a claim on the part of the Crown to the whole of the unoccupied soil of the country. The attempted encroachments of the Company and the suggestions of the Parliamentary Committee no doubt tended to awaken the jealousy of the natives; yet so far as the local authorities were concerned, no occasion was ever given to them to lead them to doubt that their territorial rights, as guaranteed by the treaty of Waitangi, would be faithfully respected. Formidable as it was the disaffection was by no means general; seeing however that an insignificant minority of the native population kept the country for upwards of two years in a constant state of disturbance—putting a stop to emigration, driving the settlers from their

homesteads and affording inadequate, harassing and unprofitable occupation to Her Majesty's troops—it is not easy to exaggerate the catastrophe which would have followed any attempt on the part of those in authority to violate the treaty and rob them of their lands. Happily the errors of the Parliamentary Committee were neither shared in nor acted upon by the Minister of the Crown. Lord Stanley simply forwarded to the Government of N.Z. a copy of their proceedings, accompanied by an expression of his apprehension that their views thus publicly put forward, might add to the difficulties of the Governor's already embarrassing position. Nor was the apprehension without foundation, for a copy of the Parliamentary report reached N.Z. at the moment when the insurrection first broke out in the northern part of the colony; and the recommendation contained in it was communicated to the natives, already ripe for mischief, with an effect that may be readily imagined. If the attempt had been made to carry into effect the recommendation of the Parliamentary Committee of 1844, it would hardly have been recorded in 1853 that "actively engaged as are its inhabitants in productive industry—raising already a large excess of food, with a ready market close at hand for all their surplus produce—with no rivalry between the races but the pursuit of peaceful industry—with an improving revenue and rapidly increasing trade, it may be doubted whether any portion of Her Majesty's subjects enjoy in more abundant measure the blessings of peace and plenty, or have before them a more certain prospect of a prosperous career." Fortunately no attempt has ever been made to establish without purchase the title of the Crown to the waste lands of N.Z. Cognisant of the extent to which the credit of the nation had been pledged to the natives, and not unmindful of the respect due to the obligations contracted by the Crown of England, the local Government have uniformly acted on the instructions originally addressed to its first Governor, and have always been able to obtain on reasonable terms, by fair and equal contract with the natives, such waste lands as have been required for the occupation of the settlers resorting to the country. And the Sovereign and Her Majesty's representatives in N.Z. have continued to enjoy the respect and confidence of the native race.

X. *The Rebellion of Honi Heke*.—The interregnum of Mr. Shortland, the Colonial Secretary, who administered the government for a year and a-half after Captain Hobson's death, was no bed of roses; and in the midst of it (June 1843) occurred the Massacre of the Wairau. The passions of the two races, roused by this frightful event and by the measures which occasioned it, had lost little of their exasperation when Captain FitzRoy in the latter end of 1843 assumed the reins of government. The disaffected natives, indeed, had evidently gained encouragement for

further outbreak from the easy victory of their brethren over an equal number of armed white men. The celebrated Honi Heki had about this time commenced his crusade against the British flag, which certain foreigners, hostile to English supremacy, and certain English scoundrels adverse to the establishment of law and order, persuaded him to consider as the symbol of the slavery and degradation of his countrymen. Governor FitzRoy had stepped into a hornet's nest. No attempt at creating fortified posts had been made, such as with any nation but Englishmen would have been the first care after gaining possession of an acre of land amongst a people of such doubtful friendship. The Governor had no power to draw on the Home treasury. There was an empty exchequer in the colony, with unpaid public servants, and a standing army of some 150 soldiers. This poverty in money, troops, and other resources requisite for vigorous retaliatory measures, compelled him to temporise with the rebels when wholesome correction was most necessary. In March 1845 a seasonable reinforcement, consisting of 250 soldiers, arrived at Auckland; and, pressed on all hands by bellicose advisers, the Governor was induced to send against Heki a force which, utterly destitute of equipment for the siege of a strong stockade, was unsuccessful. The following month a second expedition, with augmented numbers, and a poor supply of munitions of war, once more beleaguered the rebel chief. Attack by assault failed; but, after a short blockade, the garrison evacuated the pah, which was entered and destroyed,—an advantage gained at a sadly disproportionate expense of life on the British side. Heki, severely wounded, was quieted for a time, and his adherents dispersed. His fierce old ally, Kawiti, retired to a distant post, where he occupied himself in fortifying the most formidable pah ever erected in N.Z. The Governor's anxious and unrelenting efforts, with insufficient means to control and amalgamate the discordant elements with which he found himself surrounded, were but partially successful; and certain of the measures which he was impelled by dire necessity to adopt meeting with the disapproval of the Home Government, he was recalled; and in November 1845 was succeeded by Captain Grey, late of the 83rd Regiment. Happier had it been perhaps for FitzRoy's comfort if, preferring ease to an honourable but "a laborious, responsible and ill-remunerated office in a very distant colony," he had declined the post, with its adjuncts of a few hundreds a-year salary, an empty Home treasury, and a company of infantry to enforce the law amongst a mixed and hitherto lawless white population, and 30,000 or 40,000 proud, suspicious, sanguinary, and well-armed natives. Colonel Mundy's spirited narrative of these first Maori wars is mainly followed in the ensuing narrative:—An apt instrument in the hands of the enemies of order and the British Government was found in Honi Heki. This turbulent warrior was not a chief by descent, and had never been liked or

much respected by the majority of the real chiefs. He lived as a boy in the capacity of servant at the Church of England missionary station at Pahia. Accompanying Marsden to N.S.W. and residing in his service at Parramatta, he was continually found absent from his duties and was as constantly discovered in the barrack-yard looking on at the drill. His missionary education so far profited him that he had read as well as heard of battles, and had longed "to follow to the field some warlike lord,"—but to be himself that lord. The exterminator E'Hongi gave him his first lessons in war and his daughter in marriage. At length his longings took the peculiar form of cutting down the British flag-staff which designing persons had taught him to regard as the symbol of Maori subjugation and slavery. This desire seems to have amounted to a kind of monomania. Heki commenced operations by depredations on the white settlers—carrying off horses, cattle, boats, &c.; and in July 1844, on a trivial plea of having been insulted by a native woman married to an Englishman of Kororarika, he made his appearance at that settlement with a strong armed party of wild young men, who remained there for two days bullying and plundering the men and brutally insulting the women. After performing prayers with arms in their hands, they proceeded in a body to the signal-hill and cut down the flag-staff with great ceremony. The police magistrate on this occasion dissuaded the male inhabitants from armed resistance to this savage inroad, although there were it is said a hundred men ready and willing to turn out under his orders. It was evidently Heki's main object to excite the whites to hostilities, in order to afford him and his associates some show of pretext for the commission of every horror whereof a savage is capable. This first crusade against the standard of England by Heki was in fact a deliberate declaration of war; for it was undertaken by previous and open arrangement, and in spite of the remonstrances of the missionaries, the Protector of Aborigines, and the Police Magistrate. "Is Te Raupehaha to have all the honour of killing the Pakihas?" exclaimed the pseudo-Christian chief, adverting to the massacre of the Wairau which occurred some ten months before—a tolerably plain avowal of his intentions and furnishing a motive for the evidently premeditated insults inflicted on the settlers of Kororarika. The flag-staff of Russell, on which the Government chose to hoist the red cross of England, was situated on the top of a high and rugged hill surrounded by tangled ravines half a-mile from the town; and was in fact so placed as a signal-mast for telegraphing shipping outside the bay. The proper place for the standard would have been within the town stockade; and on the first occupation of a country where welcome was so doubtful and partial obstruction absolutely certain, no settlement ought to have been left without such a place of refuge for the inhabitants in case of need, and where a few soldiers might have defied any Maori

attempt. A few such temporary strongholds with some vigilant ships of war would have given a sense of security which was in fact far from being enjoyed at this time by the European settlers. At the time of the first fall of the flag at Kororarika the military force at Auckland, the new seat of Government, amounted to about 180 soldiers of all ranks belonging to the 80th and 96th regiments. Governor FitzRoy on hearing of Heki's outrages immediately detached a small party—one officer and thirty men—to the scene of riot, and wrote a pressing requisition for a strong reinforcement to the Governor of N.S.W., who so promptly acted on it that on the 14th of the following month a detachment of 150 men of the 99th regiment, with two light guns, field equipage, stores and provisions, were disembarked at Kororarika and encamped there. The Governor himself soon afterwards arrived at the Bay of Islands in Her Majesty's ship *Hazard* and instantly caused to be put on board this ship and some other vessels a party of 210 soldiers, with which force, together with a body of armed seamen, he proposed to follow Heki into his fastnesses on the opposite shore of the bay and to punish him for his misdeeds. The expedition accordingly arrived off the Kiri-Kiri River, where the Governor received a message from a number of chiefs, many of them being of Heki's tribe, praying that the troops might not be landed in their district, and offering to make atonement, and to be responsible for the future good behaviour of the rebel. The force therefore returned to Kororarika, and the reinforcement from N.S.W. was in the following September sent back to Sydney pursuant to the desire of Governor Gipps. This sudden demonstration of force, its encampment at Kororarika, and its rapid descent on the enemy's coast, had a good effect upon the wiser and less warlike native leaders, whose consequent mediation between the Governor and Heki prevented a collision which, considering the weakness of the English force, and the determined character of the natives—not then fully appreciated,—with the strong and difficult country through which the invasion was to be carried might have proved disastrous for the British. Prior to sending back the troops to N.S.W. the Governor called a convocation of the neighbouring chiefs, and met them at Waimate, the church missionary settlement in the bay. The conference between the Governor and his officials, civil and military, the missionary clergy, the Maori leaders and their adherents, must have been a singular and interesting spectacle. His Excellency addressed the assembly in a speech full of indignation. He reminded them of the benefits wrought among them by the missionaries, and explained to them that the Queen of England assumed the government of their islands for their own good, and to protect them from aggression by other nations; that the flag was the sacred symbol of that protection. He laboured, in short, to prove that, in cutting down the flag-staff they were felling the

tree of liberty rather than the emblem of slavery, as it suited Heki's plans to consider it. His Excellency closed his speech by a demand for a number of fire-arms to be given up by the assembled natives as an atonement of Heki's misconduct. Thereupon several chiefs sprung up, and, bringing about twenty guns, laid them at the Governor's feet. These he accepted in acknowledgment of Heki's errors, and immediately restored them to the Maoris. In return, His Excellency had to listen, through his interpreter, to some very long speeches (not devoid of wild eloquence and even of good feeling,) from the native chiefs, among whom the passion for oratory is very strong. No fewer than twenty-four men of note got upon their legs on this occasion. Moses Tawhai, a brave warrior, and staunch ally of the British afterwards, said—"Welcome Governor! your kindness is great. My heart has been roasted and cooked on account of this circumstance of Heki's. Don't imagine that evil will entirely cease. It will not. You must expect more troubles from us; but when they come settle them in this way and not with guns and soldiers. Governor, I give you my first welcome fully acknowledging you as Governor of this country." Hihiatoto then sprang up and said, "I am the man who cut the staff down. Do not look after that man, Heki. Take me as payment. Who is Heki?—who is Heki? Take me!" The self-sacrifice does not appear to have been accepted. Before leaving Waimate His Excellency received the following characteristic letter from Heki:—"Friend Governor,—This is my speech to you. My disobedience and my rudeness is no new thing. I inherit it from my parents, from my ancestors. Do not imagine that it is a new feature in my character. But I am thinking of leaving off my rude conduct towards the Europeans. Now I say that I will prepare a new pole inland at Waimate, and I will erect it in its proper place at Kororarika in order to put an end to our present quarrel. Let your soldiers remain beyond sea and at Auckland. Do not send them here. The pole that was cut down belonged to me. I made it for the Maori flag and it was never paid for by the English.—From your friend, (signed) Honi Heki Pokai." The hollow truce effected by this conference was of short duration. Enemies of England and order were active in perverting the minds of the Maoris by every means—among which the practice of translating according to their views and garbling passages from the local and English newspapers was very effective. In January 1845 accordingly, Hicky (as the soldiers called him) made another gathering of the wild young men at his beck for any deed of mischief, and paid a nocturnal visit to the old object of his antipathy the flag-staff which had been duly re-erected and was guarded by friendly natives. These recreant guardians being connected with Heki's tribe, and unwilling as they afterwards said to shed blood for a bit of wood, made but a faint resistance. The axe was once more laid to the

root of the staff; the red cross kissed the dust; and the rebel chief sent his compliments to the resident magistrate to say that he would return in a couple of months or so to burn the Government buildings and eject the Government officers from the settlement. The Governor, now convinced that the disaffected party had gained strength and were bent on coming into actual collision with the authorities, again applied to N.S.W. for an accession of force. Owing to the difficulty of obtaining tonnage for its transport, and stress of weather, the force did not leave Sydney until 11th March, the very day on which the third visitation of Heki to the doomed settlement of Kororarika occurred, when it was effectually surprised, taken, sacked and burnt! In the previous month H.M.S. *Hazard* had conveyed to that place from Auckland a detachment of fifty men of the 96th Regiment with two subaltern officers—all that could be spared from the weak garrison of the capital; and they carried with them the materials for a musket-proof block-house to protect the already twice dishonoured flagstaff. "The settlers," relates Captain FitzRoy, "were armed and drilled, although very reluctantly on their part. A strong stockade was erected as a place of safety for the women and children, and some light guns were mounted. No anxiety as to the result of any attack was entertained, but on the contrary, there was rather over-confidence and far too low an opinion of the native enterprise and valour." During the first days of March armed parties of natives collected in the neighbourhood of Russell carrying off horses and destroying property. An armed boat followed the plunderers and was fired upon by them. This was the first shot of the war. It was returned from the boat carronade. Another foray was attempted close to the village, but was prevented by a few shots from a party from the *Hazard*. These preliminaries prepared the English, or ought to have prepared them, for further troubles; but no one expected, no Englishman had a right to expect, the disastrous and disgraceful results of 11th March 1845. On the night of 10th March, Heki and his veteran associate in arms, Kawiti, with a force variously computed at from 1200 to 500 men (the former chief afterwards declared that not more than 200 were in the attack, although 1000 joined in the sacking,) landed their respective parties in the two coves of Onoroa and Matavia. The former disposed his men in close ambush among the ferny ravines in rear of the Signal Hill; and so favourable is the ground for such an operation that the chief and his foremost men lay undiscovered and unsuspected within a few yards of the block-house, biding their time with all the patience and motionless silence of the savage. So well matured were their plans to make the surprise complete, that they were not tempted to deviate from them by killing or capturing the junior of the two officers, who late that night passed close to one of their bands little thinking of the fierce eyes that were

glaring on him through the underwood skirting his path. Kawiti placed his followers in concealment close to the opposite flank of the settlement. Although Heki in accordance with Maori custom had given the authorities of Kororarika a blustering promise of attack, and various preparations to meet it had been made on the night in question, no person, civil, naval or military, dreamed of the cordon of lurking savages by which they were compassed round. Instead of lynx-eyed vigilance, careless carousing was the order of the day in many of the houses of the town. The soldiers were perfectly on the alert—the little detachment disposed in the upper block-house and the barrack sleeping with their loaded arms by their sides, and an armed body of seamen and marines under the command of the acting commander of the *Hazard* being stationed on shore for the night. The lower block-house was occupied by some twenty of the towns-folk, with three small guns mounted on a platform in front of it. The weather favoured the assailants, for the morning of 11th March broke in clouds and haze. At the first gleam of day the young ensign in charge of the block-house started with a few men, with more zeal than prudence, to finish a breast-work on a height looking into Onoroa Bay, where a picquet had been posted during the day at a distance and separated by rugged ground from his post. This working party carried with them their entrenching tools and arms. Fifteen men were left under a corporal in the signal block-house. The lieutenant in command had repaired to the barrack to turn out his detachment, and the commander of the *Hazard* had proceeded with an armed party to complete a little field work for a gun on the spur of a hill commanding the road to Matavia Bay. The ensign had just broken ground when several shots from the side of Matavia attracted his notice, and he immediately fell back towards the block-house. Instead of re-entering it he remained on a brow of the declivity overlooking the town about 200 yards distant from the flagstaff. The same shots which had drawn the attention of the officer towards Matavia Bay, shots probably agreed upon as a signal of readiness for co-operation from Kawiti to Heki, attracted also the notice of the men at the upper or flagstaff block-house. Under the impression that his officer had been attacked, the corporal got his men under arms, and with as little forethought as his superior had shown, advanced towards the brow of the hill, leaving only three or four men at the post. But finding that the firing was from the further side of the town, he was in the act of returning to his little fortress when suddenly and as if from the bowels of the earth a strong body of well-armed Maoris sprung with loud yells out of the gullies on its flanks and rear, one party of them rushing into the block-house and instantly destroying its few defenders, another opening on the soldiers a heavy fire which as the corporal reported "repelled them back." Firing and retiring, he retreated on the officer's

party, who re-forming the whole of his men attempted to retake the lost block-house. In this he was frustrated by the fire of a cloud of native sharpshooters spread unseen among the brushwood, as well as from the captors of the post, when finding that these were striving to throw a force between him and the lower block-house, his only rallying point, he retreated on and took possession and command of it. And lucky it was he did so, for there were only a few civilians within it, and it was Heki himself with a chosen body that was about to attempt to take it by a rush. Indeed he made more than one effort to do so after it was thus reinforced. Meanwhile the Lieutenant of the 96th and the Naval Commander had barely reached their posts when the latter was attacked by about 200 men, who taking advantage of the darkness, their knowledge of the ground, and the cover afforded by the brushwood and flax tussocks, out-flanking and outnumbering the English, gradually drove them, fighting hand to hand, back upon the town, killing and wounding several, but suffering severely themselves. Near an angle of the churchyard-fence was the spot where the gallant Captain Robertson cut down a stalwart chief, and received five desperate wounds while dealing sturdy blows right and left among the swarthy foes by whom he was encompassed. Advancing at double pace from the barrack across the flat to the succour of the marine force, Lieutenant Barclay with his detachment was so briskly attacked from the front and from his left flank as to bring him to a check, and finally to compel him to retire, with the naval party, whose ammunition had failed them, through the town and along the beach to the stockaded house, where he left a few men, and thence to the lower block-house into which he threw his people just as its beleaguers, becoming more audacious, had pressed close up to its walls. Indeed the junior officer had to call out from the top of the work to his friends on the gun-platform below, that some of the savages had crawled through the brushwood to within fifteen paces of the guns. Meanwhile a considerable reinforcement of Maoris came pouring over the hills, a large party rushing down a gully seized the barracks of which, always indefensible and now deserted, they took possession. A gun on the platform opened on the barrack to dislodge them, while the two others blazed away among the thickets in front filled with skirmishing natives; and their missiles were distributed so indiscriminately as to endanger friend and foe equally. The gallant Philpotts, an officer of the *Hazard*, who fell afterwards at Ohaiowai, proposed to "rush the hills" if supported by the soldiers and drive off these daring savages; and although this measure was not acceded to by the lieutenant in command a few soldiers and sailors dashed out without orders, and cleared the front of the block-house. An attempt to retake the upper block-house was also proposed by a civilian, but his proposal was not seconded. Nor could it possibly have

succeeded, the fern being filled with outlying savages close upon the work and ready to cross their fire with their friends within it. It was now mid-day. The women and children had been removed from the crowded rooms and cellars of the stockade to the shipping; and this fortunate migration had barely been completed when, to put a climax to the confusion, the magazine within this building exploded, wounding several persons and entirely destroying the place, the last refuge of the non-combatants. In consequence of this mishap, whereby the greater part of the spare ammunition was lost, a council of war was held on board the *Hazard*, and the resolution to evacuate and abandon at sundown the settlement of Kororarika was passed and adopted. Accordingly during a truce which had been demanded by the chiefs to carry off their killed and wounded, the military and civilians were embarked on board H.M.S. *Hazard*, the United States corvette *St. Louis* (which was present during the conflict but remained neutral) the whale-ship *Matilda*, and the *Dolphin* schooner. The party of military in the block-house were the last to embark. During the embarkation the natives surrounded the heights commanding the town but without making any movement. A random shot was occasionally fired by them. During the evening a few of the townspeople who were most popular with the natives were employed in bringing off portions of their property. Astonished at their own success the Maoris performed the usual rites over the dead, danced war-dances, indulged in long-winded koriros (or boasting speeches) over their pipes, and then came down from the hills in a body, and plundered the stores and dwelling-houses ceded to them. On the afternoon of the following day they burnt the town to the ground; "and a settlement of very early days, but of great iniquity," reported Colonel Hulme, "is now a mass of ruins." The 96th's loss was four men killed and five wounded. The *Hazard* lost six men killed and eight wounded; and Captain Robertson's hurts were so severe that his life was for some time despaired of. The signal man, Tupper, was severely wounded while gallantly fighting for his flag; and two old discharged soldiers distinguished themselves in working the guns. The loss of the natives was put down at about eighty killed and wounded, but they acknowledged to no such amount. It is a matter of surprise that the casualties were not more numerous, considering that the affair lasted some eight hours, and that a vast quantity of ammunition on both sides was fired away. The officers lost the greater part of their baggage and about £40 of public money; and the soldiers the whole of their great-coats and kits, barrack-bedding and utensils. On the 13th the shipping got under weigh from the Cove on its way to Auckland, and Kororarika ceased to exist as a British settlement. Two Christian Bishops (Dr. Selwyn and M. Pompalier, head of the Jesuit mission) were present at this

unblessed conflict. The former, who had arrived in his yacht, employed himself with the greatest assiduity in assisting the wounded and helpless in embarking. "Was it not a terrible scene?" the good prelate was asked by some one striving to elicit his opinion of the affair. "It was a painful, a very painful, sight!" was the grave reply. He added that the plundering was conducted with the utmost moderation, the savages pillaging from one door of a house whilst the owners were removing goods by the other. Both Bishops did their duty. There were not wanting those who read in the destruction of Kororarika a judgment on its crimes. On the arrival of the ships in Auckland great was the tumult and panic, for Honi had boasted that he would attack the capital next. The late inhabitants of Kororarika, who had lost all their property, were loud in their reproaches against the military and the Government officials, making such gross imputations against the two young officers as compelled the Lieutenant-Colonel commanding in N.Z. to convene a court-martial for the investigation of the charges. The Lieutenant was "most fully and most honourably acquitted" by the court. The Ensign was arraigned "for that he did heedlessly and carelessly guard the block-house committed to his charge, and evacuate the same without sufficient cause and without orders from his superior officer." He was found guilty, with the exception of the word "evacuating," and sentenced to be severely reprimanded. His were merely the errors of inexperience. The destitute refugees were so hospitably received at Auckland that, as Captain FitzRoy writes, "all the most necessitous were placed in comparative comfort before they had been two days in the town." A sentence of outlawry was passed against Heki and his ally Kawiti; and the Governor was assailed by writers in the papers, burning for vengeance and blind to all risk from its hasty indulgence, who urged him to fit out a retributive expedition against the rebel chiefs. Sorely against his own judgment and expressed opinion, he therefore gave directions for the ill-fated expedition under Lieut.-Colonel Hulme. A rumour was rife in Auckland that Heki, elated with his success, intended to attack the capital with 2000 men at the next full moon. Fortunately however a considerable accession of force reached that station towards the end of March in H.M.S. *North Star*, which, together with a small transport, brought six officers and 200 men of the 58th Regiment to restore confidence to the desponding colonists, many of whom were leaving N.Z. for more tranquil quarters. Civil warfare moreover operated pretty strenuously to divert Heki's attention from his object; for the brave and loyal chief of Hokianga, Tomati Waka, with his brother, raised his tribe, and true to his promise at the Waimate convention attacked the conqueror of Kororarika and enemy of the British flag on his own territory. Finding himself however unable to cope with superior numbers, Waka

urged the Governor to hasten to his assistance; and accordingly his Excellency, conceiving that the case admitted of no delay, despatched all the force he could muster to the Bay of Islands, with discretionary orders to its leaders, Lieut.-Colonel Hulme and Captain Sir E. Home, to attack Heki in conjunction with Waka, whenever fit occasion might occur.

XI. *The Second Expedition against Heki*.—The expedition embarking at Auckland reached Kororarika on 28th April, and found the *North Star* in the bay. The gallant captain and colonel, in order to re-establish the authority of the Queen at that place, landed immediately with a guard of honour, and once more with every ceremony hoisted the British flag. The first hostile movement was undertaken against a disaffected chief named Pomare, whose pah was situated a few miles up the harbour. His garrison consisting of not more than sixty armed men, no resistance was made by them. As for the chief himself, he was outdone in craft by the military commander, who getting possession of his person sent him on board the *North Star* as a prisoner—acting thus under superior orders. His myrmidons escaped into the bush. As was expected, much of the property plundered from Kororarika was found in the stockade, which was fired by the troops and destroyed. The expedition anchored off the missionary station of Pahia, across the bay, where Tomati Waka and suite came on board and held a conference with the British commanders, urging instant action against Heki, whose force he rated at 1200 men. This sagacious and loyal chief indicated the best route for the march, and promised to co-operate with 800 of his tribe. H.M.S. *Hazard* having meanwhile joined the expedition, at daylight on the 3rd of May the force, consisting of the small-armed seamen, the marines and the military, in all about 400 men, disembarked at a point about thirty miles distant from Waka's pah, which they hoped to reach in two days, carrying five days' biscuit and two days' cooked meat. There was no means of transport for spare ammunition, camp equipage, cooking utensils, or the spirit ration. So dreadful was the weather and the state of the roads that the colonel was driven two miles out of his road to seek shelter for his men in the church and missionary buildings on the Kiri Kiri River, where they were rain-bound for two days. Nearly the whole of the extra ammunition which the men were compelled to carry in their haversacks was saturated with wet. On the 5th they reached Waka's pah, once more well drenched, and found but wretched shelter there. The following morning the colonel as he reported "had a koriro with Waka; and when he found that I intended to assault Heki's pah, and force an entrance by pulling down the palisades, he smiled, and said we were all madmen, and that every man would be sacrificed in the attempt; and to impress his opinions more forcibly he declared that we could not easily take his pah, which was not

half so strong as Heki's." At noon the colonel from the top of a hill about a mile distant reconnoitred Heki's position, and became aware of its great strength. White persons who had been there informed him, "that it had three rows of palisades all round it; that there was a deep ditch inside; that large stones had been piled up against the inner palisades; and that traverses had been cut from side to side, and deep holes dug, in which the rebels would shelter themselves from our fire and destroy the troops as they advanced. From what I had seen and heard, I returned to camp quite convinced that it was impracticable to take Heki's pah without first breaching it." He had no artillery, but he possessed a few rockets, the effect of which he was resolved to try; and feeling "that the chances of war are many," the gallant officer placed his force in position near that of the enemy, formed in three parties of assault and a reserve, prepared to seize an opportunity for storming it should accident offer one. On the morning of the 8th May, the English force, accompanied by about 300 of Waka's tribe, marched from that chief's stockade towards Heki's camp—the friendly natives wearing a white head-band to distinguish them from the foe. The reserve halted in rear of a ridge about 300 paces from the rebel pah; while the three assaulting parties—one composed of armed seamen, another of the 58th Light Company, and the third of detachments of the marines and 96th Regiment—advanced and occupied under a heavy fire the positions previously arranged, within two hundred yards of the work, driving some natives from a small breast-work. "And now," wrote the colonel in his despatch, "more closely examining Heki's pah, I was convinced that it was impossible to take it by assault, until it was first breached, without a great sacrifice of life and with uncertain success, for the pah had been unusually strengthened, the flax leaf having been forced into the interstices of the outer palisades to turn the musket balls. The rocket party, under command of Lieutenant Egerton, of H.M.S. *North Star*, took up a position, and fired several rockets, but in consequence of Heki having covered the roofs of the huts with flax leaf, they did not set them on fire. A few of the rebels left the pah on the first rockets exploding, but they afterwards returned to it—the affair of Kororarika having accustomed Heki and his main body to the operation of shells." Meanwhile the besieged were not idle, nor did they show themselves ignorant of that very effective method of protracting defence—the sortie; for a strong body under Kawiti, stealing through the bush, were in the act of falling upon the unprotected flank of the advanced posts—when the ambush was detected by the sharp and practised eye of a friendly native. Warned of the impending danger these parties, directing a heavy fire upon the spot, made a spirited charge, driving the enemy in confusion before them, and killing many at close quarters—the British bayonet did its work

in its usual style when fairly brought to bear on its object. Soon afterwards some signalling by means of flags took place between Heki within the fortress and Kawiti without. The result was a combined attack by these leaders on the advanced position. The reserve opened a smart though distant fire, from which they recoiled; yet many of the boldest reached the entrenchment previously taken and were there killed. Kawiti was again repulsed by the bayonet with some loss. Yet this was not the last effort of the hoary warrior, who was much more liberal of his person than his younger and stronger associate—a tall and athletic man, while Kawiti was small and decrepit—for when the advanced posts were ordered to retire on the reserve and were bringing off their wounded, unsupported by Heki he made a third and fierce attack upon the British, which was checked and finally repulsed by the skirmishers. The British loss was fourteen soldiers, seamen and marines, killed; two officers, four sergeants, thirty-two soldiers, seamen and marines, and one private servant, wounded. The loss of the rebels could not be correctly ascertained. Several chiefs were slain. Kawiti was rendered childless, two of his sons being killed. Besides which several near relatives, and nearly the whole of his tribe that were present, fell in the skirmishes. Having collected the wounded the English leader commenced a retrograde movement, and reached on the evening of the 8th Waka's stockade, where he was detained twenty-four hours by heavy rain; but on the 10th he fell back to the settlement at Kiri Kiri, the effective men carrying the litters with their wounded comrades, natives in sufficient numbers for that purpose not being procurable. In this manner half the force was employed from eleven a.m. until nine at night; but all, seamen and soldiers, performed this unusual duty with a cheerfulness that can never be surpassed. The distance was not less than eighteen miles. Rumours having reached the English camp that Heki had disappeared from his pah, the Colonel thought it probable that his aim was to harass the line of retreat, passing as it did through a hilly country covered with fern and brushwood. He therefore continued his march to Tariai's river, where the *Hazard* lay at anchor, and before night the troops were on board of that ship. On the 12th they were transhipped to the hired vessels and returned to Pahiā, where the Colonel awaited further orders from the Governor. During the absence of the land expedition the naval Commander amused himself by destroying some half-dozen small villages on the coast belonging to Heki's tribe, in breaking up their war-canoes, and retrieving several boats the property of Englishmen. The wounded men were sent to Auckland in one of the men-of-war. Thus ended the first series of operations undertaken against Honi Heki in his fortress of Okaehau. The unsuccessful issue of this expedition is attributable to the want of battering

artillery. The troops suffered under a multitude of minor difficulties, most of them rendered unavoidable by the public indigence ; among which were the absence of carriages or beasts of burthen, of camp equipment, and of hospital, commissariat, and store departments. The weather was most inclement. Moreover, by some means or other, the enemy were well informed of every movement and intended movement of the British. A few days after the affair of Okaehau Archdeacon Williams had an interview with Heki—once his mission servant, now a great rebel chieftain, successful in two battles in both attack and defence against English disciplined forces ; and the missionary proposed terms of peace to him. Certain places were to be vacated by the natives and ceded to the English ; horses, boats, and other property belonging to Europeans to be restored ; the flag-staff to be paid for, “staff for staff ;” the rebel leader himself to retire to Wangaroa for two years ; after which, if he remained quiet, the Governor would receive him. On the subject of this proposal Honi addressed a letter to the Governor, of which the following are characteristic passages:—“May 21st 1845. Friend the Governor: I have no opinion to offer in this affair, because a death's door has been opened. Where is the correctness of the protection offered in the Treaty? Where is the correctness of the good-will of England? Is it in her great guns? Is it in her Congreve rockets? Is the good-will of England shown in the curses of Englishmen and in their adulteries? Is it shown in their calling us slaves? or is it shown in their regard for our sacred places? The Europeans taunt us. They say, ‘Look at Port Jackson, look at China, and all the islands ; they are but a precedent for this country. That flag of England which takes your country is the commencement.’ After this the French, and after them the Americans, told us the same. Well, I assented to these speeches, and in the fifth year (of these speeches) we interfered with the flag-staff for the first time. We cut it down and it fell. It was re-erected ; and then we said, ‘All this we have heard is true, because they persist in having the flag-staff up. And we said, We will die for our country which God has given us.’ If you demand our land where are we to go to? To Port Jackson? to England? If you will consider about giving us a vessel it will be very good. Many people—(here he enumerates tribes)—took a part in the plunder of Kororarika. There were but 200 at the fight, but there were 1000 at the plundering of the town. Waka's fighting is nothing at all. He is coaxing you, his friend, for property, that you may say he is faithful. I shall not act so. He did not consider that some of his people were at the plunder of the town. It was through me alone that the missionaries and other Europeans were not molested. Were anything to happen to me all would be confusion. The natives would not consider them harmless Europeans, but would kill in all directions. It is I alone who

restrain them. If you say we are to fight, I am quite agreeable ; if you say you will make peace with your enemy, I am equally agreeable. I now say to you, leave Waka and myself to fight. We are both Maoris. You turn and fight with your own colour. It was Waka who called the soldiers to Okaehau, and therefore they were killed ; that is all. Peace must be determined by you the Governor.—From me, JOHN WILLIAM POKAI (HEKI).” A few days after writing the above letter Heki in making an attack upon the pah of his old foe Waka, who nothing daunted by the retreat of the British held his ground, received a bad wound from a musket shot in the thigh, from the effects of which he never entirely recovered, and which partly caused his death in the year 1850. Heki was more of a diplomatist than a *sabreur*—not possessing much personal courage. His person and features were fine, with a small cunning eye and a massive obstinate chin.

XII. *Third Expedition against Heki*.—The expedition under Colonel Hulme—a most intrepid and experienced soldier—although in the main unsuccessful, caused the dispersion of the rebels for a time at least as well as the loss of some of their bravest men. But scarcely had the ships and troops returned to Auckland when information was received that Heki was again collecting men, and was actively engaged in building a new pah which would be stronger than any yet constructed in N.Z. Reinforcements continued to arrive from Sydney where Sir George Gipps and the Commander of the Forces were making every exertion in their power to assist the local government of N.Z. It was of the utmost importance to prevent the rebels from making head, and collecting the disaffected from other parts of the island ; therefore without delay another expedition was prepared on a larger scale. Lieut.-General Sir M. O'Connell sent to N.Z. in the course of April and May in augmentation of the former force a detachment of 530 men of all ranks of the 58th regiment under Major Bridge, followed by Colonel Despard of the 99th regiment, the flank companies of the 99th regiment, and a company of the 96th ; also Major Marlow of the Royal Engineers, and some light guns and ordnance stores from Sydney and Hobart Town. The gallant fellows engaged in the first expedition expected to carry all before them, and failed. The second expedition, prepared with greater foresight and with the experience afforded by past disaster, was more sanguine, and had better cause to be so ; yet the attempt to storm Heki's new stronghold was frustrated with a deplorable loss of life on the British side. Colonel Despard having heard on the 13th June from an Englishman who had seen Heki that his wound was very severe, and that the ball had only been cut out the day before, resolved to hasten his movements. The vessels accordingly got under weigh from Kororarika at daybreak on the 16th, crossed the Bay of Islands quickly, and the troops being landed reached the Station at Waimate the

following morning early. By a return dated 15th June the force (not including the armed seamen and marines) consisted in round numbers of twenty-four officers and 510 men of all ranks of the 58th, 96th and 99th regiments; one officer of engineers, one of artillery, two of the commissariat; volunteers from the Auckland Militia for the service of the Royal Artillery and Engineers, two officers and seventy-five men. The ordnance was two 12-lb. howitzers and two six-pounders. Nearly the same difficulties which harassed the former expedition beset the present one—rainy weather and almost impassable roads; paucity of means of transport, and consequent short supply of military and commissariat stores; a difficult country, covered in some parts with brushwood seven or eight feet high, with only a footpath traversing it, and intersected with high-banked and swampy streams; guns without tumbrils or limbers, having ship carriages with wheels fifteen inches high, little suited to N.Z. mud, famous for depth and tenacity. Such were a few of the impediments in the way of the troops on the road to Waimate. Detained by scarcity of provisions and bad weather until 23rd June, the force was at an early hour put in motion towards Heki's pah of Ohaiowai, distant six miles; and so great were the difficulties on the road that ten hours were consumed in performing that short distance. Arriving within a mile of the pah firing was heard and seen, and the advanced guard pushing on was met by Tomati Waka, who had just driven in a picquet of the enemy. The day being by this time far spent, the commandant employed what remained of it in encamping his force about 350 yards from the stockade, covered by an eminence. From Waka's position he obtained a bird's-eye view of the pah. It was situated in a hollow plain, in form of a parallelogram, about 150 to 200 yards long by 100 broad each face. On two angles there were projecting outworks, but the others had none. There was an outer barricade of timber about ten feet high, and each upright piece from six to eight inches in thickness, and fixed in the ground close to each other. On the outside of this barricade a quantity of native flax was tied, so as to make it more ball proof. Within this barricade there was a ditch from four to five feet deep and about the same broad. Within the ditch there was a second barricade, similar to the outer one; and the whole place was divided into three parts by two other barricades crossing it, of similar height and strength to the outer one. During the night of Monday, a battery of four guns was erected for the purpose of breaching the face opposite where the troops were encamped, which opened at 7 o'clock a.m. on Tuesday, but not with the effect anticipated, as the shot frequently passed between the timbers, without displacing any of them. After firing a short time it was discontinued, and during the night the battery was removed to a better position not more than 250 yards distant. Still little

impression was made, although one gun was taken to the top of the before-mentioned hill, and fired from thence, where it commanded the whole place, and was within musket-shot. The shells plumed right into the midst of the stockade, the six-pounders whistled right through its wooden walls from one side to the other, yet the besieged made no sign. They slipped into their burrows underground when a match was laid to a touch-hole, and kept up a brisk fusillade from their dangerous and well-contrived loopholes *à fleur de terre*. After some time the small brass guns tumbled off their platforms into the soft mud. A battery at closer quarters was next tried, but with no better success, for the breastwork being shaken down, it was soon silenced by musketry, and the guns were withdrawn after the enemy had made an unsuccessful attempt to take them by a rush. On 30th June, with infinite labour and difficulty, a thirty-two-pound gun was brought up to the camp from the *Hazard*—a distance of fifteen miles, and was posted on the hill occupied by Waka's tribe, where a light gun had already been posted under a guard to enfilade the defences. At 10 a.m. on 1st July the great guns opened fire. Great were the expectations raised by this formidable acquisition; and whilst the attention of every one was occupied in observing its effects, Kawiti once more tried his favourite trick of flank attack. Rushing from a thick wood close in rear of the battery, he drove Tomati's force in confusion from the hill, and would undoubtedly have overpowered the guard and taken the two guns but for a timely and spirited charge of a party of the 58th under Major Bridge, who recovered the position and drove away the enemy with loss. Yet they succeeded in carrying off a small union jack, which shortly afterwards was seen flying below the rebel standard in the stockade. This sortie induced Colonel Despard—not having a heavy shot in his locker, for the thirty-two-pound shot brought from the *Hazard* were by this time expended—to resolve on assaulting the place by escalade. He had been prepared since the morning for this bold measure; and the orders issued for the distribution and direction of the storming parties were so detailed and so suitable to circumstances, and the troops under his command so admirable in every way, that had the breaching battery been tolerably effective no reasonable doubt can be entertained of his perfect success. Soon after three o'clock all was prepared; the English soldiers ready to rush on their savage enemy; the Maoris awaiting in grim silence their onset. Not a shot was fired, not a sound heard; when suddenly a bugle-blast, the signal for advance, rang through the forest. Its notes were instantly drowned by a deafening cheer from the British; and the wild yells of the savages joined in the fierce concert, with the shouts of the officers and the rattling of musketry. In ten minutes all was over. One third of the English force had bitten the dust. The remainder recoiled, baffled from the absolutely impregnable stockade! "The troops,"

says the Colonel commanding, "rushed forward in the most gallant and daring manner, and every endeavour was made to pull the stockade down; they partially succeeded in opening the outward one; but the inward one resisted all their efforts, and being lined with men firing through loopholes on a level with the ground, and from others half way up, our men were falling so fast that notwithstanding the most daring acts of bravery and the greatest perseverance, they were obliged to retire. This could not be effected without additional loss of life in the endeavour to bring off the wounded men, in which they were generally successful. The retreat was covered by a party under Lieut.-Colonel Hulme of the 96th Regiment, and too much praise cannot be given to that officer for the coolness and steadiness with which he conducted it under a very heavy fire." Immediately after this disastrous repulse the troops were withdrawn to their original position, not more than 400 yards from the pah, but sheltered from its fire by an intervening height. Then came the melancholy task of counting the killed and wounded; and the following is the list of the British loss before the stockaded den of the savage at Ohaiowai:—"Killed: Officers 2; sergeants 4; rank and file 29; seamen 2. Wounded: Officers 5; sergeants 3; rank and file 75; seamen 3. Names of officers killed: Lieutenant Philpotts, H.M.S. *Hazard*; Captain Grant, 58th Regiment. Names of officers wounded: 99th Regiment, Brevet Major McPherson severely; Lieutenant Beattie, severely; Lieutenant Johnstone, slightly; Ensign O'Reilly, severely; W. Clarke, interpreter, severely. Since dead of their wounds: Lieutenant Beattie and 4 privates." The Commandant states in his despatch of 2nd July, that "one-fourth of the whole strength of the British soldiers under my command have been either killed or wounded." During the night after the assault the shrieks of a tortured prisoner of the 99th, mingling with the yells and roars of the war-dance within the pah, harrowed the souls of his comrades. This unfortunate man was never again heard of! All the shot and shells being expended and no transport for further supplies being available the Colonel contented himself with holding his position, directing his chief attention to the conveyance of the wounded to Waimate. Meanwhile the rain fell in torrents night and day. The men were harassed by rumours of night attacks. The native allies rendered no assistance; for although they admired the determined hardihood of the attempt upon that impregnable stockade, they condemned, even ridiculed it as the act of mere madmen; and appeared to have lost all interest in the business so soon as the British took the lead and the operations lost that stealthy and desultory character which suited their tactics. Yet they were both alarmed and irritated when they heard that the English force was about to retire; and some of the chiefs at a conference with the senior officer delivered themselves of such violent speeches

on the subject, that the gallant Colonel was compelled to silence them by reminding them that they had been but sleeping partners in this bloody affair, and had therefore no right to bluster about the result. Preparations were accordingly in progress for a general retreat to Waimate, there to await fresh supplies and reinforcements; when early on the morning of the 10th July it was discovered that the enemy had evacuated the pah, leaving behind them four iron guns on ship carriages, which do not appear to have been used during the siege, immense quantities of provisions above and under ground, and many Maori valuables, such as muskets, axes, saws and suchlike—intended probably to engage the cupidity and to prevent the pursuit of their countrymen under Waka. They had no fear—could have none of the redcoat in the bush. They had already seen enough of him to know that it was only on open ground he was their superior, and they took very good care not to meet him there. On taking possession of the pah active search was made for the body of the gallant Grant, Grenadier Captain of the 58th, and after disturbing several Maori graves it was found. On stripping in order to wash the corpse, what was the horror of the officers, his comrades, to find that it had been brutally mutilated! There is some consolation in knowing that no tortures could have been inflicted on his living body, for the death-shot had passed through his gallant heart. The deceased it was said had the strongest presentiment of death. In the old church at Parramatta in N.S.W. is a tablet, raised by his brother officers to commemorate the loss "of a good soldier and a warm friend." Philpotts was shot dead whilst bravely but vainly striving to force his way through the palisades, and was scalped by the barbarian enemy. Beattie, a fine young officer, and much beloved by his brethren in arms, died of his wound; and these two lamented officers of the sister professions, buried with military honours, lie side by side in the mission churchyard at Waimate, "The River of Tears." Major McPherson and Ensign O'Reilly were desperately wounded, the former in the act of heading the storming parties, the latter while hacking the flax-withes that bound the palisades with that mockery of a weapon called the "regulation sword." His right arm being shattered the naked sword fell into the enemy's hands, and two years and a half after the battle Colonel Mundy had the pleasure of returning it to him at Sydney, the blade having been redeemed by old Tomate Waka and delivered to the Colonel at the Bay of Islands. On the 11th and 12th the pah of Ohaiowai was burnt. The strength of the place struck every one with astonishment. From Waimate on the 16th a detachment of 200 men were led by the commandant to attack a strong pah of another rebel chief about six miles distant. The garrison deserted the place, putting a burning bridge over a deep creek between themselves and their pursuers. This stockade was then dismantled by the

troops. The enemy was now dispersed in different directions; the winter was fairly set in; there were not seventy effective soldiers at Auckland. No choice therefore remained but to wait for better weather and reinforcements from Sydney before operations could be recommenced. Colonel Despard, in a letter to the Governor, concluded with the remark that "whatever has been the real cause of our want of success, it is not to be attributed to the officers or men under my command, for a braver or more intrepid body never wore the British uniform"—an indisputable truth, for there were present at this disastrous combat portions of three fine regiments and a picked body of man-o'-war's men, all eager for distinction, working well together, and led by zealous, able and dashing officers. They did all that could be done by human strength and courage, unassisted by those appliances and inventions of war which alone give advantage to the civilised over the savage combatant. That Englishman must be a stoic indeed—that English soldier a stock and a stone—whose heart swells not with a mingled feeling of grief and rage as he contemplates scenes where such reverses as those of Kororarika, Okaiehau and Ohaiowai befel the British arms. Nor did the military feeling derive much unction from the fact that Kororarika was resumed as a British settlement almost immediately after its sacking, and that the two paks of the confederate rebel chiefs were evacuated and destroyed ere the troops were withdrawn. The building of the strongest pak, where the materials for stockading are growing on the spot, and where there are plenty of willing hands and sharp axes, is but the work of a month or so. The burning timbers of Ohaiowai accordingly had scarcely ceased to smoke before the veteran Kawiti, now upwards of seventy years of age, was heard of, thirty or forty miles distant, busily engaged in erecting the most formidable work ever attempted in N.Z.,—namely, the Rua Peka Peka, or the Bat's-nest. There is something of the prophetic spirit in the following passage of a letter addressed to Governor Hobson in June 1840, by Major Bunbury of the 80th Regiment, when employed in carrying out the treaty of Waitangi in the Middle Island:—"The military, I conceive, ought rarely to be required to act or to appear, as the slightest check they might receive would be attended with the most disastrous consequences. It is true that the natives are not prepared to cope with the courage and discipline of British troops, but if the former are ever *unadvisedly pent up in their paks or forts*, despair may supply the place of both." How literally did the writer foresee coming events—now passed beyond recall! When the troops were withdrawn shortly afterwards to Kororarika, some uneasiness was felt on the score of Waimate; but the Maoris respected the place for the sake of the "just men" it contained. They warred, as they said, against the soldiers and the flag, not against the missionary and the settler. The operations appeared to

have impressed the natives with a shrewd notion that, although the British soldier was merely human, the eventual success of the British arms was beyond doubt. Accordingly when, in November 1845, Colonel Despard lay encamped at Kororarika on the site of the ruined settlement, several influential chiefs with their adherents came and pitched their warrees close to his camp. Tomati Waka, Nopera (or noble) Macquarie Taunni and Moses Tawai, with other notables and their tribes, amounting to many hundreds, constituted themselves military neighbours and allies of the British force, and were on excellent terms with the soldiers. Whilst encamped at Kororarika, the commandant employed himself and his men in clearing around the town; he selected posts for fortification, to defend the re-nascent settlement; practised his few artillerists in throwing empty shells which were recovered for more serious work; and waited patiently until a better campaigning season and reinforcements in men and munitions should arrive. In the middle of November Governor Grey reached Kororarika, and gave the rebels a few days to consider the terms of peace dictated by his predecessor. Honi Heki, still smarting under his wound and from an attack on the lungs, sued for peace in tolerably humble terms. "Give me a ship and I will leave the country altogether," he cried. However, he held aloof from his old ally Kawiti, whose overtures to the Governor, couched as follows, evinced no great humility:—"Rua Peka Peka, September 24, 1845.—Sir the Governor,—How do you do? I am willing to make peace—that peace should be made. Many Europeans have been killed, and many natives also have been killed. You have said that I must be the first to begin peace-making. Now this is it. Now I agree to it. This is all I have to say. It ends here. From me, Kawiti." The old warrior was only gaining time to strengthen his new fortress, the Bat's-nest. The Governor however put an end to his evasions and to the negotiations of the missionaries by giving orders for the recommencement of hostilities, and no time was lost in carrying them into effect.

XIII. *Expedition against Kawiti.*—It was towards the middle of December that Colonel Despard, with a force and with means infinitely more commensurate with his undertaking than had hitherto been employed in N.Z. advanced from Kororarika towards the rebel stronghold. His route lay about ten miles by water up the Bay and the Kawa-Kawa River to a point on the latter, where stood the pak of a friendly chief named Puku-Tutu, beyond which some twelve or thirteen miles of difficult country lay between him and the Bat's-nest. One half of the force performed the first portion of the distance in boats supplied by the squadron in harbour, while the Colonel himself with the other half forced his way over a rough hilly country, moving on the flank of the water expedition and thus protecting them from attack from the shore. The chief

Puku-Tutu, alive like most Maoris to the main features of war movements, had volunteered to keep the banks of the river clear of enemies; for Kawiti had been foraging among his potato gardens, and he owed him therefore a grudge—a kind of debt that the Maori is always ready to pay without being dunned. In spite of the active co-operation of the naval people two days were expended in getting to the house of this chief. Here was a fine spot for an encampment; and the force accordingly halted, awaiting guns, stores, provisions, and teams, while the staff reconnoitred the country in their front almost up to the embrasures of the Bat's-nest. On the 22nd the Colonel pushed on with the greater part of his little army, and overcoming a thousand difficulties by dint of extraordinary exertion, was soon enabled to take up a fine position about 1200 yards from his enemy, where the rest of the force quickly joined him, and where they had to halt in their bivouacs under heavy rain on the 24th and 25th. On the 29th December the force before Kawiti's pah was, in rough numbers, as follows:—Staff: 1 Acting Colonel, and 1 Acting Major of Brigade. Artillery and Engineers: 1 Captain and 1 Subaltern. Small-armed seamen: 10 officers and 211 seamen. Royal Marines: 3 officers and 79 men of all ranks. Detachments of the 58th and 99th Regiments: 27 officers and 750 men. East India Company's Artillery: 3 officers and 21 men. Volunteers as pioneers: 1 officer and 48 men. Artillery: Two medium 32-pounders; one 18-pounder; two 12-pounders brass howitzers; two 6-pounders; and four 5½-inch mortars, with shot, shell and rockets. The veteran chief must have felt flattered by the armament assembled for his subjugation. On a commanding eminence 1200 yards from the pah, batteries for shells and rockets were thrown up. The insurgent chief had shown no little shrewdness in the choice of his new position. The general aspect of the country between Puku-Tutu's village and the Rua Peka Peka is that of bare and steep downs, intersected by occasional strips of bush, through several of which the troops had to pioneer their way by axe-work. The pah itself was erected on a rising spur of land, about a quarter of a mile within the margin of an extensive tract of the heaviest timber and brushwood, which screened its fronts and flanks, and stretched away interminably in its rear. About 200 yards of cleared glacis surrounded it. The chief strength of the pah lay in its difficulty of approach and the massiveness of its palisading. The commander of the incursion, warned by foregone events, resolved to proceed against the work by regular trench—a method which, if ever contemplated in the affair of Ohaiowai would probably have failed owing to the excessive wetness of the ground. The first batteries were thrown up on the summit of the hill, from whence the enemy were treated to a specimen of shelling and rocketing which must have surprised them not a little, for the very first bomb cut Kawiti's

flag-staff in two—not a bad shot, and, to a superstitious race, no very encouraging omen. A rocket, also, falling short of the pah, set fire to the fern and underwood, laying bare an extensive patch which was afterwards made available for more advanced works. From the position of the first batteries the prospect was very striking. In front a profound, rocky, and thickly wooded gully presented an impassable barrier to the artillery. Beyond this gully a small plain opened to the sight, and was terminated by the dense bush, within whose verge lay the Bat's-nest, almost entirely masked by high trees. The troops were compelled to turn the head of the ravine by carving their way with the utmost difficulty and labour through a thick wood, absolutely laced together with a network of creepers. The old rebel was as hard to get at as the "Sleeping Beauty" in the fairy tale. The English commander had to cut a path through an almost impervious forest to reach the object of his enterprise. About a quarter of a mile through a kind of cloister of foliage—the result of the pioneers' labours—stands the small plain in the centre of which a temporary stockade was erected by the native ally. Moses Tawhai, just before daylight on 29th December, pushed silently through the bush with some picked men of his tribe, and seizing his forward position, quickly ran up some palisades and breast-work, sufficient to cover his party from musketry and from a sudden rush of the enemy. The Colonel promptly joined him with 200 men and a couple of guns; and the position, 600 yards from the pah, was secured before the enemy were aware of the movement. The pah of Rua Peka Peka was solidly constructed; nor was there less ingenuity displayed in the formation of the trenches and covered ways, between a double row of palisades and within both, from whence the defenders could take deadly aim along the glacis at the exposed stormers. Most of the loopholes for musketry were on the ground level, and across the trenches in which the musketeers stood or crouched were erected regular traverses, with narrow passages for one person, to guard against the *ricochet* of the British shot. The interior was subdivided into many compartments, so that the loss of one of them would not necessarily prevent the next from holding out. How these rude savages had contrived in a few weeks, and without mechanical appliances, to prepare the massive materials of their stockade, and to place them in their proper positions, deeply sunk in the earth and firmly bound together, is inconceivable. To be sure the timber and flax grew on the spot, and the labourers engaged in the work were working and preparing to fight for their native land and for liberty—what more need be said? The pah was studded with subterranean cells, into which the more timid or prudent ran when they heard the whizz of a shell or a rocket, or had reason to expect a salvo from the guns. These war-crypts were about eight or nine feet deep and large enough to contain a party of four men. The

mouth was defended by a bomb-proof roof and breastwork of logs and earth. The resolution of the British leader to approach by regular trench and to effect a practicable breach before storming, leaves no doubt as to what would have been the result had the affair proceeded to the length of a regular assault, which it can scarcely be said to have done. It was apparent that the stout wooden walls were no match for the heavy guns. Many of the huge pickets, eighteen or twenty feet high by two feet thick, were knocked into splinters, and more than one of them was regularly bowled out of the ground by the thirty-two-pounders like a wicket stump. A concentrated fire would therefore have soon made a good breach. The actual capture of the Rua Peka Peka occurred somewhat fortuitously on Sunday 11th January 1846. The "Mihonari" or Christian portion of the garrison had assembled for church service on the outside of the rear face of the fortress under cover of some rising ground. A party of loyal natives approached under command of Wiremu Waka, brother of Tomati, and reconnoitred the breaches. Discovering the employment of the defenders a message was sent back to the English reporting the circumstance. It led to the almost instantaneous defeat of the natives; but it also saved them and the English from the tenfold carnage which a more vigilant and disciplined resistance from within their walls would have infallibly caused. An officer or two with a small party of soldiers and seamen stole quietly into the almost deserted pah, and further reinforcements followed quickly from the trenches. The Maoris, too late discovering their error and the movements of their foes, rushed tumultuously back into the work and made a fierce but futile attempt to retake it. Hand to hand and unfavoured by position they had no chance against the British bayonet and cutlass. Baffled and overpowered they fled by the rear of the stockade, and the Bat's-nest was taken. "The enemy," reported Colonel Despard, "was obliged to retreat and shelter himself in a wood opposite the east face of the pah where, the trees being extremely large and forming complete breast-works, many of them having been cut down previously, and evidently purposely placed in a defensive position he was enabled to maintain a heavy fire against us for a considerable time, until a doorway in that face being forced open, the seaman and troops rushed out and dislodged him from his position. He however still continued to keep up a fire from the woods, but more with a view to cover his retreat and enable him to carry away his wounded men than with any expectation of renewing the contest. The attack commenced about ten o'clock a.m., and all firing had ceased at two p.m. The enemy's loss has been severe, and several chiefs on their side have fallen. The numbers I have not been able to ascertain as they invariably carry off both killed and wounded when possible." Thus fell on 11th January 1846 Kawiti's pah of Rua Peka Peka;

and with its fall ended the active resistance of that chief and Heki, and British military operations in the northern district. The brave Maori was not only fairly defeated but fairly outwitted. The lesson was salutary; for this people are sagacious enough to "know when they are beaten," a branch of knowledge which that great preceptor in the art of war, Napoleon, was disgusted to find he could never instil into the English armies. The rebel chieftain must have had a bold heart to hold out against a force of nearly a thousand British seamen and sailors arrayed against him, while H.M.'s ships *Castor*, *Calliope*, *North Star*, and *Racehorse*, with the Honourable East India Company's sloop *Elphinstone*, lay at the mouth of the Kawa Kawa River, within fifteen miles of his wooden fortress. The British loss during the assault was:—Seamen and marines: killed, 9; wounded, 1 midshipman and 17. Soldiers: Killed, 3; wounded, 11; and 2 volunteers wounded. The pah was dismantled by the troops, and the natives deserted and avoided the place as a spot accursed. The paths leading to it are now grown up and nearly obliterated. The Genius of the wilderness, true to her children, is fast erasing every trace of the Maoris' defeat at Rua Peka Peka! Kawiti, who had made his escape on the capture of his fortress, was in the May following received by the Governor on board H.M.S. *Driver* in the Bay of Islands, and there and then gave in his allegiance to the British Government, expressing regret for "the trouble he had given," and gratitude for the treatment he had received. The old warrior, it is said, appeared deeply humiliated in making such concessions in the presence of other chiefs, who had fought on the English side and had eventually triumphed over him after a long and stout resistance. His letter, written a week after his defeat, and expressing a desire for peace, is a rich specimen of Maori diplomacy:—"January 19th 1846. Friend, —Oh my esteemed friend, the Governor, I salute you. Great is my regard for you. Friend Governor, I say, let us have peace between you and me—because I am filled (satisfied, have had enough,) of your riches (cannon balls.) Therefore I say let you and I make peace. Will you not? Yes!—This is the termination of my war against you, Friend Governor. This is the end of mine to you. It is finished.—To my esteemed Friend. To the Governor.—(signed) KAWITI." Heki, it is said, arrived at the Bat's-nest on the day it fell. He seems to have laid aside the name by which he was known as a great warrior—his signature at this time being Honi Wiremu Pokai.

XIV. *Governor Grey*.—On 14th November 1845 Sir George Grey arrived at Auckland as successor to Captain FitzRoy. While a young man, Grey had explored the unknown tract of territory lying betwixt Adelaide and the Swan River settlement, and had written a sketch of his journey, in which he suggested and described a system of policy considered to be well adapted for ameliorating the condition of the aborigines of that country. He

dedicated this book to Lord Glenelg, at that time Colonial Minister. The work was favourably received, and shortly after its publication Grey was appointed Governor of S.A. He was then selected to administer the affairs of N.Z. in a period of difficulty and emergency; and a ship of war was despatched from India in order to take him as early as possible to his destination. Grey was admitted to be a man with abilities of a high order, his capacity for administration was undoubted; and if he had devoted his energies faithfully and fearlessly, with justice and magnanimity, to the adjudication of the conflicting claims and affairs of the two races which he was sent to govern, he would have retired, after his long and eventful service in N.Z., with the character of a great man and the reputation of an enlightened statesman. The measures of his government were in many ways statesmanlike, but shaped and shaded with such strong tendencies to arbitrary power that their practical importance was impaired, and they failed to inspire confidence in either the Maoris or the colonists. When Grey arrived he found that the Maoris had begun to "pale their ineffectual fires" before the power and endurance of British troops, and although they had experienced no defeat of importance, still the loss they had sustained at the storming of Russell and in their encounter with M'Lerie convinced them that they were no match for us in arms. The constant harassment to which they were exposed by the British system of conducting military operations had completely worn out their strength and endurance. From this cause, as well as from that want of discipline and organisation which characterises the warfare of all uncivilised people, the insurrection had in a great measure lost its vigour. The new Governor, after a short stay at Auckland, proceeded to the north in order to quench the expiring embers of the insurrection, but previous to his departure he made arrangements for taking up the debentures in circulation with Imperial funds, as he had received from the Lords of the Treasury authority to obtain from the commissariat any amount of treasure he might require in conducting the Government. Possessed of such authority, and provided with ample funds, he saw the difficulties hitherto experienced in administering the affairs of the colony disappear like winter snows at the approach of summer. The two chiefs, Heki and Kawiti, with their followers, having offered terms of peace and submission, Grey behaved in a generous manner to the Maoris. In the first instance he confiscated their territory, but shortly afterwards restored it to them. This was sound and judicious policy and was not thrown away, for this tribe, the Gnapui, one of the most numerous and warlike in the country, have continued ever since to be distinguished for their loyalty and allegiance to the Government. The Governor remained a short time at Auckland before proceeding to Wellington to quell the spirit

of insurrection which had manifested itself in the south ever since the unfortunate defeat at the Wairau. Before his departure however he abolished the system of direct purchase of lands from the natives by the colonists which had been introduced so successfully in the north by his predecessor. This false step in his policy was no doubt taken with the view of conciliating by a peace-offering to their cupidity the N.Z. Company, whose influence, although on the wane, was still great in England. As they had always denied the claims of the natives to the rights of British subjects, he supported them in this measure in opposition to his judgment; but Grey was an ambitious man, and in order to ingratiate himself with this powerful Company he forsook the right and adopted the expedient in his policy. The Company at that time owned a considerable extent of territory, and the exclusion of the natives from the field of competition in the sale of lands was an important object gained. Governor FitzRoy's aim was to abolish the disgraceful land-jobbing monopoly carried on both by the Company and Government in order to establish a just and sound system of policy, and at the same time to act fairly towards the natives. Grey's object was to re-establish both, and conciliate the natives by a system of gifts and presents out of funds drawn from the Imperial Treasury in the first instance, and subsequently from colonial revenues. This was merely postponing the settlement of the question instead of grappling with it in a statesmanlike manner. The Government then was as completely despotic as can be imagined, and the Governor was in the habit of quoting Carlyle's theory of a pure despotism as the best of all systems of colonial government. He held in his hand for a time, for good or for evil, the destiny of the colony; but he trusted to cleverness and expediency instead of erecting his system of policy on the principle and basis of fair play and justice to both races. His policy laid the foundation for the subsequent wars in N.Z., although during his first tenure of office he made everything pleasant to the Government, the Company and the natives. It was however a policy which could not last, as it was founded solely on expediency and personal influence. The Governor invited the great chief Te Whero Whero to accompany him to the south. This chief had the reputation of being the greatest warrior in N.Z., and some years previously had conquered the tribes which had now risen in rebellion against the Government. The war in the south was however of short duration, as the troops had acquired experience in the field as well as in the mountain and forest warfare peculiar to N.Z. Frequent skirmishes took place, and occasionally the troops suffered rather severely, but their skill and gallantry were irresistible, and the capture by stratagem of Te Rauparaha, the notorious intriguing chief, on 24th July 1846, terminated hostilities and completed the subjugation of the insurgent natives in the south, who

quietly submitted to the British supremacy. Conspicuous for gallantry and indefatigable activity was Captain Stanley, with the officers and crew of H.M.S. *Calliope*, whose services contributed greatly to the success of the British arms. The services of Colonel Henderson, R.A., will likewise be long remembered, as he was on all occasions distinguished for skill and gallantry, while his capacity for command was no less conspicuous. The suppression of the insurrection being accomplished, the Governor went to work vigorously to arrange the various and complicated land claims of the N.Z. Company. This was no easy matter, as the natives in many instances stoutly maintained that they were still the rightful owners of much of the territory claimed by the Company. The Governor, however, lent his aid and influence to the Company in the settlement of these disputes, and even advanced funds on behalf of the Government to buy out the natives in order to give the Company undisputed possession of some valuable lands. At the same time he conducted himself in a hostile manner towards all who had obtained land under Governor FitzRoy's direct purchase proclamations in the north, and although Lord Grey, Secretary of State for the colonies, had instructed him in direct terms that all purchases sanctioned by his predecessor were to be respected, he treated many of them arbitrarily and even with injustice. In the south he permitted the natives to lease their lands direct to the colonists, while in the north he not only prohibited such a system, but inflicted the full penalty of the law on all colonists who transgressed. In this manner Governor FitzRoy's system was practically sanctioned in the south, while the same system was prohibited in the north. The old rivalry between the Company's settlements in the south and the Government settlements in the north still existed, but Grey, instead of acting fairly towards both, cast his weight and influence into one of the scales of the contending parties, and favoured the Company and the south. Many important and useful measures were enacted by the first Legislative Council held under the presidency of Grey in September 1846. No measures of policy could, however, be introduced or discussed except by the Government, which consequently restricted all legislation merely to the will and pleasure of the Governor. This system afforded an opportunity to a clever man to display his abilities for administration, as well as his talents for debate, as he was his own Prime Minister and Colonial Secretary, as well as Governor. One peculiar feature of Grey's character was developed on this occasion, and distinguished him during his whole career. When any sound suggestions or practical observations were made by independent members, either in support of or in opposition to the Government, he never openly at the time accepted them, but on some future occasion he would adopt and embody them as his own, in measures introduced by himself. He displayed

wonderful talent in seizing and appropriating the valuable information, original ideas, and practical views of others. Not possessed of great intellectual powers, nor rich in original conceptions and ideas, in the application to practical purposes of the knowledge and experience of others, as well as in the faculty of observing and waiting the development of events, then attributing their natural operations to his personal interference, and claiming the whole as the result of his own foresight and policy, he was unrivalled. At this period he was eminently successful in conciliating the natives if he did not inspire them with confidence in his measures. He made frequent tours through the country, visiting their paha and villages, as well as receiving them at Government House on all occasions with the greatest hospitality and kindness. In this way he soon acquired a complete knowledge of their language and character, appreciated their display of patriotism, expressed a genuine pleasure in listening to their animated rehearsals of their traditions and legends, and was amused at the troubadour style in which they recited their ballads and poetry; while he stimulated them by every means to educate their young chiefs, and many of them attended the schools and were fairly educated. At this time they could for the most part read and write their own language fluently, and a party consisting of sixty-five Maoris who were employed in building the barrack wall at Auckland, sixty-four could write their own language and sixty-five could read it. They were now, except in a few instances, entirely denuded of arms and munitions of war, and the importation of such articles was prohibited, ruinous penalties being inflicted by legislative enactment on all who violated this law. From this circumstance they had in a great measure abandoned their warlike and predatory habits. But as they were endowed with great energy of character, mental as well as physical, and aware of the great property they possessed in the country, and were ambitious of maintaining that rank and distinction which they formerly held, they preferred a life of occupation to idleness and repose. They were on all occasions anxious to imitate the colonists in their pursuits and amusements, and were animated with the ambition to excel and compete with them and share the prizes of civilised life. Stimulated by a justifiable desire for wealth, they adopted and persevered in peaceful and industrious pursuits, became the possessors of numerous coasting vessels, which they navigated themselves, and cultivated their lands, growing and reaping their crops of grain, as well as planting, hoeing and digging their potatoes. They employed skilled mechanics to erect mills on their property, and were recompensed by the ability not only to supply themselves with food of their own production, but to realise considerable sums by the sale of their surplus stock in the markets; while their self-love was gratified in owning sheep, cattle, and horses. In all parts of

the country, north and south, they often rode in troops well mounted from their villages to the towns and settlements; and at race meetings, would enter their horses and sometimes succeed in winning the race and stakes. These habits and pursuits having been adopted, the country might with advantage have remained a Crown colony, under a Governor observing discretion and exercising prudent forbearance, undisturbed for some length of time. Under any circumstances it would have been only just that, previous to the introduction of constitutional and responsible government, the political condition, rights, and privileges of the natives, as British subjects, should be clearly defined by the Imperial Parliament. In India, as well as in every country where colonies have been founded by England, the aboriginal inhabitants had either been conquered or treated as a conquered race. N.Z. is the only exception to this rule. The Maori chiefs in good faith ceded the sovereignty of their country to the Queen, and in consideration she guaranteed to them all the rights and privileges of British subjects. At this time Lord Grey was Colonial Minister, and with his special views on all colonial questions, confirmed by Lord Durham's famous report on the affairs of Canada, he had introduced a bill into the Imperial Parliament to provide N.Z. with constitutional and representative government. Some of the provisions of this charter were however not only framed expressly to exclude the natives from all political rights, but it contained a clause providing that all their unoccupied lands should be forfeited to the Crown. The measure was consequently received in the colony by influential people of both races with disappointment, dissatisfaction and alarm. Amongst those who were dissatisfied were Bishop Selwyn and the Church of England missionaries, on behalf of the natives. The following protest against the introduction of this charter was therefore sent to the Governor by Bishop Selwyn, with the usual request that it should be forwarded to the Secretary of State for the Colonies:—"St. John's College, Bishop's Auckland, 1st July 1847.—May it please Your Excellency,—I, George Augustus, by Divine permission Bishop of New Zealand, on my own behalf and on behalf of the clergymen of this diocese employed by Captain Hobson to interpret and explain the Treaty of Waitangi to the native chiefs of New Zealand, do hereby record my deliberate and formal protest against the principles expressed in a letter of instructions addressed by the Right Hon. the Earl Grey to your Excellency, bearing date Downing-street, 23rd December 1846, to the effect that the savage inhabitants of New Zealand have no right of property in land which they do not occupy, and which has remained unsubdued to the purposes of man. Against this doctrine I feel myself called upon to protest as the head of the missionary body, by whose influence and representations the native chiefs were induced to sign the Treaty of Waitangi, not one of whom

would have consented to act as an agent of the British Government if the assurances given to them by Captain Hobson had not been directly contrary to the principles now avowed by the Right Hon. the Earl Grey. It is my duty also to inform your Excellency that I am resolved, God being my helper, to use all legal and constitutional measures befitting my station, to inform the natives of New Zealand of their rights and privileges as British subjects, and to assist them in asserting and maintaining them, whether by petition to the Imperial Parliament or other loyal or peaceful methods, but that in so doing I shall not forget the respect which I owe to your Excellency, nor do anything which can be considered likely to add to the difficulties of the colony. I have further to request that this communication may be forwarded to the Right Hon. the Earl Grey, Secretary of State for the Colonies, with whom I am privileged to communicate through your Excellency. I have, &c.,—G. A. New Zealand." When this protest was laid before Parliament some members of the House of Commons viewed several passages in it as very strong, if not insolent, and were disposed to resent them. At the same time Grey not only considered the introduction of such a measure as altogether premature, but condemned in unequivocal terms that portion of it which ignored the claims of the natives to the rights of British subjects, and despoiled them of their lands. He therefore succeeded in prevailing on Lord Grey to suspend for a time the introduction of this charter, if not in convincing him of the prudence of abandoning it altogether. The following extract from Grey's despatches to Earl Grey in reference to this measure convey a lucid and faithful sketch of the condition and character of the natives at that period:—"Before stating the reasons on which these views are founded, I think it proper to mention that Her Majesty's native subjects in this country will certainly be exceedingly indignant at finding that they are placed in a position of inferiority to the European population. They will undoubtedly argue, as they now frequently do, that they not only cheerfully ceded the sovereignty of the country to the Queen, but that when attempts have been made by some discontented tribes to throw off the sovereignty of Great Britain, and that at a period when from the smallness of the British force in the country they had apparently some hopes of success, the principal chiefs came forward, and freely gave the services of themselves and their people, and shed their blood in assisting to maintain for Her Majesty that sovereignty which they had yielded to her. Then it must be borne in mind, that the great majority of the native population can all read and write their own language fluently; that they are a people quite equal in natural sense and ability to the mass of the European population; that they are jealous and suspicious; that they now own many vessels, horses and cattle; that they have

in some instances considerable sums of money at their disposal, and are altogether possessed of a great amount of property in the country, of the value of which they are fully aware; that there is no nation in the world more sensitive upon the subject of money matters, or the disposal of their property, and no people that I am acquainted with less likely to sit down quietly under what they may regard as injustice. At present the natives are quite satisfied with the form of Government now existing, and as the chiefs have always ready access to the Governor, and their representations are carefully heard and considered, they have practically a voice in the Government, and of this they are well aware; but under the proposed Constitution they would lose their power and the Governor would lose his influence over them; in fact the position of the two races would become wholly altered, and the Governor would I fear lose that power which I do not see he could well dispense with in a country circumstanced as this." During this period of tranquility and prosperity among all classes, including the natives, one of those incidental outrages characteristic of their condition as a fierce and semi-barbarous race occurred, and but for the sound judgment and intrepidity of Colonel Laye of the 58th Regiment, it would have involved the country in a formidable insurrection. The disturbance originated in the circumstance of a midshipman of H.M.S. *Calliope* having accidentally shot a native with a pistol. The wound being of a serious description, apprehensions were entertained of its proving fatal. The natives became excited, and it was found impossible to convince them that a deliberate attempt had not been made to murder their relation. In accordance with their former customs, and their thirst for retaliation when exasperated, they demanded that blood should be taken for blood. Whilst in this state of excitement six of them attacked the house of Gilfillan, a settler living about six miles from the township of Wanganui. Gilfillan escaped slightly wounded, but his wife, daughter, and two sons were barbarously murdered by the infuriated natives. Some of the native allies went in pursuit of the murderers and apprehended five of them, who were delivered to the officer in command of the detachment at Wanganui. This officer likewise held the appointment of civil resident magistrate, but as Laye had only a small force under his command, 170 men all told, and was satisfied that the prisoners would be rescued by their friends if he attempted to forward them to Wellington, ninety miles distant, and that it would be impolitic to divide his small force and forward them under an escort altogether insufficient, he resolved on his own responsibility to try them by military law, and make their immediate punishment a striking example of the inexorable justice and supremacy of British law. An inquest was therefore held on the mutilated bodies of the Gilfillans, and the coroner and jury returned a verdict of wilful

murder against the prisoners. A court-martial was assembled immediately, consisting of seven officers; the prisoners, upon the clearest evidence, were found guilty. Four were sentenced to be hanged; but the fifth, a boy, was in consideration of his youthful years sentenced to be transported for life. The finding and sentence of the court were confirmed by Laye, and the murderers were hanged the following morning. In the meantime their friends and a number of dissatisfied natives, relying on the assurance of assistance from Rangahaita, a notorious rebel chief, had assembled in large force in order to rescue the prisoners, and took possession of the hills surrounding the settlement. They attacked the stockade, and for five hours kept up an incessant fire on the place, but eventually were in the most gallant manner repulsed and driven off with considerable loss by the detachment of the 58th Regiment, aided by a few armed settlers. In this manner the sound judgment and intrepid behaviour of Laye dispirited the natives, and impaired the force of the insurrection. In a few weeks, as the natives were really sensible fellows, peace was restored. Laye's behaviour in this crisis evinced the possession of high qualities, valuable in a soldier, a capacity for command as well as intrepidity in action. The Governor, in despatches to Earl Grey respecting this disturbance, wrote—"I should add that the speedy and satisfactory termination of these disturbances must be in a great measure attributed to the firm and vigorous manner in which Captain Laye acted. There is every reason to suppose that, had Captain Laye not acted in the firm and decided manner he did, a much more formidable and lengthened rebellion might have ensued in the southern portion of the island." Lord Grey, in reply to Governor Grey, wrote:—"I have it especially in command to assure you of the sense which Her Majesty entertains of the firmness with which Captain Laye acted upon the occasion of the attack of the natives on the town of Wanganui, and of the gallant conduct of himself and detachment under his orders." The colony in all the settlements now made rapid advance in wealth and population, and the south was distinguished for the enterprise and success of the colonists, and began to take the lead of the northern settlements in the growth of wool and production of grain, which it has maintained ever since. The fine climate and abundant pastures of the Hawke's Bay district had attracted numerous settlers, while the Nelson settlement in the South Island, having recovered from the sad disaster at the Wairau, was making rapid progress, not only in pastoral pursuits but in agriculture. Enterprising colonists even found their way further south, to the remote settlement of Otago, hitherto viewed as the Ultima Thule of the colony, where only a few whalers and sealers had formerly taken up their residence. If the power of the N.Z. Company had been broken in the struggle with the Government, the mantle of their enterprise had fallen on the colonists, who from that day

have never faltered in their colonising spirit, amidst unparalleled disasters and difficulties. In the north, at Auckland, which was still the seat of Government, a greater degree of security was afforded by the introduction from England of a number of military pensioners, with their families, who were located in villages round, on sites selected as salient points of defence, so as to afford complete protection to the settlements. Law and order were established on a firm basis, life and property rendered as secure as in any part of England, and in a short time the country within a radius of ten miles was enclosed, partitioned and cultivated, abounding in parks, cornfields and gardens, as well as studded with villas and hamlets. The head-quarters of the 58th Regiment had likewise returned to N.Z., and there were two regiments stationed in the country, one in the north and the other in the south. In order to complete the military arrangements, N.Z. was erected into a separate command, and Major-General George Dean Pitt, K.H., was sent from England with a head-quarters staff to take command of all the forces in the colony. At this time St. John's College, situated about six miles from Auckland, where Bishop Selwyn resided, was a place of interest and attraction. With private funds the Bishop had purchased many hundred acres of land, and in a rather bleak but conspicuous situation had built the college, where a number of boys of both races, sons of colonists and Maori chiefs, were domiciled and educated. The Bishop's residence, unpretending in appearance, with few comforts—among them his library—was built of stone, but there were erected in an irregular manner numerous detached wooden buildings, for the accommodation of the masters and scholars, as well as for the convenience of all attached to the establishment. These were built in the Gothic style, with traceried windows, and included a small chapel, ecclesiastical in structure and sacerdotal in character, but in good taste, where all assembled every morning at seven o'clock to prayers. The aspect of this cluster of buildings, from the Gothic style of architecture, the traceried windows, gables and pinnacles, cloisters and stiles, was Middle Age and abbey-like, and from its monastic repose highly ecclesiastical and characteristic. Around this collection of dwellings was the college demesne or farm, where cattle, sheep, and poultry were seen grazing undisturbed in profuse and luxuriant pastures. The aspect of an English rural landscape was about the place, indicating primitive comfort and abundance. Situated on an eminence, it looked down on a scene as fair as can well be imagined. On one side the Gulf of Shouraki, studded with islands, was displayed in all its captivating loveliness; and although the college was situated in a secluded spot, not a ship or vessel of any kind could arrive or depart from the Auckland Harbour without being observed. On the other side the view extended over the whole isthmus, to the shores of

the west coast, including the numerous villages and hamlets, volcanic hills, woods, lakes, and streams in the Auckland district, forming a diversified and magnificent landscape. In those primitive times the Bishop was hospitable to all in a simple and cordial style. He was then young, full of life, vigorous and hopeful, and he was animated with the fervour of religion, as well as with a sentiment of chivalry, which united with his indefatigable and self-imposed labours to make him highly esteemed by both races. The Roman Catholic prelate, Bishop Pompallier, a Frenchman, who had been in early life an officer in a dragoon regiment, was courteous and well-bred, after the fashion of his countrymen. Cosmopolitan in manners, sacerdotal in appearance, faithful to his order, and a devoted servant to the Church; he was the first of the bishops who resided in the colony, having been in N.Z. before it became British territory. The Wesleyans had likewise built a college, a little more ambitious in style, and perhaps a shade more practical in its management than the others. In the early times their missionaries had contributed much to that civilisation which led the way to its settlement as a British dependency. Many of them were conspicuous for practical good sense, and some displayed fair abilities. The Rev. Mr. Buller was specially distinguished for his talents and accomplishments. The Scotch Presbyterians at the same time had performed their part in the cause of religion and education. They erected a capacious kirk in the Greek order of architecture. The natives had likewise done their part, and with their own funds had built churches as well as aided in erecting and establishing schools for the education of their children. In this manner the two races were brought to live together in harmony and prosperity—the Englishman and New Zealander, the civilised man of the nineteenth century and the Maori lately emerged from a state of barbarism, who were never viewed or treated nor would submit to be treated as a conquered race, and who during the war in 1845-6 had joined with us in suppressing a formidable insurrection, freely giving their services and sacrificing their lives in maintaining the Queen's authority, and in support of that sovereignty which they had frankly bestowed on condition of receiving the rights of British subjects. Governor Grey, who in the order of things which had sprung from the disturbed condition of N.Z. had become distinguished, was created a Knight of the Bath. Unaided by the advantages of high birth or family influence, he was at this early period of his life rewarded for his meritorious services, and deservedly stood high in public estimation. The ceremony of his installation took place on the lawn in front of Government House in presence of a large party of ladies, a great number of civilians, all the military, and many of the Maori chiefs, who viewed the ceremony with characteristic gravity and dignified demeanour. There were some circumstances connected with

this ceremony which rendered it more than usually attractive. Grey was not only the youngest knight, but the most youthful man of the Order, and had won his spurs by his own merit and personal achievement. He was ambitious and self-reliant, his career successful and brilliant, and he was justly proud of this mark of royal approbation. Among the early colonists there were many accomplished gentlemen, distinguished for intelligence and enterprise, who from having been exposed from time to time to all the perils and vicissitudes of N.Z. colonisation had acquired great experience and knowledge in its State affairs, and the characters of some of the present colonial representative men were formed and developed in those stirring and eventful times. Colonel William Wakefield and Captain Arthur Wakefield, who represented the N.Z. Company, cannot be forgotten for their practical talents and good sense. At that time Sir Charles Clifford, first Speaker of the General Assembly, Mr. Stafford, Mr. Fitzherbert, Dr. Featherston and Mr. Fox had distinguished themselves in colonial politics, and Sir David Munro was remarkable for his intellectual accomplishments, besides the gifted Sir Francis Dillon Bell, and a host of others all famous in the annals of the colony. The name of Dr. Martin, of Auckland, must be added as that of a colonial representative man of great literary attainments.

XV. *The Native Difficulty.*—Long before N.Z. was colonised it was known that the natives were a powerful and warlike race; and some account has been given of the formidable opposition which an insignificant minority of them were able to offer to disciplined English troops. But until they rose into open rebellion it appears to have been thought that British authority might easily be established amongst them by moral influence alone. Hobson's urgent solicitations that an adequate military force should be stationed in N.Z. were met on the part of the Imperial Government by a positive refusal. It was not considered that a few individuals composing the staff of the civil government must be powerless to govern and control not only their own countrymen but nearly a hundred thousand of the most barbarous and warlike people on the face of the earth; and that a single act of injustice, or a single rash step on the part of the colonists, would endanger the life and property of every British-born subject in the country. So for several years the local authorities were placed in an anomalous and humiliating position; and from an imperfect appreciation of the difficulty of the undertaking the attempt to colonise had been followed by most disastrous consequences. The natives were not a conquered people, nor did a majority of them give an intelligent and unqualified submission to British rule; yet the moment the Queen's sovereignty was officially proclaimed, the whole of the inhabitants, native and European, at once became—in theory at least—amenable to British laws; and the authorities were expected

to carry the theory into execution. The settlers not only looked to the Local Government for protection from native aggression; but if an offence against the law of England was committed even amongst the natives themselves, and in the interior of the country, the authorities were expected to apprehend and punish the offenders! And because native offenders went unpunished—because acts of cannibalism were committed, and native warfare was allowed to go on unchecked—the Local Government were reproached with culpable inefficiency, and the Queen's sovereignty was described as a delusion and a snare! In seeking to govern and control a wild and barbarous people, impatient of restraint and accustomed every man to take the law into his own hands in a rude and summary way, the principal difficulty was to induce them to have recourse to the British tribunals and to yield obedience to their decisions. But when these tribunals were found to be unable to carry out their own awards, and when a judicial decision was frequently but an empty name, it was not easy to satisfy them that the mode of administering justice was practically superior to their own. The local authorities were for several years powerless, both in civil and criminal proceedings, effectually to carry out the law. When the British first undertook the colonisation of the country its trade was not confined to the settlers, but for some time previously a considerable amount of commercial intercourse had been carried on between the two races. Nor were dealings with the natives confined to the English settlements and the districts immediately around them, but were extended over the whole country, carried on partly by straggling settlers, by travelling traders, and by persons engaged in occupations in which native labour was found to be available. Many dealings between the two races took place in districts so remote from settlements as to be practically beyond the operations of the courts of law, and the difficulty of administering justice between the settlers and the natives in civil cases alone soon became apparent. Before the establishment of British authority, the contracts and engagements entered into between the two had for the most part been faithfully fulfilled. The English settler, living upon sufferance amongst the natives, was bound to good behaviour; the native, valuing the advantage of trading with the Englishman, had also a direct interest in keeping faith in his transactions. But when the country became a British colony contracts made between the two races were less faithfully observed. The courts of law it is true were open to all, without distinction of race; but what remedy was practically open to the New Zealander? He was unacquainted with the mode of procedure, living it might be at a distance of fifty miles from any settlement, unable probably to procure the attendance of witnesses, and without the means of paying the fees of court. Assuming these difficulties to be overcome, and that a Maori complainant had

recourse to the courts of law and obtained a verdict in his favour, yet the English defendant, living in the bush, might be practically beyond the reach of law for any useful purpose. His property, if he had any, could not be profitably brought to market from a distance and converted into money under legal process, and to imprison the person of the debtor was small satisfaction to the successful native plaintiff. If, on the other hand, the Maori failed in the performance of his contract, what power had the colonial tribunals to compel the native defendant even to appear? Even if the settler succeeded in gaining a verdict, what probability was there of the sheriff being able to levy from the native the amount of damages awarded by the court? Instead of diminishing, the number of cases in dispute between the two races largely increased; for, relying on the Government for redress, the natives, after British authority was proclaimed, more readily than formerly entered into contracts with the settler; and relying on the power of the Government for protection from personal violence, the settler was less careful than before in fulfilling his engagements. The difficulty of carrying English law into operation amongst the natives, so far as it arose from the technical character of the ordinary legal proceedings, was remedied by the appointment of magistrates empowered, by a law specially framed for the purpose, to arbitrate in a summary way between the two races, according to equity and good conscience, and without being bound by the technicalities of ordinary legal tribunals; so that without cost, without legal knowledge or assistance, the complainant, whether native or European, might personally go before the magistrate, state his case, and obtain a judgment in his favour. But the main difficulty still remained: it was easy for the magistrate to give his judgment, but how was he to enforce its execution? Assuming the decision to be against the native, by what means could he compel payment of the damages awarded? The efficient administration of the criminal law presented a still more formidable difficulty. A short experience of the independent character of the natives, and of the difficult nature of the country, soon proved to the local authorities the difficulty of preserving peace, or of securing the person and property of the English settler; and so powerless were the Government to afford protection to the public, that aggression could be committed by the natives almost with impunity. The difficulty of seizing the offender, and the danger of punishing him, if he should happen to be a person of importance belonging to an important tribe, were the principal obstacles to the punishment of crime. To meet the difficulty and to avoid the danger, a temporary enactment was passed, providing that no native offender should be arrested except through the instrumentality of the chiefs of his tribe; and thus in cases when the chief arrested the offender, the danger was avoided. But the

difficulty in most cases still remained, for the sum authorised by law to be paid to the chiefs, to secure their co-operation, was not sufficient to induce them to exert themselves in favour of the law; and the provisions of the law could not, of course, meet the case of the misconduct of the chiefs themselves. Even as between the natives and the colonists, when a native was the offender, his countrymen were not always willing that he should be dealt with in accordance with our law. On one occasion, in the early history of the colony, a native was put on his trial for theft; a "protector of Aborigines" was present watching the proceedings, and counsel was employed by the Government for his defence. On the clearest evidence the jury convicted him, his own counsel was satisfied with the justice of the verdict, and he was sentenced to a term of imprisonment. His native friends who were present at the trial were by no means satisfied that their countryman should be thus ignominiously punished; and before he could be removed from the dock—in the face of the sheriff and gaolers, in spite of the efforts of constables and turnkeys—they started up and brandishing their tomahawks rushed on the prisoner and dragged him out of the court. Thus in the face of day—in the heart of the capital of the colony—was the majesty of the Law branded by the natives, and the administration of justice defeated by brute force. When a native committed an offence against a colonist it was generally admitted by them that he should be punished for the offence; but even amongst those most favourable to the establishment of British rule a strong feeling was entertained against the degradation of imprisonment. They were willing to acquiesce in the Scripture rule that he who stole should restore fourfold; but they were unwilling to lend active aid in the apprehension of a thief so long as he was subject to the degrading punishment of imprisonment. A law was accordingly enacted that any native charged with theft who should plead guilty to the charge might pay into court four times the value of the goods stolen, and so become entitled to his discharge. If the friends of the offender were unwilling that he should undergo imprisonment, they assisted him to comply with the requirement of the law in order to save him from indignity. If on the other hand he was a man of low degree, he was left to suffer the punishment of his offence. Thus by adapting the law to the feelings of the native people, many offenders were allowed to be taken who would otherwise have set all law at defiance and have altogether escaped unpunished. As it was also provided that the property stolen, or the value of it, should be restored to the owner, the settlers were not dissatisfied with the exceptional character of the law. In 1846 the Government was authorised by Parliament to proclaim districts in which the natives might be allowed to continue the exercise of their own laws and customs. But this power was never

carried into practice; the authorities steadily set themselves to obliterate, rather than perpetuate, social and political differences between the two races, and by degrees to extend the laws to the natives, and to govern the country without distinction of race. The efforts of the Government were not altogether without success. An increasing desire was shown by the natives for a more active and efficient power to control them in their relations with each other. In the session of 1858 measures were passed by the Legislative Assembly to extend the operation of English law amongst them, with a view to improve their social condition, and for the administration of justice amongst them by native juries and assessors. The local Government was directed to organise a special department for protecting the natives in their persons and property; and it was not until they had risen in rebellion in the north, and the settlement at Kororarika had been attacked and destroyed, that more than one hundred men were stationed in the country to maintain British supremacy, to afford protection to the settlements, and to vindicate the law. Being hardly pressed for several years to maintain its own existence, the Government was for some time unable to undertake measures of a permanent character for promoting the civilisation of the natives. It soon became evident that the department maintained at considerable expense for the protection of the natives was unnecessary; and when the settlers had been stripped, their houses plundered, their cattle stolen, their enclosures destroyed, it became a mockery, and if it had not been speedily abolished would have proved fatally injurious to the cause it was intended to serve. To the Government however the "native protectors" were invaluable in the character of political agents, and they virtually became the protectors of the colonists themselves. They were employed in negotiating purchases of land from the natives; as interpreters in the Land Commissioners' Court; sometimes as interpreters to Her Majesty's forces when engaged in the field; conducting official correspondence with the natives; in endeavouring to disabuse their minds of unfavourable impressions conveyed to them by disaffected people; keeping the authorities informed of the sentiments and proceedings of the natives in the interior; and generally in the performance of services of a purely political character; useful and essential to the Government, but of no direct advantage to the natives, for whom and at whose expense the department was maintained. It soon became apparent that the "protection" of the natives was unnecessary; that even the name of "native protector" was offensive to the settlers, so that the maintenance of the Protectorate was calculated to create a bad feeling, rather than to promote friendly relations between the two races; and that the cost of the department, if expended in the education and civilisation of the natives, would be productive of unmixed good to the colony. With a view of applying the funds to education, an

ordinance was passed by the Legislature providing that the funds applicable to native purposes should be expended in the establishment of schools for the instruction of the natives in the English language; for a course of industrial training in English usages and arts; and in promoting their advancement in the social and political scale. The Church of England, the Roman Catholics, and the Wesleyans were already engaged in the work of native education, and all had schools in operation capable of extension and requiring aid. There existed amongst them an amount of zeal which no Government could purchase and which no money could procure; and it was decided that instead of establishing new schools under the management of the Government, aid should be afforded to these religious bodies. During Grey's administration an ordinance was passed authorising the appropriation of a portion of the public funds for the encouragement of native education. By the Constitution Act it was afterwards provided that a sum of £7000 a year should be appropriated to "native purposes." Grey proposed that nearly the whole of that sum should be devoted to the consolidation and extension of the system of education prescribed by the local Act; which after the experience of several years had been found to be satisfactory and successful. The course pursued by Grey was cordially accepted by the managers of native schools and approved of by the Government at home, and was attended with considerable success.

XVI. *Incidents of the Maori War.*—Besides more than one cruel murder of settlers, several British soldiers fell under the musket and tomahawk of the Maoris at Boulcott's Farm in the Hutt Valley. This was one of the boldest attacks on an English regular force ever attempted by the Maoris. The farm consisted of a wooden cottage and offices with a barn hard by. This latter building had been partially stockaded by the officer in command thereby making it bullet-proof, which was by no means the case with the other tenements. The garrison consisted of a single officer and fifty men of the 58th—one-half of them occupying the barn. The premises were surrounded by a rough clearing of no great extent shut in by the primeval forest. The River Hutt, fordable in ordinary seasons, but impassable except by boats or canoes during flood, runs at half-musket shot distance from the post. At the time of the attack the opposite shore, covered with thick scrub, was in the hands of the enemy. Just before dawn on 16th May 1846 the sentry in front of the inlying picquet observed a dark object crawling towards him. He fired at it; and in an instant the air was rent with a chorus of yells, as fifty naked savages, springing up from the herbage, rushed on him and overpowered and slew both the men of the picquet and himself before any effectual resistance could be offered; while a general onslaught was made on the post from all parts of the surrounding bush, and a heavy fire was poured on the building in

which the officer and a section of his people were housed. The Lieutenant hurried from his quarters with two men, intent on joining the party in the stockade, but was immediately driven back by a rush from the Maoris. The sergeant got a few men together and checked the furious assailants, and in a second attempt—with only six men carrying three others wounded—the officer succeeded in reaching the barn, whence, leaving a sufficient force to protect it, he sallied against the enemy with the rest, and advancing and firing in extended order soon drove them across the river. There they danced a war dance, showing their numbers to be about two hundred, within view of the British post. "But for the alertness of all in turning out," says the officer in his report, "and the determination of the men, we should all have fallen." The British loss was six killed and four severely wounded. The bugler, quite a lad, was struck by a tomahawk on the right arm, while in the act of sounding the alarm; the brave boy changed the bugle to the other hand and continued to blow, when the savage split his skull with a second stroke of his weapon. It was fortunate that a sergeant had come that morning from Wellington with reports that made the officer suspect some intended enterprise by the rebels. All were prepared, and the soldiers in the stockaded barn were canvassing the probability of an attack, when the sentry's shot, followed by a volley from the enemy, was heard. The Maoris had good right to be satisfied with the havoc they had committed, without pushing their audacity further. As to the loss on their side, if there was any, both killed and wounded were carried off as usual. The affair of Boulcott's Farm was a successful surprise of a British piquet on the part of the natives;—a gallant repulse of a superior force in a night attack, on that of the British. The Maoris did not want the post—they wanted blood, as they afterwards boasted, and they got it. The force in the valley was immediately augmented by Major Last of the 99th, commanding in the southern district, who drove the still hovering rebels from their woodland position on the right bank of the river, with some loss. About a month after the combat at the farm, which had subsequently been reinforced and placed under charge of a captain, that officer, with a view to acquaint himself with the roads in the vicinity of his post, the fords of the river, and the position of the enemy—who were reported to be encamped not far distant—and perhaps with a desire to avenge the loss inflicted by them on 16th May, marched out to his front with forty soldiers, a small party of loyal natives under the chief Waiderapa, and a few militiamen; accompanied also by a young officer of the 58th, a volunteer on the occasion. The main road along which they proceeded was at that time extremely narrow, full of deep holes, and in some places up to the knees in mud, the bush so thick that the view of the advancing party hardly extended

beyond a few paces to their front and flanks. On reaching a piece of cleared land, or rather land with felled timber lying on it, where there was a potato patch, one of Waiderapa's natives, who was acting as a scout, springing on a log to look out a-head saw several men lying close below him, and shouting out "Rangihaieta's Maoris," threw himself flat on his face. A smart volley delivered at fifteen paces from among the logs on the left of the road informed the captain that he had fallen into an ambuscade. The loyal natives threw themselves into cover and returned the fire from the same side of the road as the enemy. The English, in skirmishing order, answered it briskly from among the trees on the opposite side. In about ten minutes some of the Maoris were seen crossing the road so as to obtain a flanking fire on the right of the soldiers, while a strong party were observed to move swiftly towards the road in their rear so as to cut them off from the stockade. This display of tactics induced the officer to sound the retreat, which movement was effected without further loss of time or blood. Indeed the casualties had already been pretty severe; four soldiers were severely wounded, of whom one died, and two were missing; while the young officer of the 58th was severely hurt, maimed perhaps for life, by a shot through the arm. This gentleman was left for some time to the mercy of the savages, who fortunately were too much alarmed themselves to perceive him as he lay concealed in the underwood. The captain, enquiring anxiously for his comrade, was informed that he had gone wounded to the camp in charge of a soldier; nor was he missed by anyone until the party had nearly reached the stockade. Making the best of his way in that direction he came on a party of natives, and thought his last hour had come; but they proved to be friends and assisted him in his retreat. The two missing men also found their way to the stockade in the course of the evening. Meanwhile the subaltern of the stockade hearing the firing promptly armed his men, who were working on the defences, and inviting the co-operation of a friendly tribe encamped hard by, advanced with forty soldiers and a hundred aborigines, under their veteran chief, E Puni, to the support of his superior. Meeting him half way on his retreat he was, after a short consultation, directed to form an advance guard in the direction of the camp, to which the entire British party accordingly retired. The two native chiefs on meeting held a brief koriro, when Waiderapa and E Puni joining their forces determined to return to the scene of action. An English interpreter who accompanied the allied warriors reported that, after throwing forward their scouts, who ascertained that the rebels had made off, they came up just in time to see some of them retreating to the river across the clearing, and dropping blankets, cartridges, and potatoes in their track. The account of the action given by Waiderapa affords an amusing specimen of the vain-glorious bombast of the Maori warrior. He

appears to have behaved with the utmost coolness in the affair; to have particularly requested that none of the soldiers should mix with his men, and that they should not "fire from behind them," as a half-drunken militiaman was seen to do; and he took up his position on the enemy's side of the road, quite independently of his white allies, although his force amounted to but fifteen men. "The reason why we retreated," said the chief in his evidence before a court of enquiry, "was because we were partly composed of soldiers and partly of natives. Had we been all natives we would have driven away Rangihaieta's people. The soldiers retreated because they thought the enemy were dividing into two parties to cut them off. I did not think so because they, the enemy, had seen the position I had taken up!" But the strangest part of this affair remains to be told. About a mile and a half further up the valley, at a part called the Taitai, stands a spot where, at the time of these operations, stood a stockade by the wayside occupied by a party of militia. The ambushed natives had therefore boldly placed themselves between two British posts, with a flooded river between them and their resources. The militia subaltern hearing the musketry proceeded with a sergeant and twelve men towards the spot; was, according to his official report, fired upon by the rebels; was briskly engaged with them for an hour and a half, checking their progress, and did not return to his stockade until night was coming on. By this singular incident the Governor was misled into the belief that these few had not only held their ground against, but had twice repelled the very party from whom the regulars, under a captain of foot, with a strong body of native allies, and a reinforcement under his subaltern, had been compelled to retreat! It proved afterwards that if they did indeed exchange shots with the hostile Maoris, their main efforts were with more gallantry than propriety directed against the friendly natives under E Puni, who advancing towards the Taitai, was fired upon by the militia in mistake until the interpreter approaching the post claimed exemption for his companions. The leader of the reconnaissance having fallen into the snare deliberately laid for him had the choice of two alternatives—to fight his way through it, or extricate himself by retreat. All the evidence collected by the inquiry held to investigate the details agreed that the commander was justified in retiring when he was satisfied that the enemy, whom he supposed to be the whole of Rangihaieta's disposable force, had turned one of his flanks and were menacing to cut him off from his reserve; that the retreat was conducted slowly and with regularity; and that the captain was the last man to retire—himself taking charge of the rear-guard. The officer was acting under superior orders, induced by the numerous murders lately committed by the rebels in the immediate vicinity of the British post to devise—in conjunction with the officers of militia and loyal chiefs—some plan for

discovering the fords by which the murderers were in the habit of crossing the river. But a reconnaissance in so impracticable a country with so small a force could hardly meet with a happy result; and the requisite information could have been better gained by native spies in their stealthy manner than by any operation so ostentatiously conducted. The affair of the 16th June must be classed as a decided defeat, and a very unlucky one at a moment when disaffection was fast spreading among the natives, and when risk of failure should have been avoided with peculiar caution. Within a mile or two of the camp of Porirua is the pah of Taupo belonging to Rauperaha, where he was cleverly captured in the following manner: This old chief, pretending friendship towards the English during the rebellion, was found to be secretly supplying his old ally, Rangihaieta, then in hostility against them, with provisions and intelligence across the rear of the British position at Porirua, from Taupo to Pahatanui, Rangihaieta's stronghold; and suspicions existed that he and other disaffected chiefs were conniving at the movement of a hostile body from the Wanganui tribes down the coast, to form a junction with the latter rebel leader. Preparations had already been made for attacking Rangihaieta in his pah, only three miles from Porirua, but it was judged best to arrest Te Rauperaha, and thus prevent his co-operating with his friend, before Pahatanui was invested. A combined naval and military force was accordingly put on board H.M.S. *Driver*, with the double intent of attacking the rebels moving down the coast, and of seizing the veteran tiger in his lair. Adverse gales prevented the performance of the former service, which however was almost as well accomplished by the missionary natives of Otako, who opposed and stopped the intended inroad of the northern barbarians. On 23rd July 1846 Major Last of the 99th, with Captain Stanley of the *Calliope*, and a party of about 130, landed before daylight with such perfect silence and order, that the stockade of Taupo was surrounded and entered before the inmates caught the alarm. Te Rauperaha was seized in his bed by a band of seamen, and, struggling, biting, and shouting, "Ngatitoo—Ngatitoo—to the rescue!" he was safely carried off to the ship without any casualty. A considerable quantity of muskets and ammunition and a small iron gun were also taken in the stockade. This capture was neatly effected. The "old serpent" (one of his nicknames) was always hatching mischief—his talent lying more in plots than in exploits. His was the treacherous head and Rangihaieta's the bloody hand that together perpetrated against their countrymen in former days, and against the whites more lately, a catalogue of crimes such as would make the Newgate Calendar a record of trifling incidents. The attention of "the fighting Governor"—thus was Grey styled by the Maoris—was now turned to Rangihaieta. A combined movement from Wellington, Porirua, and the Hutt

Valley across the hills, was planned. The arch-rebel's courage failed him, and he fled from Pahatanui with his followers before the force had assembled; and a party of militia, guided by friendly Maoris along a native path from the Hutt, slipped in, and secured the evacuated fortress. Had he remained and fought well, there would unquestionably been severe fighting, for the position and construction of the pah were remarkably strong. Rangihaieta, however, was aware that there were cannon at Porirua that would soon have levelled his wooded walls; and an artillery officer, by a bold nocturnal reconnaissance, had discovered a hill commanding the place, whence some well-directed salvos would have quickly dislodged the enemy. Perhaps his conscience made a coward of the once bold warrior. Hotly pressed, the rebel chief soon turned to bay on a spot which had been previously prepared for a stand—a rough breastwork of horizontal logs pierced for musketry having been drawn across a narrow and steep spur of a thickly-wooded hill—so narrow that but few men could approach abreast, and flanked by steep ravines. On the morning of 6th August 1846 this strong position was attacked, with little effect, and with the loss of a promising officer, Ensign Blackburn of the 99th Regiment, and two privates killed and nine wounded. Blackburn was shot dead by a Maori concealed in a tree, who was instantly brought to the ground by an artilleryman. Two small mortars having meanwhile arrived, the position was again attacked on the 8th. The height and thickness of the trees prevented the efficient practice of the shells; and the inaccessible nature of the country, with the evident intention of the enemy to abandon post after post, firing a few destructive volleys and then flying from their valueless positions with little or no loss to themselves—were considerations which together with the difficulty of subsisting so numerous a force, induced the officer commanding the expedition to desist from further pursuit of his slippery foe. The troops were accordingly withdrawn into the stockades, and the loyal natives in pursuance of their gallant offer were left to watch the enemy, to cut off his supply of provisions and water, and thus eventually to capture or drive him back. Servantes, the military interpreter, who in a short time had rendered himself perfect master of the Maori language, remained with the natives and reported progress. On the 13th the rebels opening a brisk fire on the loyalists, Puaha the leading chief of the latter rushed with his followers to meet them, and finding that the others retreated pressed forward and entered their works by the front as the rebels passed out by the rear. The poor wretches had been fairly starved out—no remains nor signs of provisions having been found in the camp except the mamuka, or edible fern. A day or two later the Christian chief Wiremu Kingi (William King) issuing from Waikanae, a missionary station on the sea coast, fell upon the rear of the discomfited rebels capturing a

few half-famished creatures who had been driven by hunger to approach the coast. Harassed on all sides Rangihaieta thought himself fortunate in making his escape to the mountains, almost totally denuded of his "tail." Had the friendly Maoris stuck with more constancy to the pursuit he must have been caught; for the captain of the *Calliope* who was on the coast near at hand had formed a plan for a joint attack upon him with these allies—which could hardly have failed. The troops returned from the bush-fight with their clothes and accoutrements so shredded by the rough underwood, and their persons so besmirched with rain, mud, and the smoke of bivouac fires, as to be in little better condition than Rangihaieta's hunted and ragged regiment of the Horokiwi. This turbulent chief was much humbled by these events, and never again appeared openly in arms against the British Government. In December 1846, soon after the defeat and dispersion of Rangihaieta and his "Taua" in the Horokiwi valley, in consequence of apprehensions entertained by the Governor for the safety of the settlement, the officer commanding the southern district, Lieut.-Colonel McCleverty, despatched for its protection from Wellington a force consisting of 185 men of all arms, including a few artillery, with nine officers. Sites were quickly selected for stockades and block-houses, officers and men were soon huddled in temporary warrees of reeds, the position was entrenched and surrounded with double palisades bullet-proof, and a few light guns and mortars were mounted. Rangihaieta was not far off, among his relations and friends at Manawatu. He does not appear to have co-operated directly with the revolted party at Wanganui; but he did not fail to divert himself according to his peculiar tastes—now plundering some poor unarmed settler, now levying tolls upon cattle on the coast road and driving them off. In April 1847, with thirty or forty wild hands in a single war-canoe, he made a descent on the island of Kapiti, where he laid under contribution an Englishman residing there—securing among other plunder some fire-arms and fifty pounds of gunpowder, with a supply of lead and bullet-moulds, doubtless the especial objects of his marauding visit. On the same day, and in suspicious connection with this expedition, occurred near Wanganui the appalling and sweeping massacre of the peaceful household of the Giffillan family, already narrated. In forty-eight hours after the receipt at Wellington of the news of the murder of the Giffillan family, the Lieut.-Colonel commanding had hired vessels and embarked for Wanganui a strong reinforcement. Captain Laye, assured that the execution of the murderers would exasperate to the utmost the passions of the ill-disposed natives, set to work to strengthen his position, clearing the glacies of brushwood, stockading two of the strongest houses at the extremities of the village, and levelling after a council of war the residence of a settler in the close vicinity of the camp which the

enemy, now assembled within two miles of the place, showed evident signs of occupying. He enrolled some of the gentlemen of the village as a volunteer corps, formed rallying places for the townsfolk, completed his supplies, and inspired all hands, civil, military, and naval (for from the first there was a gunboat at Wanganui under the orders of a most active officer) with a reliance on his forethought and determination which made them encounter cheerfully the privations inseparable from their position. First blood was drawn by the scouts of the enemy catching and tomahawking a soldier of the 58th, who in breach of orders had strayed away from the camp. The policy of the Maoris was to draw the garrison into a fight on ground chosen by themselves. Posting their forces on a hill about two miles off they tried every manœuvre to lure the British from their works—sometimes pushing skirmishers within one or two hundred yards of the palisades. The commander however, aware of the ambuscading habits of the Maoris, stood fast; and on one occasion, after a small party had played off until they were tired a multiplicity of insulting pranks without any success, he saw a body of about 150 men rise suddenly from among the fern where they were concealed and retire to the camp on the hill. Other parties of the enemy showed themselves on the opposite bank of the river, and the guns of the fort tried their range upon them with some effect. The chief, Mamuka, had about 400 or 500 men encamped; 300 more were reported to be coming down the river; and worse than all, the Christian natives of the district—with the exception of those belonging to the Missionary pah of Putiki, under the spiritual charge of the Rev. Mr. Taylor—arose in a mass and joined the hostile Tāua. On 18th May large bodies of the insurgents were seen approaching the place from all directions. They took possession of the surrounding hills and of several houses on the outskirts of the town, and keeping well under cover opened a harassing fire on the stockades, the village, and the gunboat in the river. Too weak in numbers to move out by daylight to attack the enemy, the captain despatched at night two strong parties to seize the buildings occupied by the foe—a duty which they gallantly performed—the Maoris plundering and evacuating them at the first onset. The troops suffered no loss, but the rebels, in addition to some thirty men wounded, lost a great fighting chief, Maketu by name, who was killed by a musket-shot in a house at a distant extremity of the village. Some hills rising just beyond this point were strongly occupied by the rebels, and a building immediately opposite the house before mentioned was stockaded and held by a captain's detachment—by one of whose men this shot was fired. At 150 paces the ball had passed through five planks, including the garden paling, as well as through the skull of the chief as he crouched on the floor fancying his person quite secure. Another minor chief was also

slain. After the fight their friends retired for a time to bake the bodies of the slain and to vow vengeance. They were seen the following morning sitting disconsolate on the hills lamenting their loss, and soon afterwards all had disappeared. On 4th June Colonel McCleverty arrived at Wanganui in the *Inflexible* with a strong reinforcement—raising the numbers in the camp to about 550 men, and assuming the command. During the week he made reconnaissances three or four miles up each bank of the river, thereby ascertaining that the enemy's camp which was posted on the right bank was covered by a series of entrenched ravines stretching from a swamp to the river; but that there was no regular pah. The Governor, who had repaired to Wanganui, took active interest in these movements as well as others. On the first occasion a naval party co-operating with the troops moving along the shore pushed up the river in boats, and landing in rear of these entrenchments, without any communication with their friends on land, burnt some of the huts of the hostile camp; and their leaders were displeased that the sister service did not turn the reconnaissance into an attack, and storm the breastworks and entrenched gulleys. The Colonel however feeling that a direct assault on so strong a position would be to play his adversary's game, resolved not to throw away his men for the poor result of winning a barren post—only taken up by the rebels to be abandoned after a double volley or two at the exposed soldiers—the utmost probable loss to themselves being a few kumeras and a cluster of raupo huts built in two or three hours. There was no particular end to be gained in precipitating an engagement on the enemy's ground. The lapse of every day would cause starvation, discontent, and the gradual dispersion of adversaries unprovided with stores and greatly in want of ammunition. On 1st July he beat up the quarters of a marauding party who were destroying property and driving away stock beyond the heights of St. John's Wood to the northward of the English camp, and succeeded in recovering some of the settlers' cattle. A few days afterwards the rebel tribes seemed to be gradually closing round the settlement—considerable numbers showing themselves on either side of the river as well as on the heights, distant about a mile and a-half from the town. So insolently bold were some of the native scouts in an attempt to cut off a herdsman and his charge under the very guns of the fortress, that two parties under active subalterns were sent to drive them off. The scouts fled—doubtless according to pre-arrangement—towards the hill of St. John's Wood, and up a steep ravine which had been strongly entrenched, and behind which among the trees a body of the rebels lay concealed. The soldiers dashing after the runaways were received with a heavy fire, which they of course returned, and an action was commenced. The Colonel having come up sent to the camp for reinforcements

the insurgents were strengthened from their supports in rear of the wooded heights; and in a short time about 400 men on either side were briskly engaged. The enemy had the advantage of strong earthen breastworks drawn across the narrow and rough ascent, with flanking entrenchments on the sides of the gully, while the troops were wholly exposed. Indeed no ground could well be more unfavourable for the attacking force. The only approach from the British stockades to the heights of St. John's Wood was along a narrow ridge of dry sand scarcely passable by three abreast, and hemmed in on either hand by deep swampy land, broken, yet affording no cover, for the long reeds were worse than none. A subaltern's party thrown out to the left for the purpose of turning the flank of the rebels, and diverting their attention from the main attack, found themselves suddenly over their knees in water and mud, whilst the tall and strong flags almost overtopped their heads—a helpless predicament in which an equal number of the more active and lighter-armed foe might have easily destroyed them. Had they not been promptly extricated such must have been their fate; for the enemy had marked their vulnerable position and were preparing to take advantage of it. This party reached the *terra firma* of a sand hillock trending into the morass, and were reinforced from the town just as a strong body of Maoris issued against them from the entrenchments. The small party of artillery, with a brass three-pounder and a field howitzer, pushing gallantly along the natural causeway, opened a fire on the fortified ravine, which was answered by a volley of musketry that put two of that corps *hors de combat*. A second subaltern's party, better posted, connected the right flank of the troops with the river, where the gunboat, under a lieutenant of the *Calliope*, confronted and drove back the chief Mamaku himself, who with a numerous band made an attempt to get into the rear of the British by the bank of the stream. In the hope of tempting the enemy from their cover the Colonel now tried the effect of a partial retreat, withdrawing and altering the position of the guns; which movement was no sooner observed by the Maoris than with a deafening shout they rushed boldly down the hill, and musket and tomahawk in hand fell upon the nearest of their white opponents. Then the soldiers, turning upon their savage assailants, charged the foremost at the distance of fifteen paces, overthrowing those who waited for the touch of the bayonet, and driving the others in hot haste back to their breastworks and reserves. On the British side one officer was wounded; and one of the 65th narrowly escaped being tomahawked by a warrior, who sprung on him while stumbling among the fern, but who was shot through the head by a soldier of the 58th, just in time to arrest the stroke. Two privates were killed and eleven wounded, one of whom died subsequently. Nothing but the well-known

awkwardness of the New Zealanders in the use of fire-arms can account for the small execution done by them during this skirmish. After the brisk brush just related, the rebels stuck fast to their works, which were admirably though only temporarily constructed—all approach to them being impossible except under a front and flank fire. The swampy nature of the ground at the foot of the range rendered abortive any attempt to turn the position, except by a long detour from the right—a detour which the Colonel would have seen right to attempt had the Maoris given him another opportunity of attacking them in the same position. The affair of the 19th, brought on by the rebels themselves, commenced too late in the day to admit of any circuitous manœuvring before action. It was difficult to obtain trustworthy information as to the enemy's loss. Three men are known to have been killed and ten wounded, of one clan—the Ngatiruaka—which, being connected with the Christian pah of Putiki, communicated to them the loss of their friends. The chief of this tribe, Paore te Hotite by name, was slain in a single combat, by a soldier of the 58th, who after bayonetting his antagonist, coolly walked off with his double-barrelled fowling-piece. Of the damage sustained by the various tribes headed by Mamaku, Te Hapua, Te Pehe, Ngopera, and others, little was heard; and great care, as usual, was taken by them to conceal its amount. In this action there were but two or three natives fighting on the side of the British; one of whom was wounded. Yet in none of the N.Z. battles would a strong band of native allies under an enterprising leader, acting on the flanks of the enemy in ground impracticable for the heavy soldier, have been more useful. On the side of the rebels there were many hitherto loyal Maoris; and among the wounded and the foremost assailants of the soldiers was a native teacher, one of a party who surprised and wounded Mr. McGregor of Wanganui in an attempt to reconnoitre from the top of Shakespeare's Cliff. He was chased down the hill and severely hurt by a shot; but his life was saved by the intrepidity of Mr. Middleton of the 58th, who, with the master of the schooner *Edward Stanley*, crossed the river, under a sharp fusillade, and picked him out of the water into which he had thrown himself. After the affair of St. John's Wood there occurred a singular scene. The natives of Putiki pah, anxious to know it had fared with their relatives in the enemy's camp, got permission from the colonel to visit them on the hills; and accordingly an animated bout of hand-shaking, nose-rubbing, and kororoing took place according to Maori custom in like cases. Two or three days later the hostile natives who still displayed considerable numbers on the heights and who occasionally exchanged shots with the British picquets returned the greetings of the Putikis. A chief named Te Hapua ran forward towards the English post with a piece of white paper on his ramrod and called for Hori Kingi

(George King) the chief of the Christian natives. A crowd of the Putikis, with the colonel's sanction, rushed into the plain beneath the stockades, and about a hundred of the rebel warriors came down to them and performed a war-dance in a dense body within easy reach of the guns. As a point of honour these were silent for a time; the crowd retired, and shortly afterwards a series of dances took place in succession along the whole crest of the ridge occupied by the enemy, showing that they were still there in considerable force. Their yells and roars resounded through the hills and were distinctly audible in the camp. The Putiki renegades were the first to desert the rebel ranks; and shortly afterwards the Tana broke up altogether from the British front and dispersed into winter quarters—a movement to which their desultory mode of warfare, the scarcity of ammunition and provisions (for these wild warriors had hitherto lived from hand to mouth by plundering the cattle and swine of the settlers and loyal natives,) the severe cold of the season, and perhaps the taste of the bayonet they had received, all contributed to incline them. A long-threatened assault on the British stockades never took effect, though it is said the storming parties for each with the chiefs to lead them had all been regularly “told off.” Their plan was to set fire to the reed huts of the cantonments within the palisades by throwing fire-sticks on them, and to rush to the attack during the confusion occasioned by the conflagration. Had they made this attempt with real determination to do or die, few of them would have escaped the latter fate. The grass roofs of the warrees had been rendered fire-proof by a covering of bread-bags steeped in lime-water, and there were upwards of 500 British soldiers within the forts with artillery, while the enemy, but little more numerous, had no guns. Superstition was one potential cause of the abandonment of the projected onslaught. On the evening of the night fixed for its execution the priests or seers consulted the relative positions of the moon and of a certain star—the former being considered to represent the beleaguering Tana, and the latter the British camp. These diplomatic horoscopists did not fail to discover that the aspect of the two luminaries was unpropitious to Maori success; for the crescent of the half moon had its back turned towards the flashing rays of the star, instead of threatening it with its horns, which would have been the favourable augury. The sustained blockade of the river, and other stringent measures enforced by the English, reduced the natives residing on its banks to the greatest straits; and, under the pressure of famine, a numerous deputation of men of note came down to the camp and tendered their submission to the officer in command. He assured them of the pardon of the Governor on certain conditions. In reviewing the Wanganui campaign there is found much to admire—many individual instances of gallantry, firmness, and self-devotion; much cheerfulness under hardship and privation.

The consummate tact of Governor Grey in the management of the Maoris was of good service subsequently in securing the co-operation of the friendly chiefs and their followers, as well as in deterring from active hostilities against the British the doubtful and wavering. With the skirmishes at Wanganui terminated the first N.Z. war. When Honi Heki first cut down the British standard and unfurled that of revolt in the country, there was no vessel of war on its seas, and only one company of soldiers on its soil. At the close of the Wanganui campaign in August 1847 there were two splendid regiments, full 900 strong each, a powerful naval force, including a steamship of 1200 tons, and a strong band of Pensioner Fencibles, gradually increasing in numbers. The elder chieftains, not ignorant of English tenacity of purpose, well knew that from whence these came more “hippas” and “hoias”—ships and soldiers—would be forthcoming if necessary. With such odds against them, the Maoris discovered that peaceable pursuits were more profitable than warfare. In January 1848 Governor Grey held a conference at Wanganni with the leaders of the Tana from the river districts, who had demanded an audience. Mamaku, the friend of Rangihaieta, and the head chief of the rebels, together with the main body of the tribes implicated in the late outbreak stayed away—perhaps because they were not permitted to treat with arms in their hands. But a fleet of large canoes was seen gliding with prodigious speed down the stream, and was quickly moored under Shakspeare's Cliff. A few of the chiefs then came across and were admitted to the Governor's presence in a room of one of the deserted houses. The Christian native Dawson, dressed in European costume, came forward boldly, though his loyalty was by no means beyond doubt, and spoke in behalf of his rebel brother Te Pehe. This man and Ngopera were at first extremely nervous, striving vainly for many minutes to recover their self-command. At length each spoke to the purpose of the conference, both acknowledging that they had joined in the war party against Wanganui, but averring that Mamaku had originated and was at the head of it. The koro ended by their promising that certain cattle, sheep, &c., the property of settlers which had been “lifted” during the rebellion should be restored, and that a murderer who had taken refuge up the river should be delivered up to British justice if he could be found. The Governor's pardon was guaranteed to them on the performance of their promise.

XVII. *The New Constitution.*—Limited in numbers and occupied with the immediate exigencies of their daily life, it is not easy to find amongst the first body of settlers just landed in a new country a sufficient number of men having the leisure, experience, and public spirit necessary for devising its fundamental laws; and following the course usually pursued on founding an English colony, the Executive and Legislative branches of

the Government of N.Z. were in the first instance composed of persons appointed by and responsible to the Crown. The political tutelage of the colony however was of short duration, and no other British dependency has ever been deemed fit for the enjoyment of free institutions at so early a period in its history. But to devise political institutions suited to the peculiar circumstances was no easy task. If the country had been colonised at only a single point there would have been little difficulty in framing for it a Constitution which, while securing Imperial interest, conferred on the settlers ample powers of representative self-government. But the task of governing N.Z. was complicated by serious practical difficulties. Instead of colonising from a single centre, several settlements were almost simultaneously planted at wide intervals on both the principal islands. These settlements were separated from each other by great distances, and communication even for persons on horseback existed only between three of them. The wide intervals between them were occupied by a native race estimated to consist of 120,000 souls, a very large proportion of whom were males capable of bearing arms. As early as 1842 a measure based on the principle of representative self-government was passed by the Legislature for the local government of the various settlements—a measure declared by the directors of the Company, to whom it was submitted for consideration, to be excellent and “admirably calculated in the main for carrying out the beneficial public objects for which it purports to be framed.” It was well received by the colonists, but on trifling and technical grounds disallowed by the Crown. The attempt thus made to prepare the settlers to take part in the management of public affairs was attended with small success. Nor was the measure subsequently passed with the same object during the administrations of Governors FitzRoy and Grey much more successful. More than once the settlers were again incorporated for purposes of local self-government. By charter conferred on the people of Auckland during Grey’s administration, the various hundreds into which the neighbouring country had been divided were erected into a municipality, and the settlers had conferred on them, not only the ordinary powers of an English town council, but extensive powers of self-government in all matters of local interest. But the opponents of the measure persuaded the settlers that the general revenues of the Province were sufficient, not only for the general Government, but also for purposes of local improvement; the burgesses became indifferent to the retention of the political power conferred on them; and in the course of a little more than a year they allowed it to expire. In all those measures the necessary powers of taxation were granted to the colonists for the purpose of promoting local improvements. For upwards of ten years after it was colonised N.Z. continued to form one undivided colony;

and a Legislative Council composed of Crown nominees, without any admixture of the popular element, was the sole depository of legislative power. In the year 1846 it was believed by the Home authorities that the time had arrived when a representative constitution might safely be granted. The measure devised for that object was framed by men who had paid great attention to colonial affairs, and who had access to all the information on the subject of N.Z. which the records of the Colonial Office could afford. But no sooner were its provisions made known in the colony than it was seen to be unfit for the country and the circumstances, and it was represented by the local authorities that the attempt to give effect to its provisions would endanger the peace of the country by exciting the fears of the native race for the preservation of their territorial rights. The Secretary of State promptly took measures for suspending its operation; and it is but an act of justice to Lord Grey to declare that few men would have had the good sense and the moral courage so readily to abandon a favourite measure in deference to the opinion of the local authorities. When the subject again came under consideration in 1852 the Imperial Government were in possession of Grey’s exposition of the circumstances of the country, and of the condition and character of its native people. The measure introduced by the Colonial Minister, Sir John Pakington, was discussed in both Houses of Parliament at considerable length: leading men of all parties taking part in the debate. The heads of the bill had been prepared while Lord Grey was Colonial Minister, and its general outlines were adopted by his successor. The greater number of its clauses however were taken from an ordinance passed in the colony itself for establishing Provincial Legislatures. In its progress through Parliament it underwent considerable alterations. Under these circumstances it can hardly be surprising that the new Constitution was found to be defective, and evinced on the part of its framers neither certainty of purpose nor unity of design. But whatever were its faults it conferred on the colonists almost unfettered powers of self-government; gave them the power of regulating the sale and disposal of the waste lands, and of moulding their political institutions to the circumstances of the country. By this Act the Islands were divided into six Provinces, and placed under the jurisdiction of one Supreme Legislature, composed of the Governor, a Legislative Council and House of Representatives, who formed the Colonial Parliament. The Governor represented the Queen; the Council, the Lords; and the House of Representatives, the Commons. The Upper House was to consist of twenty Members. No property qualification was prescribed for its Members; they were appointed by the Crown, held their offices for life, and were presided over by a Speaker appointed by the Governor. The House of Representatives consisted of thirty-seven Members elected by the

people for a period of five years, subject to the power of the Governor to dissolve the Assembly. No qualification was required for the Members other than that of being an elector; and the Speaker was chosen by the Members themselves. Thus constituted the General Assembly of New Zealand was authorised to legislate for the peace, order, and good government of the colony at large. But all its acts were liable to disallowance by the Crown. But as, with its numerous and widely-detached settlements, it was obvious that the colony could not be governed in detail by a single central authority, it was provided by the Constitution that for the local government of each of the Provinces there should be a Superintendent and a Provincial Legislative Council. The Superintendent was to be elected by the people of the Province, and his term of office, if not sooner dispossessed, was four years. The Members of the Provincial Councils were also elected by the people for the like period; but any Council was at any time liable to be dissolved by the Governor. The Superintendent and Council of each Province was authorised to make all such laws as might be required for the government of the Province—excepting on matters relating to the customs, courts of judicature, currency, weights and measures, post-office, bankruptcy, lighthouses, shipping dues, marriage, crown lands and native land, inflicting disabilities or restrictions on the native race, criminal law, and the law relating to inheritance. All laws made by the Provincial Legislatures were subject to the veto of the Governor, and might at any time be repealed by the General Assembly. The Elective Franchise was without distinction of race. Every man of the age of twenty-one or upwards who owned land of the value of £50, or a lease of the value of £10 a year, or being a householder occupying a tenement in a town of the annual value of £10, or in the country of the annual value of £5, if duly registered, was qualified to vote at the election of a Member of the House of Representatives and of the Provincial Council, and also of the Superintendent of the Province, and also to be himself eligible for the office of Superintendent, or of Member of the Provincial or General Legislature, or both. The Franchise was virtually equivalent to Universal Suffrage, and was the same as that prescribed by the Local Legislature in providing for the establishment of Provincial Councils. But the Local Legislature had provided that one-third of the members of the proposed councils should be appointed by the Crown. In one important particular the new Constitution was certainly the most liberal ever granted to a British colony; the possession of property not being prescribed as a qualification either for the office of Superintendent or for a seat in the General or Provincial Legislatures. As soon as the several Provincial Councils had met and held a session the General Assembly was convened. It soon became apparent that instead of drawing together and uniting the colonists in

the various and widely separated settlements, the new Constitution rather tended to perpetuate their isolation; and the Government took the earliest opportunity of pointing out the evil. "Seeing," said the Acting-Governor on opening the first session of the Assembly, "that the colony is composed of six detached settlements, each from another more than a hundred miles apart; with no facilities of intercommunication; planted by various founders, on different systems, each independent of the other; with little intercourse between them, either social or commercial; with no common sympathy; and heretofore without the slightest bond of union: seeing too that each of its several Provinces has been invested with larger powers of local legislation, it will rest with the General Assembly of these Islands whether N.Z. shall become one great nation, exercising a commanding influence in the Southern seas, or a collection of insignificant, divided and powerless petty States." But the inhabitants of the various Provinces having already been so long and so completely separated from each other, it soon became evident that the leaning of the majority of the members of the General Assembly itself was altogether provincial; that a provincial rather than a national feeling prevailed amongst them; and that their views and sympathies hardly extended beyond the Province they had been returned to represent. The tendency to provincial independence had shown itself in the whole of the Provincial Councils; and foreseeing that if some controlling check were not promptly interposed there would shortly be as many different kinds of law as there were Provinces in the colony, the Government continued urgently to direct the attention of the Assembly to the subject. It recommended that some guiding principle should be adopted whereby it might be determined on which of the subjects within the common jurisdiction of the General and Provincial Legislatures the superior authority should initiate legislation. This view gradually gained acceptance and was afterwards partially carried into effect; but the first session of the Assembly closed without any attempt to embody it in a substantial Act, and instead of controlling, the Assembly was in fact itself controlled by the Local Councils. At the second General Election the House of Representatives became still more provincial in its character; the superintendents of all the Provinces and many of the members of the Provincial Councils being elected to the House of Representatives. Comprising so many members interested in maintaining the importance of provincial institutions, the General Assembly failed to prove an efficient check on the growth of the mischievous multiplicity and diversity of provincial legislation. The whole of the six Provincial Councils thus left unchecked, passed during the first three years of their existence upwards of 200 provincial ordinances; and it was not until the Upper House in the Session of 1856 appointed a committee to

inquire into the subject that the Assembly appeared to be alive to the growing evil. In 1857 an Act was passed to enlarge the constituent power of the General Assembly, and designed to mould the Constitution in conformity with the wishes of the people.

XVIII. *The First General Assembly.*—The first session of the General Assembly will long be memorable in the constitutional history of N.Z. Liberal as were its provisions, the Constitution made no change in the principles on which the Executive Government of the colony had previously been conducted; nor did it make provision for securing to the Executive any medium of communication with the House of Assembly. By the Royal Letters Patent issued to the Governor subsequently to the passing of the Constitution Act, it was provided as before that the Government should be administered by the Governor himself under instructions from the Crown, with the advice and assistance of the Executive Council, consisting of the Senior Military Officer in command of Her Majesty's forces, the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and the Colonial Treasurer. The Governor was authorised to add to the Executive Council such other persons as he might deem to be capable and qualified to advise him; but such appointments were to be provisional only, and subject to be confirmed or disallowed by the Crown. Both by the terms of his commission and by the royal instructions the Governor was made directly responsible to the Crown; and no discretion was left him to delegate his authority or to relieve himself from responsibility in the conduct of the duties of his office. By the same instruments the members of the Executive Council were made responsible to Her Majesty; and no provision was made for enabling the Governor to establish the system of Ministerial responsibility. Hardly had the Assembly met, when the absence of any provision for securing that the Executive should be represented in the Legislature was seen to be a serious defect. When the necessary measures for bringing the Constitution into operation had been completed, and after the Provincial Councils had all met for the despatch of business, Governor Grey proceeded to England on leave of absence; and Colonel Wynyard of the 58th Regiment, senior officer in command of the troops, became the temporary administrator of the Government. When he entered on the duties of office, the crowning act for giving effect to the Constitution was still to be performed. Wynyard would gladly have allowed the Assembly to continue in abeyance, and left the responsibility of convening that body to the permanent Governor of the colony. It was uncertain however when Grey would return, or when his successor would be appointed; and acting the bolder part Wynyard promptly summoned the Assembly to meet at Auckland on 24th May 1854. Grey left N.Z. on 31st December 1853, and soon after his arrival in England was promoted by the Duke of Newcastle to the Government

of the Cape of Good Hope. His successor, Colonel Thomas Gore Browne, did not reach the colony until 4th September 1855. If Wynyard had not undertaken the responsibility of convening the Assembly, the supreme legislature of the colony must have remained in abeyance for a period of two years longer. Amongst the members returned to the House of Representatives at the first general election were several experienced and able men. Conspicuous amongst them was Edward Gibbon Wakefield. Possessing acknowledged ability, the chief promoter of the colonisation of N.Z., the founder of the modern school of colonial politicians, and justly described as "one of the shrewdest of mankind," Wakefield naturally filled a large space in the colonial Parliament. Although assembled from all parts of the colony—some of them from a distance of more than seven hundred miles—thirty-three of the thirty-seven members attended the summons, two seats being vacant. The formal preliminaries having been completed, the Acting-Governor proceeded to open the business of the Assembly on 27th May, in an elaborate address, prefaced by a statement of the considerations which had induced him to summon the Assembly:—"Possessing the necessary legal authority, and seeing that Her Majesty's subjects in N.Z. have a right to the exercise of the powers conferred on them by the British Parliament, I felt that I ought not to allow considerations personal to myself to disappoint their expectations, and to delay them indefinitely in the enjoyment of their Constitutional privileges. Trusting that under the circumstances under which the government of the country has devolved upon myself, I may rely on your friendly co-operation and cordial support, I determined to summon, and I have this day been allowed the memorable privilege of opening, the First Parliament of New Zealand." This prompt action was gratefully appreciated by the House of Representatives, who recorded their sense of the benefit which Wynyard conferred on the colony by convening the Assembly at the earliest period after it became his duty to assume the Government of the country. It soon became obvious however that the popular branch of the Legislature was rather intent on increasing its power over the Executive Government than on securing the country from an accumulating mass of conflicting provincial legislation. Immediately after the adoption of the answer to the opening address, a resolution was moved by Wakefield, "That amongst the objects which the House desires to see accomplished without delay, the most important is the establishment of Ministerial Responsibility in the conduct of Legislative and Executive proceedings by the Governor." The subject was discussed in a debate of three days' continuance—if debate it may be called in which no difference of opinion was expressed. By many of the members the subject was imperfectly understood; but the way having been opened by the mover's explanatory speech,

every other member followed the lead and delivered to the House his sentiments on the subject. An amendment for a select committee to report on the time and mode in which the principle of responsible Government should be brought into operation, so as to guard the interests of both races, was negatived by a majority of twenty-nine to one; and the original motion having been carried by acclamation, was followed up by an address to the officer administering the Government, praying him to take the previous resolution into his serious and early consideration. An amendment was moved that the Crown was the only proper and competent authority to be appealed to on the subject; but the delay even of a few months for reference to England was distasteful to the House, and the motion was rejected by twenty-five to two. The proceedings of the House of Representatives, thus united almost to a man, were no doubt calculated, even if not intended, to coerce the Government into compliance with their views. The demand thus made on the Head of the Executive—for the all but unanimous resolutions of the representative body could hardly be regarded in any other light—was that the senior officer in command of the troops, taking advantage of the absence of the Governor, and without waiting for the sanction of the Crown, should alter the fundamental principles on which the Government of the colony was conducted; that he should take on himself the responsibility of accepting the resignations of the advisers appointed by the Crown; that instead of administering the Government under instructions from the Crown, with the advice and assistance of a Council appointed by and responsible to the Crown, he should appoint to the principal offices of the Government members of the General Assembly responsible to the Assembly, and should carry on the Government of the country in obedience to their commands; that he should subject the native race to the dominion of their European fellow-subjects; and virtually surrender the powers of the Crown to the representatives of the people. It was not within the power of the Acting-Governor to carry out these demands; nor had it been so was it in the power of the House to enforce them; for by an oversight in the Constitution Act, the House of Representatives had not at that time the power of “stopping supplies.” On establishing representative institutions it would no doubt have been desirable that the Governor should be in a position to call to his Councils, and to appoint to the principal offices of the Government, persons in whom the colonists would confide to give free scope to the development of the new Constitution. The difficulty in the way of this arrangement arose from the fact that the holders of those offices held virtually permanent appointments from the Crown, which in the absence of misconduct on their parts they could not be called on by the Acting-Governor to resign. It was not in Wynyard’s power to change

either the principles of the Government or the persons by whom it was administered. It was however competent for him under the provisions of the Charter to add to the Executive Council such persons as he might deem qualified to advise him; and this was the only Constitutional means in his power of establishing a medium of communication with and securing the representation of the Government in the two Houses. The mover and seconder of the address in answer to the opening speech were accordingly “sent for” by the Acting-Governor and made acquainted with the course which, as a temporary expedient, he was prepared to pursue. “The officer administering the Government has acquainted us,” said the member who undertook to form the new Government, in communicating the result of their interview to the House of Representatives, “that he is prepared to carry out immediately the principle lately assented to by the House with respect to responsible government, so far as he is advised that it is in his power to do so; that is to say, to appoint some additional members of the Executive Council, who shall be charged with the policy of the Government, but who shall hold their seats in the Executive Council only so long as they shall command the confidence of the Houses of the Legislature.” Four leading members of the Assembly were accordingly added to the Executive Council. Without being appointed to specific offices, they were entrusted with the duty of conducting the Government business through the two chambers, and of preparing and superintending in their progress the measures necessary for giving effect to the policy of the Government; and they took office on the condition of holding their appointments so long only as they should retain the confidence of the Legislature. The official members of the Executive—the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and the Colonial Treasurer—continued to hold office until—consistently with a due regard to the public convenience, their duty as the appointed advisers of the Acting-Governor, and the servants of the Crown—they could with propriety retire. Wynyard had the satisfaction to find that the course pursued by him, in thus giving effect as far as it was in his power to do so, to the principle of responsible Government, proved satisfactory to the Assembly. For a period of several weeks the business of the session was carried on without difficulty in both Houses; and the most harmonious relations were established between the Executive and Legislative branches of the Government. The newly-appointed members of the Executive received the entire confidence of the Acting-Governor and the support of the working majority in the House of Representatives. But they soon became dissatisfied with their anomalous position; and before they had been two months in office they pressed the Acting-Governor to make further concessions; urging that the Colonial Secretary,

Attorney-General and Colonial Treasurer (proper pensions being provided for them) should immediately retire, and that the Government should be reconstituted on the ordinary responsible basis. In support of their views they urged that a formidable opposition had been formed in the House; that the Assembly would be unwilling to place in the hands of a government over whom they had no control the large powers proposed to be conferred on the Executive by measures at that time before the House; and that there was reason to believe that the House would not grant the supplies, except on the security that the Government would for the future be conducted in accordance with the will of the Assembly. Satisfied that he had no power to establish Responsible Government in a complete form, and that he could not, without a violation of the Charter, undertake that the Government of the colony should be conducted in accordance with the will of the Legislature, the Acting-Governor refused to comply with their demands. Neither on his own part however nor on that of his advisers was there manifested any disposition personally to stand in the way of arrangements for increasing the strength of the general government, and for establishing harmonious relations with the Houses of Assembly. But the members of the Executive were not prepared to advise the head of the Government to comply with those new demands. Nor were the time and circumstances favourable for making so sudden and complete a change in the administration of public affairs. The native race were still sensitively jealous of being governed otherwise than directly by the representative of the Crown; the Governor himself was absent from the colony; and a single false step or an ill-considered measure on the part of the Executive might again involve the country in a destructive native war. Wynyard's constitutional advisers therefore, who had been in office almost from the foundation of the colony, and on whose prudence and experience he would naturally be disposed to rely, felt that in the midst of a threatening political crisis they could not leave the temporary administrator of the Government to a council of new and untried men without incurring the imputation of abandoning their posts, bartering their places for a pension, and deserting the Acting-Governor in the hour of need. They all declared their readiness to retire from office if called upon to do so by Her Majesty's representative; but under the circumstances of his position they refused to advise him either to call on them for or even to accept their resignations. Failing to move him from his original position, Wynyard's new advisers resigned their seats in the Executive Council; and the new cloth which had been let into the old Government being thus torn away the rent was made worse. A long and angry altercation ensued between the Acting-Governor and the Assembly. At length matters came to a crisis. The House of Representatives passed a series

of resolutions daring the Government either to prorogue or dissolve the Assembly without asking for supplies; directing the Speaker to warn all receivers of public revenues that the penalties of the law would be enforced against them if they expended the revenues without the sanction of the Assembly; and resolving that Her Majesty be addressed forthwith to remove the members of the old Executive. The minority left the House or took no part; all pretence of deliberation was thrown aside; and before the ink was dry with which they were recorded, these and several other resolutions of a like character, were put and carried. In the midst of the proceedings a member entered the House and announced that the Assembly had been prorogued. A scene of uproar and confusion immediately ensued, little befitting the character of a deliberative assembly. Order having at length been restored, and the defiant resolutions having been hurriedly passed, a message from the Acting-Governor was read; it was found to convey official information that the Assembly was prorogued for a fortnight. During the period for which the Assembly had been in session not a single enactment had been added to the Statute Book, and the labours of the first session of the General Assembly were thus brought to an untimely and unprofitable end. The general excitement was so great that for several days after the temporary prorogation all prospect of a peaceable termination of the struggle appeared hopeless; and it was probable that to allow the Assembly to meet again at the end of the fortnight would be simply to provoke a renewal of unseemly strife; indeed for a while there seemed no course open to the Government but to prorogue the Assembly *sine die*, and in the meantime—the existing revenues by an oversight in the Constitution not having been placed at the disposal of the Assembly—to carry on the strictly necessary expenditure, subject to their responsibility to the Crown. Wakefield, though declaring his own unwillingness to become a member of the Executive Council, endeavoured but in vain to strengthen the Government. But it was evident that any Government in which he was even supposed to have an influence would be distasteful to a majority of the House; and amongst the minority it was impossible to find members for the several provinces of sufficient weight and influence to secure for the General Government the confidence of the country. Finding himself powerless, and believing that the Government was about to act independently of his advice, Wakefield retired from his anomalous position as temporary adviser of the Government, which he had retained even after his resignation as a responsible Minister. The prompt action of the Government in proroguing the Assembly took the majority by surprise; but it was evident that so long as the members could meet in the House, irritation and excitement would be kept alive, without a moment's time for cool reflection. The course pursued by the Executive

was followed by the most complete success. At first the members could hardly realise the powerless condition to which they had been suddenly reduced by having the doors of the House closed against them. The most influential portion of the press denounced their violent proceedings; the general community were indifferent, if not actually hostile to them; not a single expression of public sympathy was given in their favour, nor was a single public meeting got up in their behalf. With reflection came the unwelcome conviction that the Government were in fact masters of the situation; that the sinews of war were in their hands; that the revenues of the colony were neither *de jure* nor *de facto* subject to the approbation of the Assembly; and that if the Assembly refused to proceed with the business of the session, the Government were prepared to incur the responsibility of applying the public revenues to the maintenance of the public service. Under these circumstances, and with time for reflection, the members of the House could hardly avoid the conclusion that they were engaged in a hopeless contest. Private and personal considerations, too, with many of them were not without their weight. It had always been intended that a sum to defray the expenses of the members should be placed on the estimates; but the supplies had not been voted, and not one measure of public utility had been passed. Their travelling expenses and the cost of living three months from home amounted to no inconsiderable sum, to many of them a matter of serious consideration. The prospect of returning to their constituencies at their own charges, and without being able to point to a single useful measure as the result of their deliberations, was not without its sobering effect. Their fear also of Wakefield's ascendancy had been removed, and his retirement had the effect of paving the way for the restoration of a better feeling towards the Government on the part of the majority; so that before the end of the short recess all idea of further contest was abandoned, and how to retrieve themselves from the dilemma became the subject of common thought. Having ascertained through various channels that, if allowed to meet again, the House would proceed with the business of legislation, and vote the necessary supplies, the Government determined that the Parliament should re-assemble at the expiration of the period for which the Assembly had been prorogued. Wakefield had ceased to act as adviser in the emergency; but the party who acknowledged him as their leader still believed that a mixed Government might be formed which could successfully conduct the government of the country; and that if represented in the Executive Council, they could themselves devise and carry out a course of policy so obviously beneficial to the colony as to secure for the Government the support of a working majority in the Assembly. The Government however were not prepared to retain permanently in the Executive Council members who should

be proved to want the confidence of the Assembly. Four members of the minority were however appointed to the Executive Council, on condition that if the course of policy to be at once announced by them should be met by a vote of want of confidence on the part of the House, they should immediately retire. Hardly had their appointments been gazetted than their resignations were announced. On the re-assembling of the House at the termination of the recess their policy was formally announced to the Assembly; if it had been the perfection of human wisdom it would have been, under the circumstances, no less summarily rejected. Almost without discussion it was put to the vote and negatived by a decisive majority—the House agreeing to an amendment, “That a mixed Executive, as then constituted, composed in part of irresponsible officers, and in part of members drawn from a small minority of the House—a Ministry constructed on a delusive theory of representation of provincial interests—was a form of government in which the House declared its absolute want of confidence.” Nothing therefore remained for the Ministers of a day but to tender their resignations; which were immediately accepted. Thus the majority, Wakefield, and the minority, had each in turn made the attempt; and it had been demonstrated by a kind of exhaustive process, that consistently with the powers of the Acting-Governor no better form of Government could at present be established than that which was in existence when the Assembly first met. The same majority of twenty-two to ten, who on 15th August had denounced the Government as weak and incompetent; had discussed whether the Acting-Governor would deem it wise to return to the original state of things, and to attempt to carry on the government with his present officers; had resolved to pray Her Majesty forthwith to dismiss them; and had all but threatened to stop the supplies; agreed on the 1st of September to a mild, conciliatory address, recording the opinion (which the Government entertained from the outset) that until Responsible Government in a complete form should be established by competent authority, the Executive Government should be continued as formerly under the exclusive management of those public officers who derived their authority from and were responsible to Her Majesty; at the same time declaring their readiness to grant supplies to a Government conducted by the old Executive officers. Wynyard had always been ready to bury past differences in oblivion, and the pacific overtures of the House were met by him in a conciliatory reply. The old *régime* having been restored by common consent, all parties set themselves assiduously to the real business of legislation; and on proroguing the Assembly the Acting-Governor was able to congratulate its members on the amount of useful legislation they had accomplished during the brief period which had elapsed since the commencement of the session. In the course of little more than six months Wynyard was enabled to inform the

colonists that Her Majesty's ministers had sanctioned the establishment of responsible government, subject to the single condition that provision should be made for those officers of the Executive who had accepted their appointments on the understanding of their permanence. But the House of Representatives had become less eager on the subject. A year before the House had negatived by a majority of twenty-five to two a motion for the short delay for a reference to England. Now that competent authority had been obtained, the House by a majority of sixteen to three put a stop to the progress of a necessary preliminary measure for bringing the principle of responsible government into operation, and agreed to a resolution, "That seeing that it is intended to defer the introduction of responsible government until after a dissolution of the Assembly and a re-election, this House is of opinion that it is desirable to refer the question of providing compensation for retiring officers for the next Assembly." The eagerness for responsible government seemed to have changed sides, the Government pressing forward, the House making difficulties and suggestions for delay. At the commencement of the session however the Acting-Governor informed the House that it only rested with themselves to take the necessary steps; and at the conclusion of the session Governor Browne, who had just arrived in the colony, announced that he should hereafter defer all subjects of importance not requiring immediate attention, until the contemplated change in the Government should have taken place. With the old Executive still in office, without any official medium of communication between the Government and the Legislature, the business of the Assembly was easily conducted through the two chambers, and the short session of 1855, without being fruitful of much actual legislation, was brought to a peaceful close.

XIX. Responsible Government.—The measure providing for their retirement having become law on 7th May 1856 the Members of the old Executive were superseded by Members of the Assembly who were appointed to office on the responsible system. Unfortunately no special provision was made for the government of the native race; and because, with few exceptions, they take no part in the exercise of the elective franchise nor exercise any influence on party combinations, it appears to have been assumed that they could form no difficulty in conducting the government of the country. Without imposing any limitation or restriction, or securing adequate funds and providing guarantee for the special government of the native race, it was declared by the Colonial Minister, in answer to the petition of the Legislature, that Her Majesty's Government had no objection whatever to offer to the establishment of the system known as Responsible Government; and the Governor, then recently appointed to succeed Sir George Grey, left England with full authority to carry the principle into effect. On his arrival in the colony Governor Browne was very earnest in his desire to

see the Representative Constitution carried to the utmost limits of its development; but he had hardly completed the tour of the Islands before he was satisfied that the New Zealanders were not only warlike and well armed, but a still unconquered race; more numerous by far than the colonists, and hardly inferior to them as consumers of British manufactures and as contributors to the revenue and exports of the colony; the acknowledged owners of the soil, jealous of their territorial rights, impatient of control, and by no means prepared to see themselves handed over to a Government composed of unknown individuals, not chosen by themselves and irresponsible to the Crown. Her Majesty's native subjects, not the colonists, were the real "difficulty" in the government of N.Z. While on a visit to the Waikato district, several of the chiefs formally addressed the Governor on the subject of the rumoured changes by which their minds had been disturbed. The main purport of their speeches was to urge that no alteration should be made in the administration of native affairs. That they preferred being under the direct management of the Governor; and that it was not just that the Maoris should be placed entirely in the power of the white man; that salt water and fresh water do not exist well together; and that if their affairs were to be put into the hands of any Assembly, they should be placed in the hands of one consisting of their own race. Convinced that with reference to the government of the natives, the tranquillity of the country would be endangered by changes of opinions consequent on changes of advisers, Browne, while undertaking in all matters under the control of the Assembly to be guided by the advice of ministers responsible to it, found it necessary to limit the application of the principle of responsibility with reference to the native race, and especially in the purchase of native lands. He proposed to retain in his own hands the direction of native affairs. He was fortified in this resolve by the opinions of the best-informed persons in the country. He addressed a circular to different persons in various parts of the colony, of various political opinions, but all having more than ordinary knowledge of the native character, desiring their opinion:—Whether the management of native affairs could be entrusted to a Ministry liable to be changed at frequent intervals on political grounds? Or whether the management of native affairs, including the appointment of persons employed and the disposal of funds sufficient for the purpose, should be reserved to Her Majesty's Representative? The reasons and arguments of those to whom the questions had been addressed were various; their conclusions however were all but unanimous. More than forty gave a decided opinion that the management of native affairs could not safely be left to a Ministry not responsible to the Crown; and that the government of the native race should continue to be administered by the Queen's Representative; two only, subject to

qualification, arrived at a different conclusion. It was urged that native races look more to the persons governing than to the principles on which the government is formed; that they value permanence and stability; and are sensitive on the point of being allowed to deal directly with the principal, rather than with subaltern officers; that the general animus of the colonists was not favourable to the race, and it was not probable that the members of any Responsible Ministry would be especially acquainted with the native habits and feelings, or personally known to and respected by them; that special attention to native rights and interests would be by no means popular, and Ministers would not be induced to give any personal influence amongst them; and that, being left to be dealt with by subordinates, the Chiefs would gradually secede from communication with the authorities, forming leagues and schemes in secret of which the Government would have no cognisance. That they would thus become estranged, and when they came to be feared and suspected there would be constant risk of the Governor being driven by the Ministers to use the troops against them; and that the country would not be safe for six months after the question of peace and war had been entrusted to a Ministry who had virtually the command of the Queen's troops, but who were themselves irresponsible to the Crown. It was represented also that the natives being very susceptible of personal attachment, if the officers employed in the department were appointed and subject to removal by the Ministry for the time being, few would remain in office long enough to obtain an influence over them. That a nation just emerging from barbarism cannot be advanced in the scale of social life by mere negation of evil, and that a veto on the part of the Governor could only enable him to prevent injustice but not to do good. That a Ministry chosen by and from the elected representatives could have no claims to absolute authority over the Maori race; and that while the colonists claimed for themselves representative institutions and an irresponsible Ministry, they could not in reason refuse to the natives that form of Government which they preferred. And that the just and generous course would be to ascertain what amount of annual revenue was contributed by the native race; to pay into the General Treasury the proportion of income due to works and objects in which both races had a common interest, and to place the surplus at the disposal of the Governor for strictly native purposes; thus placing the native race in the position of a distant province paying a certain portion of the general revenue, and retaining the remainder for its own local expenditure. The course proposed by the Governor received the approval of Her Majesty; but no permanent provision was made for the efficient maintenance of this divided rule. It is well known what great influence, during his lengthened administration of affairs, Sir George Grey obtained amongst the natives, and with what

ability that influence was exercised; but Grey could not have acquired that influence nor have exercised it with so much advantage to the country if his powers had been restricted, and if his prestige had been impaired by the control of a board of officers subordinate to himself. Yet under all the difficulties arising out of the peculiar circumstances of the country the experiment of Responsible Government would bear comparison with that of the Australian Colonies, both as regards its practical success, and for the prudence, judgment, and moderation with which the change had been effected. Henceforward political office could only be filled by members of the Assembly; and every colonist was a possible minister, superintendent, or member of Parliament. To quote the words of the Acting-Governor in his opening address:—"To preserve and advance in the scale of civilisation the native inhabitants of these islands—to develop the resources of a country rich in all the elements of future national greatness—to be the pioneers for its colonisation by the Anglo-Saxon race—to lay the foundation of its religious, political and social institutions—to give laws to the present, and to influence the character of a future, generation—became henceforward the rare duty and the noble privilege of the Parliament of New Zealand."

XX. *The Maori King Movement.*—The attempt made by certain of the tribes in 1857 to unite themselves under a king, whether for the purpose of maintaining their nationality, consolidating their power, or raising themselves from barbarism by means of laws and institutions made and administered by themselves, showed a remarkable feature in the character of the race. When the movement for setting up a Maori King first attracted attention it was viewed by the authorities not only without apprehension, but as offering under wise guidance an opening for good. "If the Government," wrote Governor Browne, "does not take the lead and direction of the native movement into its own hands, the time will pass when it will be possible to do so. The influence of oratory, and perhaps evil counsel, aided by the actual excitement of the natives, may incline them to make laws of their own at these meetings, and thus add to the present difficulty; but they will probably refrain from doing so if they see that the Government is actually doing what they wish." But in the following year the Governor entertained a different view. "I trust," he said, "that time and absolute indifference and neglect on the part of the Government will teach the natives the folly of proceedings undertaken only at the promptings of vanity, and instigated by disappointed advisers." And until a general feeling of apprehension had been excited in the native mind by the military occupation of the Waitara, the movement had little or no vitality which, by prudent guidance, might not have been turned to valuable account. The object of a large section of the natives was distinctly expressed at

a great meeting held at the Waikato in April 1857, at which the Governor was present. It was understood by them that His Excellency promised to introduce amongst them institutions of law founded on the principle of self-government, analogous to British institutions and presided over by the British Government. "I was present," says the Rev. Mr. Ashwell, referring to that meeting, "when Te Wharepu, Paehia, with Potatau, asked the Governor for a magistrate, laws, and runangas, which he assented to; and some of the natives took off their hats and cried 'Hurrah!' I want order and laws," were in fact the first words of the leading member of the movement for establishing a Maori King: "The King would give us these better than the Governor, for the Governor has never done anything except when a Pakeha was killed; he lets us kill each other and fight. A king would stop these evils." The two most active leaders of the movement were representative men of the new generation of Maori chiefs. William Thompson was remarkably silent and reserved; listened patiently to what was said, but thought and decided for himself. He spent a great part of his time in writing; noting down everything remarkable he saw, heard, or read; and engaged in constant correspondence with all parts of the country. He was well versed in Scripture history;—a fluent speaker and a formidable antagonist in debate. Though the son of a celebrated warrior he prided himself on his character as a peacemaker. When several hundred armed natives descended the Waikato River in a state of dangerous excitement, to enquire into the violent death of one of their countrymen in the neighbourhood of Auckland, he formed one of the party for the purpose of restraining them, and was largely influential in keeping them from mischief. Several unruly and headstrong members of his tribe went to Taranaki to the support of William King, but it was without his sanction or authority; and he afterwards proceeded to the seat of war, and succeeded, though not without great difficulty, in withdrawing them, and in bringing about a general cessation of hostilities. "I thought," he said, describing his own share in the movement, "about building a large house as a house of meeting for the tribes who were living at variance in N.Z., and who would not become united. That house was erected, and was called Babel. I then sent my thoughts to seek some plan by which the Maori tribes should become united, that they should assemble together and the people become one, like the Pakehas. Evil still manifested itself; the river of blood was not yet stopped. The ministers acted bravely, and so did I, but the flow of blood did not cease. When you came, the river of blood was still open, and I therefore sought for some thought to cause it to cease, as the ministers had long persevered. I considered how this blood could be made to diminish in this Island. I looked into your books where Israel cried to have a king for

themselves, to be a judge over them, and I looked at the words of Moses in Deuteronomy xvii. 15, and in 1 Samuel viii. 4, and I kept these words in my memory through all the years;—the land feuds continuing all the time, and blood still being spilt, I still meditating upon the matters, when we arrived at the year 1857. Te Heuheu called a meeting at Tanpo. Twice 800 were assembled there, when the news of that meeting reached me. I said, I will consent to this to assist my work, that the religion of those tribes that had not yet united might have time to breathe. I commenced at those words in the Book of Samuel viii. 5: 'Givo us a King to judge us.' This was why I set up Potatau in the year 1857. On his being set up, the blood at once ceased, and has so remained up to the present year. The reason why I set up Potatau as a king for me was, he was a man of extended influence, and one who was respected by the tribes of this Island. That, O friend! was why I set him up; to put down my troubles, to hold the land of the slave, and to judge the offences of the chiefs. The King was set up; the Runangas were set up; the Kai-whakawas were set up, and religion was set up. The works of my ancestors have ceased, they are diminishing at the present time; what I say is, that the blood of the Maoris has ceased to flow. I don't allude to this blood (lately shed.) It was your hasty work caused that blood. I do not desire to cast the Queen from this Island, but from my piece of land. I am to be the person to overlook my piece." A similar account of the origin of the movement was given by Renata, another of its earliest and most influential supporters. After passing some time in captivity in the North, where he received (in 1842-3) some teaching at the Waimate school, Renata returned to his own people in the Hawkes Bay district, where both with the settlers and the natives he established a high character for ability and integrity. For several years he was engaged in promoting the building of native churches, schools and flour mills; for some time he employed at his own cost an English teacher to instruct the native children. "It was my wrongs unredressed by you," he said, "that induced me to set about to work out an idea of my own: that is, Waikato, the tribe who set it going. They were in doubt whether to term chief or governor, and neither suited, and they established him as the Maori King; it was tried experimentally, and proved as a means of redress for wrongs not settled by you, by the Government. The only wrongs you redressed were those against yourselves; but as for those all over the breadth of the country, you left them unnoticed. Sir, the enemies he (the Maori King) had to fight with were the crimes of the Maori; his murders, his thefts, his adulteries, his drunkenness, his selling land by stealth. These were what he had to deal with. Did I set up any king in secret? As I view it, Waikato wished

that his authority should emanate from the Governor. And then it was that we tried to do the best we could for ourselves. When it was seen that evil was partly put down by the Runanga, and the stupid drunkards became men once more, then the work (the King movement) became general. But is this (King movement) indeed to cause a division between us? No, it will be caused by secret purchases of land, the thing which has been going on for years." And Renata was careful to make it clear that the promoters of the movement had no intention to subvert the Queen's authority. "You say, 'The Maoris are not able to fight against the Queen of England, and kill (prevail against) her.' This is my answer. Sir, you know perfectly well that the Maori will be beaten; though it be said that this war is for sovereignty, the fault of the Governor can never be concealed by that. Who is the Maori that is such a fool as to be mistaken about the sovereignty or supremacy of the Queen of England? Or who will throw himself away in fighting for such a cause? No, it is for land; for land has been the prime cause of war amongst the Maoris from time immemorial down to the arrival of Pakehas in this island of ours. The Maori will not be daunted by his weakness, by his inferiority, or the smallness of his tribe; he sees his land going, and will he sit still? No; but he will take himself off (to resist.) The Queen's sovereignty has been acknowledged long ago; had it been to fight for supremacy, probably every man in this island would have been up in arms; but in the present case the fighting is confined to the land which is being taken possession of. There is a letter of William King's lying here, in which he says that if his land is evacuated he will put a stop to the fighting. It was proposed to leave it to the Queen to judge between the Governor and William King; you witnessed the general assent of all to that proposal that the Queen should be the judge. Well, does this look in your opinion like a rebellious word in regard to the Queen, that you have left it out of sight, and taken up that word of your own invention about the Maori making war against the Queen? Sir, the Maori does not consider that he is fighting against the Queen; I beg therefore that you will cease to pervert words, and rather consent to our proposal that we should all join in writing a letter to the Governor (to propose) that the war may be stopped, and that it may be left for the Queen to decide in this quarrel; and then let us write a letter to the Queen (to pray) that she will send a Commissioner (Kainhakawa) to stand between us, and let us all join together in inquiring into this dispute. Cease (arbitration) by guns, and now let it be left to inquiry, that a remnant of men be left." After a careful inquiry into the subject a Committee of the House of Representatives, comprising several of its leading members, reported their opinion in 1860 that a great movement had been going on amongst the native people, having for its

main object the establishment of some settled authority amongst themselves; that such movement need not have been the subject of alarm; that its objects were not necessarily inconsistent with the recognition of the Queen's supreme authority or with the progress of colonisation; and that it would have been from the first, and would then be, unwise to contradict it by positive resistance. Before the commencement of the Taranaki insurrection the colony was in a state of profound peace. For a period of several years friendly relations had been maintained between the settlers and the natives, and the colony had been making steady progress in agriculture, commerce, population, and wealth. Upwards of thirty millions of acres had been obtained from the native owners for purposes of colonisation; internal feuds had almost ceased; a growing desire for the establishment of law and order amongst them was showing itself amongst the natives in all parts of the country; and with wise government and prudent conduct on the part of the settlers there appeared to be a fair prospect of uninterrupted prosperity and peace. The new Governor had not been many months in the colony before he discovered, and like his predecessors pointed out, the danger of provoking a conflict with the natives. "In any real trial of strength between the natives and Europeans," he reported, "there can be no possible doubt as to the result. But it is not less certain that pending its duration a vast amount of life and property would be destroyed; numbers of thriving settlers would abandon their houses; immigration would entirely cease; and a great expense would be entailed on the Mother Country. In other words the prosperity of the colony would be annihilated for years after the termination of a struggle as successful as could be desired." Six years previously the Native Secretary had recorded his opinion, "that military operations in the Taranaki district would prove fatal to the prosperity of the settlement for some time to come, as the settlers would have to concentrate themselves in town for the protection of their wives and families, and their properties in the meantime would go to ruin." More recently the Governor had informed the Colonial Minister, "that the immediate consequences of any attempt to acquire Maori lands, without previously extinguishing the native title to the satisfaction of all having an immediate interest in them, would be an universal outbreak, in which many innocent Europeans would perish, and colonisation would be indefinitely retarded." Yet after having acquired more than thirty millions of acres of land under a system satisfactory, in the main, both to the buyer and the sellers, a new policy was believed by the natives to have been attempted, and the Province of Taranaki was plunged into a civil war, by an attempt to obtain possession by military force of native land with a doubtful or disputed title. When the British first became acquainted with N.Z., the whole country

from the North Cape to Stewart's Island was parcelled out by natural or other well-known landmarks amongst the numerous tribes and families of the Maori race. Each community held its land in common; but every individual member, besides having a general interest in the tribal property, might acquire by inheritance, by his own labour, or otherwise, a possessory or holding title to a specific portion, but was not allowed to exercise a disposing power over it. "It is right," said an intelligent chief, "that every individual should be free to sell his own bushel of wheat, potatoes and corn, for they are produced by the labour of his hands; but the land is an inheritance from our ancestors,—the Father of us all." And so general was the tribal system, that in the opinion of the Head of the Native Department in 1856, no native could claim an individual title to land in the Northern Island. There was really no such thing as individual title that was not entangled with the general interest of the tribe; and often with the claims of other tribes, who may have emigrated from the locality. Early in 1860 an attempt to purchase land without obtaining the consent of all who claimed to be entitled to a voice in the disposal of it, provoked the natives of Taranaki to take up arms in defence of their territorial rights, and led to a formidable insurrection. The Province in which the outbreak occurred was the smallest of the nine Provinces into which the colony had been divided; but no one can speak of the soil or scenery of the colony till he had seen both the natural beauties and the ripening harvests of Taranaki, which by concurrent testimony is described as the garden of N.Z. From the beginning of March 1860 to the end of March in the following year this beautiful district was visited by the scourge of war. Its once fruitful fields and pleasant homesteads were abandoned and laid waste; the ploughshare was exchanged for the sword; and the settlers, separated from their wives and families, and shut up in an entrenched camp, within sight of the wasted labours of nearly twenty years, were for many months doing military duty under the iron despotism of martial law. With a seaboard of about 100 miles, of which Cape Egmont is the centre, the Province extends inland from twenty to forty miles, and comprises an area of about two millions of acres. With the exception of a narrow and irregular strip of open fern-land near the sea, the country is heavily timbered. At the commencement of the outbreak the English population of the Province amounted to 2700 souls; and the native population was estimated to amount to about an equal number. But not having a harbour, being difficult of access, hemmed in between an open roadstead and a dense forest, and being almost impracticable for military operations, the Taranaki district—where the question of native title had always been unusually complicated—was not well chosen, with all its natural beauties, for the site of an English settlement.

The N.Z. Company, acting with their usual precipitancy, and ignorant as to who were the real owners of the land, dealt with a few natives who represented themselves to have the right to dispose of it, and hardly made the shadow of a purchase before the settlement was founded. The first difficulty with which the early settlers had to contend, as at Wellington and Nelson, was the want of a clear title to the land; and it was only by the exertions of the Government that the native title to a few blocks of land of limited extent was afterwards extinguished, and the settlers after a period of ruinous delay were ultimately put into peaceable possession of their homesteads. The Waitara, a fertile, open district, watered by a small river, ten miles to the north of the town, and navigable at high water by small coasting craft, was the locality which in the first instance was fixed on for the site of the settlement; and it was represented by their surveyor to the New Plymouth Company, by whom the settlement was originally founded, that if they were deprived of that river they would lose the only harbour in the neighbourhood and the most valuable district for agriculture. But this much coveted spot was not to be obtained from its native owners; so the Company were compelled with great reluctance to lay out the town upon a less eligible site; and for nearly twenty years the open land at the Waitara had, with the Taranaki settlers, been an object of almost passionate desire. When they first landed at Taranaki the neighbouring country was almost uninhabited. Ten or twelve years previously a large body of the Waitara natives, led by Rere, the father of William King, the so-called rebel chief, had formed an expedition to the south; and taking advantage of their absence their northern neighbours, the Waikatos, under Te Whero Whero (afterwards better known as Potatau, the Maori King,) made a raid on Taranaki, attacked, defeated, and dispersed the remnant of the natives, and having overrun the country and taken many prisoners returned with them to the north. After the marauders had retired a few of the original occupants of the country ventured to return and take possession of their houses, and their captive relations, most of whom were afterwards released, gradually flocked back into the district and again settled on the land. The Waikato raid greatly complicated the question of native title, and the difficulty of providing for the unfortunate immigrants sent out by the Company before land had been procured for them became daily more apparent. The chief of the Waikatos claimed a certain right over the country by right of conquest; and so far as he took actual possession, his claim according to native usage would be valid. It appeared however that he did not permanently occupy the soil; but being a chief of great influence, with might if not right on his side, it was deemed expedient by the Government to buy up his interest and satisfy his claim. The members of the Waitara tribe who

happened to be in the south at the time of the Waikato invasion maintained that they had not forfeited their right to the land by their temporary absence. "The Europeans were wrong," said William King and other Ngatiawa chiefs, addressing Governor FitzRoy in the year 1844, "in striving for this land, which was never sold by its owners, the men of Ngatiawa. Now when the Ngatiawa tribe went to Kapiti they left some men behind on our lands, who were surprised by the Waikatos and led away captive, who having arrived at Waikato were afterwards returned to Waitara to dwell there. Others came back from Kapiti. We love the land of our ancestors. We did not receive any of the goods of Colonel Wakefield. It was wrong to buy the land which belonged to other men. There are many chiefs to whom the land belongs who are now at Waikanae and Arapoa. It was love for the lands of our forefathers that brought us back to those lands. Friend Governor, our thoughts are that the lands were never settled by the Waikatos." And the claims of those members of the tribe who were absent in the south when the Waikatos overran the country, of those who had been carried away captive, and of the remnant left in the district (if they had ever been forfeited) were afterwards re-admitted by the Government and the tribe was recognised and dealt with as the owners of the soil. But amongst the tribe itself the Waitara had many claimants, and it was not without difficulty that they could for a length of time be prevailed upon to alienate any part of it. Seeing the many disadvantages of the site fixed upon by the Company for their settlement, and no peaceable solution of the difficulties by which the settlers were surrounded, the expediency of breaking up the settlement was seriously entertained by the authorities more than fifteen years before the commencement of the outbreak. As land for the purposes of the settlement had only been obtained in detached blocks, the settlers and the natives were settled together in closer proximity at Taranaki than in any other of the settlements. Relieved from all fear of a second Waikato raid, and following the example of their English neighbours, the natives of Taranaki soon became extensive cultivators of the soil and the proprietors of a large amount of valuable farming stock and agricultural implements. Comparing the condition of the resident natives with that of their countrymen in the north, the Bishop of N.Z. remarked that "the coasting craft and canoes of Auckland may here be represented by the almost innumerable carts which may be seen on market days coming from north and south into the settlement." William King and his people, then occupying the Waitara, alone possessed 150 horses, 300 head of cattle, 40 carts, 35 ploughs, 3 winnowing machines, and 20 pairs of harrows; and in the year 1855 they exported agricultural produce to the amount of upwards of £8000. But in the midst of this general prosperity the peace of the district was disturbed by native

feuds, and the district was soon studded over with numerous native pabs. The earliest and most serious of these disturbances arose out of an attempt to purchase land without the consent of all who claimed a voice in the disposal of it. Being exposed to continual pressure from the settlers to acquire land from the natives, the Taranaki Land Commissioner was always in danger of being urged into undue haste in conducting his negotiations. A piece of land was offered for sale to the local commissioner (Cooper) by a native assessor named Rawiri; but Katatore, a man of the same tribe and a near relation, had always expressed his intention to retain it, and threatened to oppose any one who should offer it for sale. To test Rawiri's power to dispose of the land, the Commissioner desired him to cut the boundary line; and while he and his party were engaged in the work, Katatore and his followers cautioned them to desist; firing twice into the ground by way of warning to deter them. But still they persisted, until Katatore and his people aiming a deadly volley at them shot Rawiri and six of his followers and wounded several others. For a length of time afterwards the relations and followers of the contending parties were engaged in a deadly feud; and two years afterwards Katatore himself was killed. Other causes of quarrel also arose amongst them; and for a period of two or three years their progress in industrial pursuits was brought entirely to a stand. Up to this time the settlement had never been occupied as a military post; yet throughout those native disturbances the settlers suffered little direct or immediate injury. But being closely intermixed with the resident natives who were all well armed, who occupied numerous defensible positions, and who were not unfrequently engaged in deadly strife, they naturally felt their situation to be painfully insecure; and they made repeated and urgent appeals to the Government to garrison the settlement with troops. But it was believed by the authorities that the presence of a military force would excite a feeling of jealousy and irritation in the mind of the natives, and would tend to increase rather than to obviate the danger; that so long as they exercised ordinary caution and forbearance the settlers would remain uninjured, while the presence of the small force at the disposal of the Government would be insufficient to overawe and preserve peace amongst the natives, calculated to give a false confidence to the settlers, and would lead them to be less careful to maintain peaceful relations with their Maori neighbours; and that military operations once commenced would end in the total destruction of the settlement. This opinion was confirmed by the Native Secretary, who being a military man was commissioned to make a careful examination of the ground. "The country about New Plymouth," reported Major Nugent, "is very favourable for the desultory warfare of the natives. With the exception of a narrow strip of land from one to

five miles in breadth, extending along the coast, the country is a dense forest intersected with numerous ravines; and except on this strip of land the country is most unsuited for the operation of English troops against a hostile native force. The settlement extends along the coast for twenty miles; some of the settlers have penetrated eight miles into the forest; and a much larger force than Great Britain could spare for the whole colony would be insufficient for the protection of the settlement; and in case of a collision between the troops and the natives the settlement would dwindle into a mere military post." The Executive Council advised that looking to the unfavourable nature of that part of the country for military operations, every effort should be made to avoid the risk of hostilities with the natives in the Taranaki district; and that as the recent disturbances had their origin in the attempt to purchase land from the natives with a disputed title, the Land Purchase Department should use great caution in entering into any negotiations for the purchase of land until the views of the various claimants should have been ascertained. Governor Browne soon afterwards arriving in the colony, and having before him so significant an illustration of the danger of attempting to purchase land with a doubtful or disputed title, condemned the conduct of the local commissioner in commencing a survey before he was assured that all who had even a disputed claim to the land desired it should be sold; and he declined to make a demand for reparation, on the ground that it could only be enforced at the expense of a general war, including sooner or later all the tribes in the Northern Island. After the settlers had long been kept in a state of ruinous uncertainty, the Government succeeded in completing the purchase of detached blocks of land of considerable extent for their occupation. In one instance 30,000 acres were obtained at the rate of 10d. per acre. But the land being for the most part heavily timbered, the open country at the Waitara continued to be regarded by the Taranaki settlers as essential to the extension of the settlement. This favoured spot however was highly valued by its original native occupants, many of whom were at that time still absent in the south. "This also is the determination of our people," wrote William King to Governor FitzRoy. "Waitara shall not be given up, the men to whom it belongs will hold it for themselves; the Ngatiawa are constantly returning to their land on account of their attachment to the land of our birth—the land which we have cultivated and which our ancestors marked out by boundaries and delivered to us. Friend Governor! do not you love your land England, the land of your fathers, as we also love our land at Waitara? Friend, let your thought be good towards us. We desire not to strive with the Europeans; but at the same time we do not wish to have our land settled by them; let them be returned to the places which

have been paid for by them lest a root of quarrel remain between us and the Europeans." It was not until further disturbance had occurred amongst the natives of the district, that the Acting-Governor Wynyard reluctantly gave way to the importunities of the settlers, and occupied Taranaki with a military force; but as appears to have been anticipated, the arrival of the troops in 1855, intended simply as a protection to the settlers, was regarded with suspicion by the natives. Soon after Governor Browne's arrival, the Government was informed that it was strongly apprehended by the Taranaki tribe that he would differ in his views and measures from Governor Wynyard, and that in all probability ere long his word would go forth to put the troops, sent down as a protecting force by the latter, into aggressive motion, and thus a war between the Europeans and the Aborigines would be commenced. Being still continually urged to part with the land, the Waitara natives were troubled by similar apprehensions, until they were visited by the officer in command of the troops, who went amongst them for the purpose of explaining the reasons for which a military force had been stationed in the district. The chief himself appears even to have had some fear of being seized suddenly like Te Rauparaha. "I assured him," said Major Nugent, "that nothing was further from my intention than to seize him treacherously in the night. He complained much of false statements which had been made against him in the local papers; and in proof that he had some ground for his complaints, I enclose copies of the last numbers which do not disguise the wish of some of the writers to drive William King and his party away from the Waitara. Now independently of the illegality of such a proceeding the people of the tribe have exported produce this year to the amount of between £8000 and £9000, the greater part of the proceeds of which is spent in British manufactured goods; and consequently the natives contribute indirectly a considerable sum to the revenue of the country. I have no hesitation in saying that these people, who in their position are useful and beneficial occupiers of the soil, have been on the point of being driven to become our declared enemies, and compelled to take a position in the forest, where all the discontented and troublesome characters would have assembled, and from which it would have required considerable force and a large expenditure of money to drive them. In the meantime the authorities would have been harassed by constant alarms, and New Plymouth might have been thrown back a generation. I think that for the present the natives are re-assured; but I cannot answer for the continuance of tranquillity between the races, so long as inflammatory articles are published in the newspapers, in which people of much local influence do not disguise their wishes to seize on the land of the natives." These suspicions however still continued. The old suspicion had been revived

amongst the natives, that the Europeans would not rest until they had slain and taken possession of that which the Maoris likened to Naboth's vineyard. As it was found impossible to obtain the assent of all who had an interest in the Waitara, it was thought that individual members having a special interest in particular portions of the land might be induced to sell. The Council of the Province presented a memorial to the General Assembly in the Session of 1858, in which they complained that the system commonly adopted by the Government of acquiring the assent of every claimant to a piece of land before a purchase was made had been found to operate injuriously to the settlement; and they urged the expediency of setting aside the tribal right—expressing their opinion that such of the natives as were willing to dispose of their proportion of any common land should be permitted to do so; and that the Government should compel an equitable division of such land amongst the respective claimants on the petition of a certain proportion of them. They added their opinion that “no danger of a war between the Government and the natives need be apprehended from the prosecution of a vigorous policy, inasmuch as a large proportion of the natives themselves would cordially support it, and the remainder would from the smallness of their number be incapable of offering an effectual resistance.” But these suggestions received no countenance either from the Government or the Assembly. “I will never,” wrote the Governor, “permit land to be taken without the consent of those to whom it belongs; nor will I interfere to compel an equitable division of common land amongst the respective claimants. This decision is not less one of expediency than of justice, for the whole of the Maori race maintain the right of the minority to prevent the sale of land held in common with the utmost jealousy. Wi Kingi has no sort of influence with me or the Colonial Government. We believe him to be an infamous character, but I will not permit the purchase of land over which he has any right without his consent.” Early in the following year (1859) the Governor paid a visit to the settlement; and although the settlers had not cultivated more than 13,000 of the 43,000 acres of land in their possession, and of the territory already ceded by the natives 20,000 acres of heavily timbered land still remained in the hands of the Provincial Government open for selection, the Governor was again pressed to obtain additional land for the extension of the settlement. “I found them,” he wrote, “dissatisfied with the Government and ill pleased with the Maoris, who although they possess large tracts of land which they cannot occupy refuse to sell any part of it. They complain that they had not sufficient pasturage for their flocks, and that immigrants and capitalists are driven to seek in other provinces the accommodation which Taranaki could not under present circumstances afford.” He made the declaration to the natives, in which he was unfortunately

understood by them to announce his intention to adopt a new policy in the purchase of native land, viz., to treat with individual claimants, to disregard the influence of the chiefs, and to set aside the tribal right. The Governor stated that he never would consent to buy land without an undisputed title; would not permit anyone to interfere in the sale of land unless he owned part of it; and would buy no man's land without his consent. Te Teira, a Waitara native, then stated that he was anxious to sell land belonging to him; that he heard with satisfaction the declaration of the Governor referring to individual claims, and the assurance of protection that would be afforded by His Excellency. He minutely defined the boundaries of his claim, repeated that he was anxious to sell, and that he was the owner of the land he offered for sale. He repeatedly asked if the Governor would buy his land. Mr. McLean, on behalf of His Excellency, replied that he would. Te Teira then placed a *parawai* (bordered mat) at the Governor's feet, which His Excellency accepted. This ceremony, according to native custom, virtually placed Teira's land in the hands of the Governor. Paora then informed the Governor that Te Teira could not sell the land he had offered without the consent of Weteriki and himself, as they had a joint interest in a portion of it. Te Teira replied to him, and was immediately followed by William King, who, before addressing the Governor, said to his people, “I will only say a few words and then we will depart,” to which they assented. He then said, “Listen, Governor. Notwithstanding Teira's offer, I will not permit the sale of Waitara to the Pakeha. Waitara is in my hands; I will not give it up, ekore, ekore ekore (*i.e.*, I will not, I will not, I will not.) I have spoken.” And turning to his tribe added, “Arise, let us go.” Whereupon he and his followers abruptly withdrew, and it is said that some of the natives present at the meeting cautioned Teira not to embroil the country by attempting to effect the sale. It soon appeared that the native by whom the land was offered for sale had great difficulty in making a satisfactory title. William King, chief of the Waitara, acting as the representative of the tribe and guardian of the common property, resolutely opposed the sale. Members of the tribe, including several who were residing in the south and claiming to have an interest in specific portions of the block, also refused to dispose of their respective shares; and denied the right of Te Teira to deal with any of the land comprised within the boundaries of the block, except the specific portion to which he was himself individually entitled. But it appears to have been determined from the outset, that this interference of the chief of the Waitara was a mere assumption, which should be set aside in case of need by force. “I have little fear,” wrote Governor Browne, “that William King will continue to maintain his assumed right, and I have made every preparation to enforce obedience, should he presume to do so.” The

chief of the Waitara however did venture to maintain his right; and in the course of the following month, acting as the mouthpiece of the community and guardian of the rights of those who, besides Te Teira, claimed various portions of land within the block and had not consented to the sale, he addressed a remonstrance to the Governor, claiming to be heard in their behalf. "Your letter," he wrote, "reached me about Te Teira and Te Ritemana's thoughts: I will not agree to our bedroom being sold (I mean Waitara here,) for this bed belongs to the whole of us. You may insist, but I will never agree to it. All I have to say to you, O Governor, is that none of this land will be given to you; never—never, not till I die. I have heard it said that I am to be imprisoned because of this land. I am very sad because of this word. Why is it? You should remember that the Maoris and Pakehas are living quietly on their pieces of land, and therefore do not you disturb them." In his letters addressed to the Archdeacon of Kapiti some months afterwards King used much the same language. "I am not willing," he wrote, "that this land should be disposed of; you must bear in mind the word of Rere (his father,) which he spoke to you and Mr. Williams. You know that word about Waitara. I will not dispose of it to the Governor and Mr. McLean. Let your word to the Governor and Mr. McLean be strong, that they may cease their importunity for Waitara here, that we and the Pakeha may live in peace. I will not give up the land. The Governor may strike me, and without cause, and I shall die! In that case there will be no help for it, because it is an old saying, 'The man first, and then the land.' They say that Teira's piece of land belongs to him alone. No; that piece of land belongs to us all; it belongs to the orphan, it belongs to the widow. If the Governor should come to where you are, do you say a word to him." From the moment he offered the land for sale, Te Teira's power to dispose of it was steadily contested. The duty of inquiring into the validity of his title was entrusted to the District Land Purchaser, who reported that, in the face of opposing claims, the purchase could not be safely completed. Some months elapsed without his being able to make any satisfactory report; but he was informed by the native minister that the Governor felt that it was impossible for him, as Her Majesty's representative, to withdraw from the position he had deliberately assumed; and the Governor directed that the purchase should if possible be closed without delay. "The Governor," wrote the native minister, "is very anxious about the completion of the purchase from Teira. I am sure you will press the matter as fast as appears prudent. It will satisfy his Excellency if, without writing officially, you will let me hear privately how things stand." The local land purchaser, who appears to have exercised prudence and caution, and to have fairly set before the Government the

difficulties in the way of a peaceable purchase of the land, was still unable to hold out any hope of a speedy and satisfactory settlement of the question. But a few days afterwards he received authority from the Governor to make an immediate advance in part payment for the land. Two months afterwards an instalment was paid. "I do not wish," said the chief, who still persisted in his opposition, "that the land should be disturbed; and though they (Teira and others) have floated it, I will not let it go to sea. It is enough, Parris; their bellies are full with the sight of the money you have promised them; but don't give it to them; if you do, I won't let you have the land, but will take it and cultivate it myself." Finding himself committed to effect the purchase the Governor consulted the Executive Council on the subject (25th January 1860), who advised that should William King or any other native endeavour to prevent the survey, or in any way interfere with the prosecution of the work, the surveyor's party should be protected during the whole performance of the work by military force; that the Commanding Officer should be empowered to subject the Province to martial law; and that he should be instructed to keep possession of the debateable land, if necessary, by force of arms. Before attempting a survey of the land the District Commissioner made a last ineffectual effort to obtain William King's concurrence in the sale. A young man named Hemi Te Koro spoke favourably; but before he had finished William King, perceiving the tendency of his views, got up and said, "I will not consent to divide the land because my father's dying words and instructions were to hold it." A few days afterwards (20th February) the survey was commenced; but being obstructed, though without violence, the attempt was for the time abandoned. "It was the wife of Wiremu Patukakawiki and their own two daughters, and some other women of their 'hapus,'" said Rewai Te Ahan, "who drew off the Governor's surveyors from their own pieces of land." In reporting the obstruction to the Secretary of State the Governor stated that no more violence was offered by the natives than was necessary to prevent the extension of the chain. Ten days afterwards, although there was no disturbance of the public peace, martial law was proclaimed, and a manifesto was published by the authorities in the Maori language, and widely circulated by special agents amongst all the tribes of the Northern Island, declaring that Te Teira's title had been carefully investigated and found to be good; that it was not disputed by any one; that payment for the land had been received by Te Teira; and that the land now belonged to the Queen. On 5th March the Queen's troops were marched out to the Waitara, and themselves or their native allies destroyed the homesteads of William King and his people, took military possession of the ground, and thus dispossessed by force the occupants of the soil.

Before military occupation was taken of the Waitara, an appeal was made to the Governor by one of the settlers showing that William King being chief of the Waitara, it was no mere assumption on his part to claim to have a voice as to the disposal of the land, especially as many who had never been consulted had claims to specific portions of the block; urging at the same time that a complete public and impartial investigation should be made, and deprecating in the most earnest manner the employment of military force. It was not until nearly a year after the war commenced that it was publicly known that such an appeal had been addressed to the Governor before the troops were marched into the field. The appeal however was in vain. Before it reached the Governor martial law had been proclaimed, and it was probably thought that it was too late to recede without compromising the dignity of the representative of the Crown. A few days after the troops had taken possession, a party of about seventy natives who had been driven from the land returned; and for the purpose of asserting their title, and of keeping alive their claim, built a stockade within the limits of the debateable land. It was afterwards admitted by the local authorities that no one had decided that the pah was not built on ground belonging to persons who built it; but the officer in command of the troops immediately (17th March) took up a position before it and sent a summons to its occupants to surrender, which however they would neither read nor receive. "The guns and rockets," he reported, "now opened fire on the pah at about seven hundred yards, and in half-an-hour I moved to the right to batter another face at shorter range, when the natives opened fire on us." Thus hostilities commenced, the first shot being fired by the troops. A heavy fire was afterwards kept up against the stockade with shot and shell. The consequences of this proceeding soon became apparent, and the error of those who urged the Governor to resort to force was visited on the settlers in a manner painful and humiliating. Within less than a fortnight after the adoption of the "vigorous policy" recommended by the Council of the Province, and which they declared would be attended by no danger of an outbreak, the Superintendent reported that with the exception of about ninety persons, the whole of the settlers had abandoned their homesteads, and were concentrated in the town; that into a small town intended for a population of 1000 upwards of 2500 were crowded, and that nearly 500 of them were living on rations supplied at the public expense; and he suggested that in point of economy and for other reasons, it would be expedient to deport women and children to the number of about 600 from the Province. Whether or not their claims were valid, it was evident that the natives who had been forcibly dispossessed would not submit to see them set aside by force, and since blood on both sides had been shed, the

Governor became alive to the dangerous consequences of commencing a survey before he was assured that all who had even a disputed claim to the land desired that it should be sold. He reported to the Duke of Newcastle that a much larger number of troops than had hitherto been asked for would be necessary to maintain possession of the colony; that he had written to the Governors of the Australian Colonies requesting them to send him such support as they were able; and that hitherto he had considered that 2000 men with a strong company of artillery would have enabled him to bring such a force into the field suddenly as would extinguish the first sparks of rebellion; but he was now compelled to say that he believed 3000 men, a steam gun-boat and a steamer of war, would be necessary for some time to come to ensure the maintenance of peace. Following closely on repeated assurances that the purchase of the land had been completed fairly—that it was not disputed by any one—that the chief of the Waitara had never asserted any title to it—and that no real opposition was expected from him—this startling intelligence surprised the British Cabinet, and drew from Sir Cornewall Lewis, then acting as Colonial Minister, a grave and significant reply. Months elapsed before the public generally was aware how little could be effected by military force; and with the insignificant number of troops at his disposal, the situation of the officer in command was painfully embarrassing. The pahi of the insurgents were invariably taken, but the occupants as certainly succeeded in making their escape; and instead of gaining credit for capturing their strongholds, Colonel Gould, after being involved in an unequal contest with a formidable enemy in an impracticable country, was given to understand that the Maoris construed escape into victory; that they must be made to feel British power both to protect and to avenge; and that it was expected he would find some means of striking an effective blow against them. At the same time the Governor was anxious to avoid unnecessary bloodshed; and two months after the commencement of hostilities he requested that Colonel Gould would abstain from all interference with William King, unless he should himself commence hostilities. He afterwards repeated the request, and for some time there was an almost total cessation of active operations. But, unfortunately for the officer in command, it was not generally known that he had been prohibited from taking the offensive and attacking William King; his unexplained inaction naturally bore the appearance of a want of energy and enterprise; and failing to gain any decided advantage over the insurgents, Colonel Gould was assailed on all sides with abuse. The danger of arousing the natives into armed resistance was now sufficiently apparent; for with more than 2000 British troops in the province, with the sea close at hand for the base of operations, and with five ships of war on the N.Z. Station, the insurgents, although inferior in

arms, numbers, and equipment, soon had the whole district in their power. The settlers, who bore their accumulated misfortunes with wonderful spirit, and who for several months were crowded together in a state of helpless inactivity within the narrow limits of the town, had the mortification to see their homesteads set on fire and their cattle driven away, within less than a mile of the military post. Those who ventured beyond the limits of the lines were liable to be waylaid and shot; the road to the Waitara, not more than twelve miles distant, could only be traversed in safety with a powerful military escort; and instead of convincing the natives of the power of the Government "to protect and avenge," its protecting power was seen to be practically limited within gunshot of the camp. In the attack on Puketekauere, both officers and men, who had only just landed in the colony, found that they had to deal with no despicable antagonists. Armed with the rifle and bayonet and supported by artillery the troops were driven from the field, to the astonishment of the insurgents themselves, by a Maori force not more than double the number, having no artillery, without a single bayonet, and armed only with common muskets, fowling-pieces and double-barrelled guns. During their retreat the troops were so closely pressed by the insurgents that the dead were left upon the field, and a number of the wounded also were abandoned to their fate. The day but one following the dead were buried by the enemy within a mile of the British camp, and within range of its guns. From that day all who were engaged in this untoward affair were taught that both in point of generalship, as well as on account of their energy and courage, the Maories even in comparatively open ground are a formidable enemy—a conviction which they carried with them unimpaired through the whole campaign. Even before the conflict, it had become an axiom that the sure way to have a settlement destroyed was to garrison it with troops. General Pratt, on succeeding Colonel Gould in command, found the settlers driven in from their farms, their cattle seized, and other property destroyed, many of their houses burnt, the enemy in the immediate vicinity round the town, an attack on it avowedly threatened, and the place crowded with women and children, whose only safety was the presence of the troops. He was not long in discovering that he was engaged in a novel species of warfare, in an impracticable country, and against an active, daring and formidable enemy; and that in superseding Colonel Gould, he had succeeded to a thankless office and a difficult command. As soon as he had made provision for the safety of the settlers, who were all crowded together within the entrenched portion of the town, General Pratt commenced operations in the field. But the moving of a body of regular troops, with heavy guns and a long line of bullock drays laden with supplies, through a rugged country without roads or bridges, and intersected in every

direction by forest and swamp-gullies and streams was a difficult, expensive and unprofitable undertaking. Whenever they were attacked the natives abandoned their defences as soon as they became untenable and always succeeded in securing their retreat; and notwithstanding his exertions the General was unable to bring them to a decisive encounter. Though he drove them from their strongholds in every direction, and in the course of a few weeks captured and destroyed nearly thirty pahs, his services were by no means gratefully acknowledged. Like Colonel Gould, he had the mortification to be reminded that by the Maoris their escape would certainly be regarded as a victory. In urging the Government to ignore the tribal right and to pursue a "vigorous policy," the Provincial authorities of Taranaki had represented that a large proportion of the natives would cordially support the British, and that the remainder would from the smallness of their number be incapable of offering any effectual resistance. But the adherents of William King, including reinforcements from Waikato and the South, already amounted to about 1700 men; while Teira's supporters, who received rations and a shilling a day each from the Government, never exceeded 300. Nor had they the spirit of the insurgents; finding themselves in a false position, they were for the most part unable to act with much cordiality in the cause. In addition to 300 native allies the British forces amounted to 2300 men, but the difficulty of carrying on war either with honour or profit in a wild country abounding with natural fastnesses, began to dawn on a few minds. The Governor saw that even with a body of the Queen's troops considerably outnumbering the insurgents, unless some decisive advantage were speedily gained the war might be continued indefinitely. Seeing how disastrous the war had proved to the settlers, the local authorities became impatient for some unmistakeable success; and they were urgent that the General should adopt a system of guerilla warfare. "I have no doubt," wrote the Governor, "that a system of sudden, secret and constant attacks, when and where they least expect it, will so distress the natives in your neighbourhood that, when their allies return, both parties will be disheartened and glad to end their trouble by submission." The General was of a different opinion. He had seen enough to know that it was in vain to attempt to distress the Maoris by a system of guerilla warfare carried on upon their own ground by regular troops, dependent on a regular commissariat, and no match for their enemy in their local knowledge or in their power of moving through the bush. As regards the capture of the natives, the General reported that the attempts he had made to surprise them had convinced him of the hopelessness of all endeavours to prevent their escape from any place which they did not intend to defend. The only course which remained for the General was to show the natives that their

strongest position could be approached, turned, and captured with little loss to the invaders. The contest had now continued for upwards of eight months. At its commencement it was generally expected that a few months of active warfare would exhaust the ammunition and supplies of the insurgents; but excepting a few, who had had an opportunity of witnessing the difficulty of military operations in former Maori wars, the public were ignorant of their resources. In common with the natives throughout the country—partly through an evasion of the law, and partly through the operation of the relaxed regulations of the Government—they had recently been abundantly supplied with arms and ammunition. Besides what had been supplied to them in contravention of the law, eight thousand pounds weight of gunpowder, more than 300 double-barrelled guns, and nearly 500 single-barrelled guns, had in the short space of nine months been sold to the natives with the sanction of the authorities. If lead ran short amongst them, they made use of puriri or other hard-wood bullets; and to economise percussion-caps, they used them over and over again, pressing the broken edges together, and reloading them with the detonating matter on the tip of a vesta match. Being in possession of the country, living at free quarters, and following Napoleon's plan of making the war support itself, the insurgents were thus enabled to continue to keep the field, and without incurring any serious loss to give the troops no small amount of harassing and unprofitable occupation. Foiled by their skilful and cautious tactics, the General had long to wait for an opportunity of meeting them on equal terms. At the commencement of the outbreak it was declared by the provincial authorities that the insurgents would soon be starved out, and that shut up in the forest by an overpowering force in the open land, and harassed by irregulars in their retreats, they could hardly be supposed to have subsistence for a longer time than twelve months. It was not the natives however, but the troops and the settlers, who were really harassed and shut up; and so far from wanting the means of subsistence, it was reported nearly a year after the commencement of hostilities that since the rebels were located at Waireka (a few miles distance from the town) they had collected a large number of cattle and horses, which were sent from time to time to the Ngatiruanui country; that they were living in clover, had plenty of potatoes, which were taken from the settlers' cultivations, and as much beef and mutton as they could eat. More than a year after martial law had been proclaimed, and when there was a military force in the Province of more than 3000 men, exceeding the number of natives in arms, the settlers of Taranaki addressed a memorial to the Governor stating that the position of the settlement was very critical, and the results of the system of carrying on the war most unsatisfactory. That notwithstanding the presence of a very

considerable military force in the Province it was unsafe for any person to venture beyond the outposts in consequence of the country being continually overrun by small bands of marauding natives within rifleshot of the barracks. That within the last fortnight a large number of houses belonging to the settlers had been burned, great numbers of horses and cattle carried off, and an estimable settler waylaid and butchered. The position of the Governor had for some time been most embarrassing. From the first the justice and the policy of the war had been called in question. It was seen that the ground had been ill-chosen for a contest by regular troops; and after a struggle, protracted for upwards of a year, it was obvious that little progress had been made, and there appeared to be little prospect of reducing the insurgents to submission. The Governor was told by the Duke of Newcastle that, instead of being an Imperial question, the contest was regarded by Her Majesty's Government as peculiarly a settlers' war, or as a quarrel with William King; and finding himself involved in a protracted and fruitless contest for the attainment of an object which a large body of Maoris regarded as unjust, it was not surprising that the Governor seized the earliest opportunity of bringing the contest to an end. Nor had the insurgents anything to gain by prolonging it. It was beginning to be apparent to them that they were unable to make an effectual stand before the troops, and that General Pratt was able with little loss to dislodge them from any position they might attempt to defend. They were also advised by their friends that they might appeal with confidence to the justice of the Crown, but that it was in vain to defy its power; that while they were in arms their complaints would not be listened to; and that they must first cease fighting before their wrongs could be redressed. After a period of great suffering to the Taranaki settlers, the war came suddenly to an end, without an agreement between the contending parties or any decided advantage on either side. Terms of peace were talked of and offered by both, but hostilities were allowed to cease before any conditions were finally agreed on. A few weeks before the termination of the war, William Thompson, a Waikato chief, who prided himself on being a peace-maker, went down to Taranaki in the character of mediator with the view of inducing the contending parties to leave their differences to be determined by the judgment of the law. On arriving at the seat of war, he applied to General Pratt to grant a truce for three days that he might confer with King and his allies; but as no satisfactory terms were afterwards proposed to the General, the fighting was resumed on the fourth day. A few days after the head of the Native Land Purchase Department arrived from Auckland, instructed by the Governor to hear what terms the insurgents had to offer; and he had a meeting with William Thompson and about 100 of

William King's Waikato allies. The meeting however broke off without any agreement having been arrived at. At the conference held between William Thompson and William King, a number of the Waitara natives and the leading men of their Waikato and Ngatiruanui allies were present. After an interchange of diplomatic courtesies between the two chiefs, it was agreed by all present that the subject of dispute—the land at the Waitara, and the question of peace or the continuance of war—should be left to the decision of William Thompson. In little more than half-a-dozen words, and with the air of brevity and decision of the head of a grand army, the chief of Ngatiawa dismissed the allies to their respective homes, and so far as Taranaki was concerned almost instantly brought the contest to an end. The public, not knowing what had taken place, were astonished to see the Waikatos suddenly break up and disappear like a dissolving view. Shortly afterwards, the Governor having heard that the Waitara natives were willing to make peace, and having determined to treat separately with the several bodies of insurgents, proceeded to Taranaki; but either because they could not agree as to the place of meeting, or for some other reason, William King and the Governor never met, and the chief of the Waitara and a number of his people soon afterwards retired inland, without having come to any terms. The terms proposed by the Governor were accepted by a remnant of the Waitara natives who remained on the ground, and peace was hastily concluded with them. The troops were withdrawn from the various redoubts and marched into the town; and shortly afterwards, to the astonishment of the Taranaki settlers, three-fourths of the military were suddenly removed from the Province. To satisfy the settlers—who were unable to see what advantage they were likely to obtain, after all their sufferings, from a war thus suddenly brought to an end, leaving many of their cultivated farms in the possession of the insurgents, who now claimed them by right of conquest; without indemnity for the past, security for the future, or any guarantee for the continuance of peace—the Governor informed them that “the terms granted to the Ngatiawa were determined on with a view to simplify the issue in the present struggle; that it had been called a land quarrel, but though it arose out of a land quarrel, it was itself a question of jurisdiction; that it was thought right by himself and his Executive Council to rid the issue of this extraneous matter at once, and that he thought the settlers would shortly see that this was right. The land league he believed was broken up for ever in Taranaki; and as the natives, now that its pressure was gone, were desirous to sell land, all that was necessary for the consolidation of the settlement would, he had great hopes, be very soon obtained.” During the continuance of the war, the productive industry of the Province was brought entirely to a stand, and the whole European population, crowded together

within the narrow limits of a small portion of the town, suffered severely from sickness, anxiety, and harassing suspense. Both in men and money, and in the destruction of property, the cost of the war was by no means inconsiderable. The British casualties amounted to 210, 67 killed and 143 wounded, several of whom afterwards died of their wounds; and the extraordinary amount of sickness, the result of over-crowding and other causes, carried off upwards of 100 of the Taranaki settlers. The loss of life on the side of the natives was not clearly ascertained, but there is reason to believe that it amounted to about 150. In addition to the ordinary cost of the ships and troops employed, the expenses of the war paid by the Imperial Commissariat amounted at least to half a million sterling. To the colony itself for militia, volunteers, relief, and other expenses, the cost amounted to more than £200,000. The neighbouring Province of Auckland also suffered severely from the sudden and complete check put to immigration, which was yearly adding some thousands to the population. But it was the unfortunate settlers of Taranaki by whom the sufferings of the war were most severely felt. Their losses it was stated in the memorial addressed by them to the General Assembly were variously estimated at from £150,000 to a quarter of a million sterling. Two hundred houses had been burned; horses, cattle and sheep killed or driven off; fencing destroyed; noxious weeds had overrun the cultivated lands, and the agricultural part of the community were deprived of their means of subsistence. In its indirect effects, the war was still more disastrous. A feeling of antagonism was excited between the natives and the settlers. At the end of nearly a year of war an official notification was published in the *N.Z. Gazette* stating that “dissatisfaction was spreading through the Maori population,” complaining that the “justice and legality” of the policy of the Government had been impugned by persons of “high authority” in various parts of the colony; and warning the colonists that an Englishman's privilege of freedom of speech could not any longer be exercised without danger to the State. But as the facts of the case gradually came to light, public opinion underwent a change; and before the war was brought to an end its justice appeared less clear, its policy was called in question, and the opinion was becoming general that it had been blindly commenced, feebly conducted, and after a fruitless waste of life and property had been brought to a hasty and unsatisfactory conclusion. The Ministers who had advised the Governor to risk the war, finding that it had been productive of nothing but disastrous results, and that the Home authorities regarded it simply as a settlers' war, appeared by no means unwilling, so far as the original cause of quarrel was concerned, to bring the war at the Waitara to an end, and to hazard an imperial contest at the Waikato for the suppression of the Maori King. But in addition to the virtual

destruction of the settlement, the war had cost three quarters of a million. The settlers in other parts, with the experience of Taranaki before them, and believing that the Government were prepared to take up a new ground of quarrel in another Province, and to march the troops into the interior to enforce the submission of the Waikato tribes and to put down the Maori King, became alarmed lest war might be brought to their own doors and find them unprepared. A committee was therefore appointed by the Assembly to report on the military defence of the colony; and a deputation of representatives of the Province of Wellington warned the Governor not to risk war a second time without making timely provision for the safety of the principal settlements. The Governor informed the deputation that 20,000 soldiers could not protect all the out-settlers; that in the event of an attack they would have to take refuge in the centres of population—build block-houses as the settlers at Taranaki had done, and defend them; and that war carried on in a country where wealth and property are scattered broadcast must be attended with great loss and very serious consequences. That the terms he had proposed to the Waikatos he intended should be insisted on; and that he believed at the first shot fired in the Waikato there would be a general rising of the tribes connected with the King movement in the several provinces. But the Government, who had already burdened the colony with a heavy debt for a disastrous war, were prevented from provoking a second war on a far more costly scale, being shortly afterwards defeated on a vote of want of confidence, and displaced by a ministry desirous of avoiding a renewal of the war. The home authorities also being satisfied at length that little effect had really been produced by the military operations at Taranaki, and that disaffection was spreading throughout the country, and feeling that no expedient should be left untried to arrest the growing evil, determined for the second time to avail themselves of the peculiar qualifications and experience of Sir George Grey; and commissioned him to proceed at once to N.Z. to take the place of Governor Browne. The colony was thus opportunely relieved from the imminent risk of a still more general war.

XXI. *Governor Grey's Second Term.*—So far the war had settled nothing. About 200 soldiers had been killed; New Plymouth was all but destroyed; Kingism was rife and ready to appeal to arms. There was peace, but it was a hollow peace: the fire only smouldered; it was not put out. In the event of war in Waikato the settlers, warned by the experience of Taranaki, trembled for their unprotected homes. When Governor Grey arrived in September 1861 there was a breathing time; hope was revived; the hatchet might be buried. The new Governor came with no common prestige; his mission was not war but peace; his advent was hailed as the morning light; and if any man could have restored the confidence of the disaffected

tribes it was he. But it was too late. Had the measures he now initiated been taken in time, there would have been no war. Years of woful neglect were working out their results. It was easy to evoke the evil spirit; not so to allay it. The attitude of the Taranaki natives was hostile, while the powerful Waikatos had thrown off their allegiance and chosen a king of their own. To conciliate them was important, not merely on account of their number, their intelligence, their influence, but because of their proximity to Auckland. With all their personal respect for the Governor they were sharp enough to detect his diplomatic genius, and listened to his overtures, not without mistrust. Comparing him with his predecessor, they were wont to say that the latter was like the hawk which hovered overhead, and though a bird of prey could be always seen; while the plans of his successor were not so evident; he was like a rat which worked underground, so that it could not be told where it went in or where it would come out. This feeling was strengthened by an unfortunate expression about Kingism, when he told them that he would not fight against it but would dig around its roots until it fell. Grey soon found that he had taken upon himself a huge task. Governor Browne had threatened Waikato with war if they did not give up their King. They firmly but peacefully refused. The new Governor said he would not make war; still they held fast to their King. He was in a dilemma. A new policy was framed. Civil institutions were to extinguish the war spirit. The whole Maori territory was divided into twenty districts; an English Commissioner was to preside over each one. There was a subdivision into hundreds, and two native magistrates, a warder and five constables were to be appointed for each hundred. The magistrates were to receive from the Government salaries ranging from £30 to £50, the warder £30 and the constables £10, together with a suit of uniform every year. The magistrates were to form the district Runanga (or Council) over which the Commissioner would preside. The Assembly had invested the Governor and his Executive with power to make by-laws for these native districts. Grey showed his wonted energy in seeking to make the new *régime* successful. By the natives who were friendly it was accepted with acclamation; but it failed after all. The first tribe to which it was offered was the Ngapuhi at the Bay of Islands. They received the Governor with joy and were charmed with his policy. On one occasion the welcome characteristic of true Maori style might have tried the nerves of a less experienced man. "A crazy old chief made a violent and hostile oration, dancing with excitement and declaring that he would separate from the Governor and fight him that very day. He ended his speech by jumping upon the verandah where the Governor was seated, and offering to stab him with a long steel-pointed rod which he had brandished while speaking. He then abruptly

burst out laughing, shook hands and said that he was only joking, and was really very glad to see his old friend Grey." The Waikatos were cautious; they were willing to consider the proposal, but their King they would not forsake. It was agreed to hold a great meeting at Taupiri. This took place on the 12th December 1861 and lasted several days. But before the meeting the natives discussed the matter among themselves. Tamihana Tarapipi was the prime mover in those meetings; he was a remarkable man; and if his great influence had been secured on the Government side, he would have been to it a tower of strength. He has been variously described as a patriot and a traitor, as a peacemaker and a disturber, as a man of honour and one not to be trusted. But those who knew him best admired him most. Could he have spoken for himself, justice would have been done to his superior character; but it was the misfortune of such men to be reviled without any medium of defending their reputation. As an instance of the suspicion with which the Governor's plans were regarded, Te Oriori said: "The usual way of catching owls was for one man to shake some object before the bird to attract attention, while his mate slipt a noose over its head from behind. So Sir G. Grey had sent his mate to dazzle them with laws and institutions, while he was watching his chance of entangling them in the meshes of the Queen's sovereignty." They were however generally agreed that if some such plan had been carried out five or six years before, they should not have thought of a Maori king. They had sought in vain help from the Government; and had therefore tried to set up a government of their own. "If a *weka* (landrail) escape from the snare, you never catch that same bird again." So they reasoned. Their conclusion was that if their King and their flag were permitted to stand, they would try to work with His Excellency for the common good. At the Taupiri meeting Grey made a long speech. Tipene was chosen as the spokesman on the Maori side. After long discussion they could obtain no pledge that their King would be recognised. They believed that the Governor would try to depose him; and this was confirmed by his proceeding to employ the troops to make a road through the Hunua forest. At this time native legislation was remitted to a responsible Minister. W. Fox, an old colonist and an able man, accepted this office, and had several interviews with the alien chiefs. At the Maori court he was received with marked honour and respect, but was not permitted to see the King. A guard of honour turned out to receive him. Forty young Maoris, dressed in white breeches and blue coats, with stiff military stocks of cardboard, lined the road on either side, and presented arms as Fox rode between. His horse was taken from him by a Maori lad; he was ushered into the best house in the village, and asked by a handsome young woman, in good English, whether he chose roast fowl or sucking-pig

for supper. For eighteen months the Governor and his responsible advisers were most untiring in their endeavours, but failed to persuade any but the "friendlies" to adopt the new institutions. General Cameron had a large force at his command. To utilise them as well as to be prepared for any ulterior measures, they were employed in forming a road through the wood leading to the Waikato. The natives took this as a sign of war-like intention; and they said that if the troops crossed the Maungatawiri, a creek which marked the boundary dividing the Crown land from their own, they should regard it as a declaration of war, and act accordingly. It was a necessary work, but it made a peaceful solution all but impossible. Nothing could persuade the natives but that, while the words of the Governor were "smoother than butter, war was in his heart." The Waitara question was still unsettled. A fine block of land on the south side of New Plymouth, called Tataramaika, was in the hands of the Maoris. This block was purchased many years before by the Government, and the title was undisputed. The natives, after driving off the settlers, held possession of it. The Governor made known his intention of retaking it, and with this view he repaired to Taranaki in April 1863 accompanied by General Cameron. He had found on enquiry that Te Teira's title to the Waitara was not sound, and he resolved to give it up. By a fatal blunder he sent troops to occupy Tataramaika, without a word of his purpose as to Waitara. Had he announced that he would deliver up Waitara and resume Tataramaika, the natives would have raised no objection; as it was, they prepared to retaliate. On 4th May an ambuscade cut off two officers and eight troopers who were in charge of stores. Then the Governor was betrayed into another and even greater blunder—he at once made known his decision to restore Waitara. This coming on the heels of the assault was taken as a proof of conscious weakness, and the result of fear. It was a serious error, giving boldness to the disaffected, and apprehension to the loyal natives. The war was renewed.

XXII. *The Maori Wars of 1863.*—To strengthen the frontier between the King party and Auckland, and for the purpose of asserting the Queen's authority, a court-house and a police barracks were to be built on land belonging to a loyal chief in Lower Waikato. The Kingites declared it should not be done. When all the materials were on the ground they came in force, and overpowering the friendly natives threw all into the river. At the same time they forcibly expelled from their territory the English magistrate, Mr. Gorst. All this happened while the Governor was at Taranaki; and it hastened his return. Satisfied that the Waikato tribes had instigated the Taranaki people to resistance; that their overt acts were evidence of a determination to fight; and that a plan of attack upon Auckland was already formed; he recalled General Cameron with all the soldiers he could spare from Taranaki. And now began the

Waikato campaign. A number of Waikato natives were living peacefully on their own land at Mangarei, near Auckland. The Governor believed that they were implicated in the design for attacking the city; he required them to take the oath of allegiance or remove to the interior. A day was fixed, after which failing of their submission they were to be dealt with as enemies. Whether there was solid ground for the suspicion is by no means clear. If there was just reason for mistrust the mode adopted was surely wrong. It was calculated to exasperate even friendly natives into foes; it had that effect on them. On a Sunday morning a mob of Europeans repaired to their settlements with carts and took away all they could lay hands upon, rifling their houses and destroying their crops. From their concealment in the bush the owners beheld the reckless spoliation of their homes. By an oversight, due perhaps to alarm, they were allowed to take their arms with them, and falling back into the forest they took the lives of several settlers. On the occasion of a public holiday the town was illuminated; seen from the distance it looked like so many bonfires. By the natives who saw it this was construed into a war token. On 12th July General Cameron crossed the boundary creek. A fight took place in the open on the Koheroa range; several engagements followed. The Maori warriors against great odds defended their positions with admitted valour, obstinacy and strategy. They had thrown up strong earth-works and dug rows of rifle-pits. On the river the General had two bullet-proof steamboats. After severe fighting the natives were compelled to fall back upon Rangiriri. The successes of the troops would have been more complete but for the slow, methodical routine of military tactics. The battle of Koheroa was fought on the 17th. Had the victory been promptly followed up the natives would have been disheartened; as it was, time was allowed them to rally; no forward movement was made for fifteen weeks. The Waikato plain resembles an equilateral triangle, the sides being from forty to fifty miles long. It lies between two rivers, the Horotiu and the Waipa. It is open and level—good ground for military operations. From the boundary creek to the plain the Waikato river flows for about thirty miles. The forts of Mere-mere and Rangiriri were on the left bank of this river. The former of these after a stout resistance was evacuated as soon as the troops were ready to assault. The attacking force numbered 1300 including 200 of the naval brigade. The Maoris opposed to them were from 400 to 500. Several attempts were made to storm the Rangiriri, from which the besiegers were mowed down by a heavy fire. At last, getting to the rear of the fort, it was seen that the occupants were escaping by a lake and a swamp. This was at dusk. Further exit was prevented. At daylight there remained 183 men and two women, all of whom surrendered themselves as prisoners of

war and were marched to Auckland. Ngarnawahia was taken without opposition. Peace could then have been made,—the natives expected it. Disappointed, they resolved to fight to the bitter end. Fierce battles were fought at Te Awamutu, Rangiaohia and Orakau. The last of these was a strong stockade. Surrounded by 2000 troops, a sap was begun, the guns were brought into play and hand-grenades were thrown in. The 300 natives were now at the mercy of the assailants. There were women and children among them. For three days they had been without water and had only a few potatoes among them. An interpreter was sent to tell them their lives would be spared if they would surrender. They answered, "We will fight for ever and ever and ever." It was urged upon them to send out the women and children. Again they replied, "The women will fight as well as we." The firing was renewed. It was now all but a hand-to-hand contest—there was only a parapet between them. A private threw his cap over a breached place and rushed after it; about twenty more—colonial troops led by Captain Hertford—followed. The Maoris dealt a withering volley and ran for the inner works. Ten of the twenty men were down. On the opposite side of the pah some men of the 65th and the militia made a similar attempt. It was four o'clock p.m.; the whole Maori force was escaping. A double line of the 40th, under Colonel Leslie, invested that side. The first line was stationed under a slight bank, which had sheltered it from the fire of the pah. Before they knew that the Maoris were out they had jumped over their heads, and passing on walked through the second line. They formed in a solid column—the women, the children, and the great chiefs in the centre; and they marched out as cool and steady as if they had been going to church. When the troops had recovered from their surprise they were got together, and with loud yells started in pursuit, firing at the fugitives as with quickened pace they made for a swamp and scrub. They would all have escaped but for a corps of colonial cavalry, which got ahead of them and shot them down as they were getting out of the swamp. About 200 of them were killed, while the casualties on the British side were sixteen killed and fifty-two wounded. Thus ended the Waikato campaign. The war was now carried to Tauranga, divided from Waikato by a range of hills. The Maoris had strongly fortified themselves in the Gate Pah. It was on a narrow neck of land with a swamp on either side. On a gentle rise a redoubt was constructed. It was oblong, about seventy yards wide by thirty deep. It was well palisaded and defended by lines of rifle-pits. These were in zigzag tiers thatched with fern, and the eaves of the roofs so raised that the garrison could fire out on their besiegers. Some of the roofs were covered with earth. There were not more than 300 natives in these works. The forces were five times that number, with nine or ten

Armstrong guns. The Maoris had no artillery and were without water in the pah. It was completely surrounded after dark on the 27th. Early in the morning the besieged opened fire, and the four batteries responded. One who was present said that the fire of shot and shell that was poured into the redoubt was enough to have smothered Sebastopol. The natives endured this cannonading with stolid indifference. "Imagine," says Fox, "the position of Maoris lying still in their grass-roofed and watted burrows, excavated in the banks of their rifle-pits, listening hour after hour to the roar of the big guns and the hurtling sounds of the projectiles, feeling the terrible concussions of the shells as they struck close by or just over them, or scattered in fragments and carrying death among them, with the certain conviction that before night they would be assailed by the bayonets of an overwhelming force of trained soldiers. It must have required something more than a dogged disregard of death in untutored men to enable them patiently to await their apparently inevitable end amidst such a terrible scene." By four p.m. a breach was made and an assault ordered; and seamen, marines, and soldiers entered the pah. The natives could not escape. The pah was all but taken when a sudden panic seized the troops, who rushed pell-mell out of the breach in headlong flight crying out, "There's thousands of them!—there's thousands of them!" The officers did their best to rally the terrified men, but it was too late. The natives took advantage of the causeless alarm, concentrated their fire on the flying column, and committed fearful execution. The British lost several valuable officers in this untoward affair. The General did not renew the assault, but directed a line of entrenchments to be thrown up within a hundred yards of the work, intending to resume operations next day. But the pah was abandoned by the Maoris during the night. Their loss was between thirty and forty men, and on the British side the loss was twenty-seven killed and sixty-six wounded. Three miles distant Te Ranga, another Maori entrenchment, was in course of construction. An attack was made on it by Lieutenant-Colonel Greer with complete success. The engagement was over in a few moments—the enemy leaving 109 dead bodies on the spot, while on the British side only eight were killed. While these events were taking place at Tauranga the native allies, the Arawa, under Captain Mair, were doing good service against the Taupo tribes, thereby preventing them from joining the Waikato insurgents. Skirmishes between the troops and the Maoris were also frequent at Taranaki, but nothing on an extended scale was attempted there. But no sooner was the Tauranga campaign ended, than news arrived that Wanganui was in danger. A reinforcement of 300 men was sent down. Ere they arrived the Maori allies had done the work. In 1868 fighting was resumed in that district, and Titokowaru with his warriors swept the country

to within a few miles of the town, which was threatened with an assault. There he was repulsed, and driven back by a body of volunteer cavalry. During this period heavy losses were inflicted on the Maoris by the European and native forces. Disputes arose between the Governor and the General which stood in the way of more signal success. Colonel M'Donnell, at the head of native allies whom he commanded, as well as some volunteers, distinguished himself both here and on the south-eastern coast. He was trained to bush-work on the Hokianga, and was a dashing officer. Through the impatience of ministers to have something done quickly he led his men, against his own judgment, to the fatal attack on the Ngutu-o-te-manu (bird's beak) forest. Here the gallant Von Tempsky lost his life. The natives fired from the tops of the trees. With much difficulty, and not without serious loss, the Colonel effected a retreat from that perilous position. Gradually the war died out. It had dragged along its slow length for ten weary years, evoking heroic exploits. It was marked by woful blunders, and was the cause of a frightful loss of blood and treasure.

XXIII. *Incidents of the War.*—In the course of the war many prisoners were taken. General Cameron handed them over to the Government for safe custody. They numbered 214, and included many chiefs of high rank. They were placed on board a hulk in the Auckland Harbour, and were well satisfied with the treatment they received. Very soon a difference of opinion was manifest between the Governor and his Ministers. The former wished them to be released on parole; the latter wished to bring them all to trial, and refused to release them except after trial; but they had no objection to be relieved from all responsibility in the matter. Grey proposed to send the prisoners to the Island of Kawan, his private property. He had his country seat there, and besides his own servants there were no inhabitants. It lies about thirty miles from Auckland. To this the Ministers agreed and placed them under the personal charge of the Governor, who employed them in clearing land and building houses. They had been there six weeks when news was brought to Auckland that they had made their escape and gone no one knew whither. Left without a guard, they utilised an old canoe, paddled themselves across to the mainland, and planted themselves on the top of a circular hill called Omaha in the midst of a district occupied by small farmers. By some means they obtained a supply of arms and food—the neighbouring natives must have given them these. The Governor tried to coax them back, and sent several officials to them; but they were not to be so taken. To use force would be to risk a war in the north and to expose the scattered settlers to danger. At last the Governor said he would allow them to return to Waikato. They said they would not move until after they had eaten their Christmas dinner. In the end they

broke up their party and went each to his own company. In 1866 the Governor confined sixty prisoners on board a vessel in the Wellington Harbour. These were captured when the Wereroa pah fell. They were guarded by an escort of the 50th Regiment. At night the prisoners were kept below, a sentry being on deck over the hatch. One night when it was blowing a gale of wind, a heavy sea running and the sky pitch-dark, the Maoris, with a screw-key, opened one of the bow ports, and before daylight all but three had gone. The darkness of the night and the roaring of the wind and sea prevented the sentry from seeing or hearing anything. The officer in charge was ashore; it was so rough that no boatman would take him to the ship, which was about three-fourths of a mile from land. Four Maoris were drowned in trying to swim ashore, three came back pressed by hunger, two were shot by parties sent out in pursuit, but the greater number were not seen again. The most serious escape was that of the Chatham Islands prisoners. They were taken in the east coast campaign, and numbered 187. They were well treated. After some time the guard of twenty-five men was reduced to fifteen. Among the prisoners was a man called Te Kooti. He composed a poem in which he claimed to be inspired. In this capacity he acquired an ascendancy over his companions in exile. A plan was matured for escape. On the 3rd July 1868 the schooner *Rifleman* arrived with stores. The next day the prisoners rose upon the guard and clove the skull of the only one who offered resistance; then they secured the Resident Magistrate, Captain Thomas, and all the male Europeans, leaving the women and children free. They boarded the schooner and bound the crew; they shipped their own wives and children, plundered the island, cut the cable of the only other vessel to prevent pursuit, and set sail for Poverty Bay on 5th July. They left the captain ashore, and the mate was compelled to navigate them on pain of death. During the voyage armed guards paraded the deck day and night; the crew were forbidden to cook, and a sentry with a drawn cutlass stood by the man at the wheel, to see that the right course was kept. When in sight of N.Z. Te Kooti ordered his uncle to be thrown overboard. He was one of the three who objected to the escape, and had informed the authorities, who took no notice of the warning. On the evening of the 10th the *Rifleman* arrived at Whareongaonga, six miles from Turanganui. That night and the following day were occupied in landing the cargo, women and children. They shipped two casks of water for the use of the crew, and the mate was told to go where he liked. The escaped prisoners made their way over a very rough country towards the interior. If unmolested they meant quietly to retire into the fastnesses and enjoy their freedom; it would have been well had they been allowed to do so. Major Biggs, however, collected all available forces, European and native, and gave chase; his zeal cost him his

life. The fugitives were brought to bay and offered fight. At the first brush the Europeans were defeated with the loss of seven men. Thus began another guerilla warfare which lasted two years.

XXIV. *The Hau Hau Rebellion.*—On more than one occasion an attempt was made to revive old superstitions. But those cases of fanaticism were limited in their extent and short in their duration. It was during the war of 1864 that a wide-spread and furious spirit of infatuation laid hold of the tribes that were in rebellion against the Government. It was first known as the Pai-Marire ("good and peaceful") movement, but it soon took the name of Hau Hau ("to deal blows to") from an exhaustive process of bellowing as they danced round a pole which they called Niu. This new faith, if it can be so called, was a compound of Judaism, Mormonism, and Spiritualism; and its rites were bloody, sensual, and devilish. It had a political rather than a religious meaning, so that the terms "Hau Hau" and "Kingite" became all but synonymous, although they were not all equally violent. It began in Taranaki in 1864. A man called Te Ua, who had been looked upon as little less than a maniac, believed that he had a revelation from the angel Gabriel, and he was raised to the dignity of a prophet. He said they had been wanting in homage to the Virgin Mary, that the priests had superhuman power, and that Gabriel would send legions to fight for them, if they obeyed his behests. About that time, a detachment of the 57th Regiment under Captain Lloyd was surprised and defeated with heavy loss; Captain Lloyd was among the slain. The fanatics drank the blood of those who fell, cut off their heads, and buried them separately from the bodies. A few days afterwards they said the angel Gabriel had appeared to those who had quaffed the blood of their victims, and by the medium of Captain Lloyd's spirit ordered his head to be exhumed, cured in their own way, and carried throughout the length and breadth of N.Z. From that time the head of Captain Lloyd was to be the medium of communication with heaven. Te Ua was made the high-priest, and Hapaniah and Rangitaurira his assistants. Then the head, in the most solemn manner, made known the tenets of the new religion, which were as follows:—(1) All its followers to be called "Pai-Marire." (2) Gabriel with his legions will protect them. (3) The Virgin Mary will be always with them. (4) The religion of England, as taught in the Bible, is false. (5) The Scriptures must all be burnt. (6) No notice must be taken of the Christian Sabbath. (7) Men and women to live promiscuously. (8) Complete victory to follow the vigorous "Hau." (9) The European population to be driven out of N.Z. (10) This will be done when the head has made its circuit of the land. (11) Men will then come from heaven to teach them knowledge. (12) The priests have the power to teach the Maoris English. The minds of the people were prepared for any extravagance that would

promise success against the Europeans by their previous disaffection. This new-fangled belief spread rapidly among the belligerent tribes. They had already renounced the sovereignty of the Queen; and required all Europeans, including missionaries, who would not promise allegiance to their King to quit their territory. Now they renounced Christianity and threatened the extirpation of all the white people. At Sentry Hill, about six miles north of New Plymouth, there was a redoubt occupied by seventy-five soldiers. About eight o'clock one moonlight night the men saw a Maori coming across the flat, throwing his arms about in a wild manner, and singing what sounded like a native hymn. He walked boldly up to the parapet and sat down on the edge of the ditch. The officers would not let the men shoot him. A sergeant with ten men went out to him; and as they came near the Maori jumped up, threw a stone which hit the sergeant on the throat, and ran away. They fired a volley, on which he sat down on a large stone and went on with his song. After another volley he took to his heels. A few days after, at early morn, the soldiers heard the Maoris in their pah chanting their war-song. In a while the sound changed to the barking of dogs and fierce yells. Very soon they saw a force of 300 armed Maoris at a distance of 800 yards, coming slowly towards the redoubt in fours. At 150 yards they halted. Order was then given to fire. The Maoris stood as if they did not expect to be hit; but they broke and fled, leaving thirty-four dead and wounded behind them. As the Maoris were advancing, the same man that previously came alone was a few yards in front of them, again singing and throwing his arms about. This was Hapaniah, one of the prophets of the new superstition. But this time he was killed. The surviving prophets said that the cause of their disaster was that the angel Gabriel had been offended by some neglect on the part of Hapaniah. They still believed in their invulnerability. Captain Lloyd's head was now in the hands of a prophet called Matene. He went with a large party to Upper Wanganui, and having obtained many adherents to the new faith decided on an attempt on the town of Wanganui, at the mouth of the river, about 100 miles lower down. The river is broad and rapid and rushes between lofty crags, through a country that can be traversed only by Maoris or trained bushrangers. The settlement could be reached in a few hours by canoes. The town was defended by 300 soldiers and a few militia. All they could have done was to protect their own position, while the hamlets and homesteads, scattered over fifty miles, were exposed to the ravages of the enemy. It was a perilous crisis. A party of 300 friendly natives undertook to oppose the progress of the invaders. At break of day on 13th May 1865 a battle took place on a small island called Moutua, about twelve feet above the level of the river. The loyal natives were victorious; the Prophet Matene was killed

and the remnant of his forces dispersed. In this fight Hoani Wiremu Hipango, a brave Christian chief, met his death-wound. He died the next morning in the town and was followed to his grave by all the civic and military authorities. A public monument was built in Wanganui in memory of this heroic man and those who fell with him in defence of their English friends. The rebels were not dismayed at their reverses; a potent spell bound them; all that befell them only added fuel to the fire of a fierce spirit. They sent out their messengers to every part of the islands. Their creed—framed on the principle of taking something from all creeds—spread like wildfire, new articles being added to it from time to time, to keep pace with the growing furore of their disciples. They wielded a kind of mesmerism which proved infectious. The least objectionable of their practices was that of running round a pole stuck into the ground, howling and yelling until sometimes they would fall senseless to the ground. Their bitterest hatred was reserved for the missionaries. Before this they had forced many of them to abandon their stations, but now they thirsted for their blood. An attack was made on Bishop Williams at Waipatu. His life was saved by a timely flight, but his house was plundered and the labour of years destroyed. But two useful lives were sacrificed—the Rev. C. S. Volkner of the Episcopalian, and the Rev. J. Whitely of the Wesleyan mission. The former was a Lutheran who for six years had lived among the rudest tribes of the Bay of Plenty. He was a devoted man and gradually won his way till he had around him a large body of converts, who built for him a handsome church and parsonage. There was no sign of disaffection among them until one day Father Garavel brought them letters from the hostile tribes at Waikato; then a change came over them. Volkner told the priest that he felt it his duty to inform the Government of the character of the said letters, which he did. The result was that Garavel was sent away to Sydney by Bishop Pompalier. Going to Auckland the missionary thought it prudent to take his wife with him and leave her there for a while, owing to the altered disposition of the natives. He returned to his station in company with the Rev. T. Grace; but meanwhile a body of Hau Haus, headed by Kereopa, had arrived. Volkner's property had been seized by them, and on the arrival of the two brethren in a small schooner called the *Eclipse* they were dragged ashore and shut up together in a large house. The captain and his brother, being Jews, were allowed to go about as they pleased. Next morning, 2nd March 1865, a party of armed men came for Volkner. He was taken to a large willow tree near his own church; a block and tackle brought from the vessel was fastened to one of the branches; he was told to prepare for death. Kneeling down he prayed for his murderers, and then rising up and shaking hands with them he said he was ready. They bade him take off his

coat and waistcoat; the rope was placed round his neck and he was hauled up. Life was scarcely extinct when they let him down and cut off his head. His companion, Grace, was allowed to bury the mutilated corpse, which he did in the chancel of the church. His head was stuck on the pulpit in the Roman Catholic Church, as though it was meant as a payment for his having caused the removal of Father Garavel. Grace was kept a prisoner for a fortnight, expecting every day to share the fate of his friend. At the end of that time Her Majesty's ship *Eclipse* arrived off the river, when Captain Levy—who owned the little schooner—at the risk of his own life, got him into his boat and pulled him off to the man-of-war. An attempt was made by the commander of the man-of-war to capture the murderers, but without success. Four months after, a small vessel arrived at Wakatane, not far from Opotiki, and a party of Hau Hau natives boarded her, and killed the captain and crew, together with Fulloon, a half-caste interpreter. These foul murders and others that were committed by the fanatics excited strong public indignation. A colonial force and native allies, altogether nearly 900, were sent to Opotiki. The Hau Hau rebels, having the heads of the murdered with them, were entrenched in strong paha and in great numbers. Several sharp engagements followed. The rebels fled through a most difficult country. They were pursued and overtaken; about 500 of them surrendered, including women and children. At the same time Major W. Mair was gallantly commanding a native contingent, the Arawa, and compelled the remainder of the Hau Hau combatants to an unconditional surrender. Te Ua, the prophet, and twenty-eight of the men implicated in the atrocious murders of Volkner, Fulloon, and others, were among the number. They were tried by a court-martial, and sixteen of them were pronounced guilty. These were sent to Auckland, where the trial was re-heard, and five of them were hanged. A great blow was inflicted on the Hau Hau, but the snake was not destroyed. The more moderate of the native insurgents were greatly shocked at the excesses which had been committed, and Tamihana Tarapipi, one of the highest, ablest and best of the chiefs on that side, volunteered his submission to Colonel Greer, saying, "We consent that the laws of the Queen be laws for the King, to be a protection for us all forever and ever. This is the sign of making peace, my coming into the presence of my fighting friend, Colonel Greer." Bloodshed left its trail from year to year—sometimes in one part of the country, then in another, and often in several places at the same time. No settlement had suffered so much as Taranaki, where the war began. A lull had come over it, and some of the settlers had ventured to return to their farms. The Rev. John Whiteley had lived there for many years, in charge of the Grey Institution for the education of Maori youth. He came to the country in 1832, and had been a laborious missionary. He

took up his abode at Taranaki in 1856. He was a good Maori linguist, and had great influence. All through the war he rendered valuable service to the Government by his counsels. He laid himself out for the good of all, whether Maori or European. On Saturday 13th February 1869 he set out on horseback, according to his wont, along the coast. His destination was at Puke-arube (Fern-root Hill) better known as the White Cliffs, about thirty miles north of the town. This was the remotest dwelling in that direction. An officer and his family, with a small body of men, were in charge of a redoubt. It was Whiteley's plan to sleep there, hold a short service on Sunday morning, then visit each hamlet in turn for service, and to preach at New Plymouth in the evening. The weather proved stormy on the Sunday, so that his non-return did not create alarm. On Monday morning, while a settler was looking for his cows he came upon the dead body of Whiteley, and that of his horse beside him. As far as could be learnt, when he reached the place on Saturday afternoon he found it in possession of an armed party of natives from Mokau, an all-but-inaccessible part of the country further north. They had already murdered every one in the redoubt. As the missionary came in sight they beckoned to him to return. He knew those natives well, and thought he had their confidence. It would be patent to him that they were bent on mischief, although he could not know what they had done. No doubt he hoped, by his presence, to prevent them; he therefore pushed on. Then several shots were fired at him; his horse dropped first, and then himself, pierced with five bullets. He was found a little way from the horse, with one leg doubled under the other, as though he had been upon his knees when he fell dead. Consternation filled the town when the sad tidings reached it. All classes attended the funeral. Letters of condolence reached his widow, written by chiefs in the extreme north; and in acknowledgment of the services her husband had given to the country, the Parliament voted her an annuity of £100. Whiteley was so generally respected by the natives, that he was the last man any one would think they would injure; nor would they, except under the influence of frenzy. Perhaps his death saved the town, or at least the outlying places, from a calamity. It would seem that their intention was to destroy and kill in all those places *seriatim*; and they could have done so. They had not expected to see their old missionary come upon the scene of blood. When he did so, and would not go back at their bidding, some fiery spirits shot him. Others would denounce the act; that they were ashamed of it was clear by their fabricating and circulating a report that the deed was that of some white men who were among them. At all events, instead of proceeding with their work of death, they returned to their own fastnesses, and the Government were unable to follow and arrest the criminals. Hau Hauism is not yet dead, but it exists in a greatly modified form.

XXV. *The Hau Hau Massacres*.—At Poverty Bay there were about 450 natives and 200 Europeans. Some of the latter manned a redoubt, but most of them lived in their own houses, more or less scattered. About midnight on 9th November 1868, they were surprised by an attack from Te Kooti and his followers, the Hau Haus. Some escaped by flight, and owed their safety to a faithful old chief, called Tutari; Te Kooti and some of his party were in hot pursuit of them. In an hour after they had left the old man's village, the pursuers were on their track. Tutari was promised his life if he would only say by what route the settlers had gone. Neither threats nor entreaties could prevail. He and his two children were taken a few yards away from the house and killed by Te Kooti's orders. Tutari's wife was compelled to witness the murder of husband and children. When they were dead, she was asked to say by what road the white men had gone; she would not betray them, and pointed out a track which they had *not* taken. Twenty-nine Europeans and thirty-two loyal natives lost their lives in that massacre. The settlement was destroyed. The tidings were everywhere received with a thrill of horror. The unhappy survivors found homes in Auckland and other places; and substantial tokens of sympathy poured in from every part of the colony. Many an exciting story could be evoked from that awful tragedy; the following account was given by one of the survivors. Captain Wilson's family had gone to bed, excepting himself, who sat up late writing letters for the English mail, which was to leave next day. The Hau Haus knocked at his door, saying they had brought him a letter from Hirini-te-kani, the principal chief of Poverty Bay. He suspected treachery, and told them to put the letter under the door. Looking out he saw many natives flitting about. He called his man-servant, who was asleep in an outbuilding, and told him the Hau Haus were upon them. As the man ran across the open space between the two buildings the natives tried to catch him, but failed; they perhaps did not wish to awaken other families by firing. As they could not induce Wilson to open the door, they burst it in with a log of wood; they hesitated to enter, knowing it would cost some of them their lives. For a while they were kept at bay, but at last they set fire to both ends of the house. Wilson defended it to the last, and left it only when the flames had singed his wife's hair and scorched his children's feet; then he headed his family in their retreat from the burning building, with his revolver in his hand. His courage at that terrible crisis seemed to cow his murderers. The family consisted of Mrs. Wilson, four little children, himself, and the servant Moran. As they left the house the Hau Haus declared that they had agreed not to kill him or his family; and as if to prove their sincerity one of them took up one of the children to carry; Wilson, his wife, and Moran carried the others. Some of the natives went with

them towards Goldsmith's houses, about a quarter of a mile away. When they had gone about two hundred yards a Hau Hau rushed on Moran and knocked him down; another stabbed Wilson with a bayonet in his back. He fell, with his little son James, whom he carried, uttering a dying cry. His little boy extricated himself from the death-grasp of his father, and got away in the dark to some scrub. Mrs. Wilson, hearing her husband's death-cry, turned round with an exclamation of horror; the same instant she was thrust through with a bayonet, her arm being likewise pierced whilst trying to defend her baby. She fell insensible, and received four or five more bayonet wounds, and was beaten on the breast with the butt-end of a rifle; yet she survived for several weeks, and related how when she regained consciousness she saw all her family lying dead around her with the exception of her boy James. All that day (Tuesday) she was unable to rise, with the murderers in sight busy at their dreadful work. While she lay helpless a native came and robbed her of her shawl, leaving her attired only in her night-dress. On Wednesday she managed to crawl to what had been her home, and found some water. Still the Hau Haus were about, and many buildings were being fired. She contrived to reach an outhouse left standing on her grounds, and hid herself. Meanwhile her little James, eight years old, after escaping from the murderers, wandered about unseen by them, although one night he slept in a house to which they came. He kept himself supplied with food he found in the houses not yet destroyed. He told his mother that he "did not think it would be exactly stealing," as "everybody had run away." He saw he thought as many Hau Haus as would fill the redoubt. One day he went back to his old home, and found his father and brother and sisters with Moran all dead, and "wondered what the Hau Haus had done with his mother. He thought they must have eaten her." At last he found his mother in the little outhouse to their mutual surprise and delight. Here he sustained her for several days upon eggs, and whatever else he could forage. The poor lady got a card and a pencil from her dead husband's coat pocket, and after four hours' labour and many failures, she contrived to write the following:—"Could some kind friend come to our help for God's sake. I am very much wounded, lying in a little house at our place. My poor son James is with me. Come quickly.—Alice Wilson. We have little or no clothing, and are in dreadful suffering." This note was placed in the hands of the little boy, that he might carry it to Turanganui six miles distant. He was not far from it when he was picked up by a party who were scouring the country in search of any missing settlers. The same day Major Westrupp sent a party of men who brought Mrs. Wilson in a litter to the redoubt. She was tended with the greatest care and rallied for a time; it was hoped she would recover, but she succumbed to the terrible injuries she received a few weeks

later. She died at Napier, whither she was conveyed in the *Sturt* steamer. Her orphan boy was sent to England to his grand-parents. For some time Te Kooti kept the country in alarm. His successes brought many wild spirits to his standard. He planted his fortress at Ngatapa, a wooded mountain whose summit is about 2500 feet above the level of the sea: it was supposed to be the strongest in N.Z. He had above 400 followers. From the altitude of his pah, he commanded a view of a wide extent of country by the aid of field glasses. He gave no quarter to either European or native found in arms against him. Under the command of Captain Mair, the native troops followed him from place to place after they had driven him from his stronghold. Often he was nearly captured, but he managed to elude all pursuit. No rest was given him; he was hunted down. Gradually his followers forsook him. At last tired of his wandering, perilous and murderous life, he threw himself upon the protection of the Maori King, and there he lived "a wiser and a sadder man" for all the brutal butcheries of his bloodthirsty career. He justly forfeited his own life to the claims of justice, yet no man dared to lay hands on him but at the risk of another disturbance. The Kingites sheltered the blood-guilty freebooter only on "good behaviour." Te Kooti bore a good character in his youth, and had some cause of complaint of the deception practised on him and his companions when they were taken prisoners and sent to the Chatham Islands.

XXVI. *Governor Bowen*.—Sir George Bowen succeeded Grey in May 1868. The colony was emerging from its troubles on his arrival; and in 1872 he was able to make a viceregal tour through districts in the interior which had been previously closed to European visitors. On 2nd April he went from Wellington to Napier—thence by the great inland lake of Taupo. From that point he visited many parts of the Lake District, and on to Tauranga. From Ohinemuri he went down the Waiho (Thames) in the *Luna*, and reached Grahamstown on 23rd April. In all places he was warmly greeted, and numerous speeches of welcome were addressed to His Excellency. He held meetings with the natives. At Napier he found that the large sums paid to the natives as rents had enabled the chiefs to build good houses in the English style, and to live in English comfort. They had good carriages, horses, cattle, and well-cultivated farms. At Tapuacharuru ("resounding footsteps") on the Taupo Lake a great assembly was gathered together, and numerous speeches followed—all of them on the side of loyalty. On the picturesque Lake of Rotokakahi was a small pah held by a detachment of the native militia under the command of Captain Mair. The Arawas composing this force were fine young men, well drilled according to English discipline, and had done good service in the war against their rebel countrymen. From Ohinemuri to Tauranga the road for eighteen

miles lies through a forest. In the very heart of it the Governor found triumphal arches in his honour erected by the Maoris who were at work on the road; they were most demonstrative in their welcome, and the volleys of musketry they fired echoed like cannon-shots through the primeval forest. Five miles from Tauranga the Governor was met by the Volunteer Cavalry of that town and district. They escorted him past the famous Gate Pah to the wharf, where the *Luna* lay at anchor, and where he was received by Mr. McLean and a guard of honour of the Rifle Volunteers. The volunteers of Tauranga at that time comprised one-fifth of the entire population of the district—men, women, and children. Bowen was a popular Governor; he well understood his position. It was to "do the ornamental," and he could do it. He very wisely confined himself to his own province, which was to represent royalty and to write glowing despatches. Avoiding all party bias he blended the *bonhomie* of the Irish gentleman with the dignity of his office, and so found favour with all classes of the community, including both races. Sir James Fergusson succeeded him in June 1873, but resigned in 1874. Short as his stay was he saw enough of the country to have an exalted idea of its importance. He was succeeded by the Marquis of Normanby.

XXVII. *The Troubles in 1879*.—The first chief, Potatau, who received the designation of King from the Maoris when he was dying, enjoined the avoidance of war with the settlers. But his son Tawhiao is a man of limited intelligence and is under the influence of those immediately around him. He raised a point of difficulty with the colonists about the railway which is to run across the island from Auckland to New Plymouth. The "King country" lies between, and Tawhiao was unfavourable to the project. He was opposed however by his powerful ally and host Rewi, chief of the Ngatimaniapotos, an allied section of the Waikatos. When by the war in 1865 the Waikatos were driven from the region of the great river which bears their name they took refuge in the remoter upper country belonging to the Ngatimaniapotos, whose chief, Rewi, had been their ablest leader in the campaign. They found homes there, and that district now constitutes the principal part of the King country. Rewi was in favour of the railroad, as calculated to raise the value of his own possessions and of the other lands through which it will pass. Differing from Tawhiao on this point, he had been further estranged by discovering that some of his chief opponents among the King's advisers had been privately selling for their personal behoof lands returned to them from the confiscated territory, without acquainting their Ngatimaniapoto hosts with the fact. Rewi's tribes composed nearly a third of the inhabitants of the King country, but they did not appear to be wholly in favour of their chief's policy, some of them leaning to Tawhiao. Tawhiao was sullen. Rewi however had not

broken with his titular leader, and seemed equally anxious to uphold the Maori King and to cultivate cordial relations with the Pakeha. When he visited Auckland for the first time since the war he was received with much attention by the citizens, for he was an honourable as well as formidable antagonist in the old times, and like many of the great Maori chiefs a man of much personal dignity. But it was from the state of things in Taranaki that there was real danger of the spark that would fire the train. An outbreak there would very likely be followed by war on the east coast, and perhaps the King country. There are three tribes in that quarter—the Ngatiawas, Ngatiruanuis and Taranakis. But it was the influence of Te Whiti, which was not confined to the district, which made the state of things dangerous. He assumed to be a Mahomet or Zoroaster in his miniature way. He is described as a man of considerable powers of observation and intelligence, with great oratorical talent, ascetic habits, and an implicit belief in his own inspiration. The township which he established on the skirts of Mount Egmont is described by medical men who have visited it as the cleanest and largest native settlement in N.Z. The prophet comprehends the importance of sanatory regulations, and insists on their being observed. A stream runs through the place, which is laid out in regular streets, and every where (or hut) has a cookhouse attached. Te Whiti would do his people much good if he had confined himself to such matters; but egotism and his secluded mode of life turned his head. He had been making fools of himself and his followers in the ploughing operations, and only succeeded in alarming and thoroughly arousing the whites. Though he only talked of testing in some peaceful and legal way the right of the tribes to certain disputed lands, there was really no knowing what turn things might take under the influence of his own fanaticism and the impatience or disappointment of his followers. The most considerable of the native allies are the tribes inhabiting the peninsula north of Auckland—the Ngapuhis, Rarewas, and Hapouris. They number 8395 persons. From among these and the friendly tribes near Lake Taupo, and in other parts of the east and south, the colonists could certainly obtain the help of 1200 or 1500 fighting men if occasion should have arisen. At the date of these pages going to press the troubles were not wholly ended. Large forces both of the volunteers and police had to be stationed in the disaffected quarters, and fears of another Maori war were imminent, but peaceable counsels would appear to be prevailing with the natives, or that they had been convinced of the hopelessness of the conflict with the colonists. It was expected a satisfactory settlement of the land dispute would be made; towards this end a Royal Commission was appointed to deal with the native question; they recommended liberal concession to the Maoris and that the disturbed district should be administered under special law, intimation being given to

Te Whiti of the proposed method of dealing with the disputed districts and inviting his concurrence in the proposed sharing the land between the natives and Europeans. In October 1880 upwards of 500 Maoris had been arrested and imprisoned for fencing in and trespassing on the lands of the settlers. At that date Te Whiti still continued to send his followers daily to fence across the road which the troops were constructing across the disturbed district, and the constabulary generally arrested them. Once or twice the experiment was tried of simply preventing their re-erecting the fence and turning them off instead of detaining them in custody. Te Whiti was deeply outraged and indignant at this slight, and sent down word that unless the fencers were arrested every day, according to his word, he should vary his tactics by sending down fifty for them to arrest, and if that would not do he would send 100 men. It was believed that Te Whiti would not offer further opposition *re* the Waimate Plains. These plains are being rapidly surveyed for sale and settlement. Te Whiti was evidently resolved to keep the peace. The "King of Peace" is the title he most proudly affects, and by sending all his best warriors to be arrested first, he gave a guarantee of his pacific intentions, because by depriving himself of these men he put it out of his power to offer armed resistance, even were he disposed to do so. He wished to be a martyr, and by defiantly fencing to compel the attendance of the constabulary at Parihaka. As to the native policy of the Government the plan is to arrest all the able-bodied native fencers as fast as they come down, and to stow them away safely in the different gaols in the South Island. These out of the way, the reserves recommended by the commissioners and sanctioned by the Legislature will be set apart and carefully marked off. The rest of the land will be surveyed, sold, and settled, roads being made through it and all necessary defensive precautions taken. Then the prisoners will be released by degrees, a few at a time, care being taken to ensure their good behaviour. The Governor recently sent a note to Te Whiti requesting an interview for the discussion of native affairs. This request was declined by the Maori prophet in metaphorical language: "The potato is cooked." Even in N.Z., where the whites are familiar with the prophet's style, they have been unable to agree as to what this expression meant. It is supposed that Te Whiti really meant to say that the colonial Government had taken possession of the land in dispute, and that it was no use to argue the point further.

XXVIII. *Political Progress.*—In 1865 the seat of Government was transferred from Auckland to Wellington, the latter city being more central. Sir George Grey retired from the Governorship on 5th February 1868; he was succeeded by Sir George Bowen, who held office till March 1873. About this time the "Public Works Policy" associated with the name of Sir Julius Vogel was initiated by the

passing of the Immigration and Public Works and Allied Acts. These provided for the expenditure of ten millions of money for the introduction of immigrants, the acquisition of land from the Maoris in the North Island, the supply of water to the gold-fields, and the construction of railways, roads, and telegraphs. From 21st March the Government was administered by Sir George A. Arney, Chief Justice, till 14th June, when he was superseded by Sir James Fergusson. Sir James Fergusson was Governor till 3rd December 1874, when he was succeeded by the Marquis of Normanby. During the interregnum Chief Justice Prendergast acted as Administrator. Sir Hercules Robinson assumed office on 27th March 1879, and during his short term of office was as successful in the administration of N.Z. affairs as he had been in those of N.S.W. He was promoted to the Cape in succession to Sir Bartle Frere in August 1880, and was succeeded by Sir Arthur Gordon, late Governor of the Fiji Islands. The cloud of depression which has spread over the other colonies has not missed N.Z., and a check in its progress has occurred, which however is believed will be but a temporary one. In 1880 it was found necessary to enter on a policy of general retrenchment, the Public Works scheme was partially suspended, a reduction of ten per cent was made on all salaries and wages, the civil service was curtailed, and in various directions efforts were made to bring the expenditure of the colony within the limits of its income. Within the abundant resources of the colony it is scarcely possible that there can be either permanent standing still or retrogression. Some account of the political changes that have occurred during the constitutional period will be found under the articles devoted to the leading public men. It remains to mention briefly the order in which the various settlements were formed:—

1. **WELLINGTON**, as already stated, was founded by the N.Z. Company in 1840. Preliminary expedition for selection of site, August 1839.

2. **AUCKLAND**, established by the first Governor, Captain Hobson, in the same year. It remained the seat of Government till 1865, when by Act of the Colonial Parliament, and the selection of certain commissioners appointed at its request by the Australian Governors, Wellington became the capital.

3. **NEW PLYMOUTH**, also founded by the N.Z. Company in September 1841. Preliminary expedition, August 1840.

4. **NELSON**, founded by the Company in October 1841.

5. **OTAGO**, founded in March 1848 by a Scotch company working in connection with the N.Z. Company, and by means of its machinery, under the auspices of the Free Church of Scotland, and with an appropriation of a portion of its lands and pecuniary resources to Free Church purposes.

6. **CANTERBURY**, similarly founded in December 1850, in connection with the Church of England.

7. **HAWKE'S BAY** was originally a part of

Wellington Province, but was separated from it and created a province of itself in 1858.

8. **MARLBOROUGH**, originally part of Nelson, separated in the same manner in 1860.

NICHOLSON, SIR CHARLES (1808—) is a native of Scotland and was educated at the University of Edinburgh. After graduating M.D. he came to Australia in May 1834. He was chosen Member of the first Legislative Council of N.S.W. in 1843, and was three times elected Speaker. He championed in the Legislature the cause of popular education. He filled the post of Vice-Chancellor of Sydney University in 1853, and was raised to the office of Chancellor in 1854. In 1859 when Q. was made a separate colony he was appointed the first Speaker of its first Legislature. Having been knighted by patent in March 1852, he was created a Baronet in April 1859 as a reward for his public services; and received the honorary titles of D.C.L. from the University of Oxford in 1857, and of LL.D. from the University of Cambridge in 1868. He returned to Europe in 1862.

NICHOLSON, WILLIAM, came to V. in 1842, and established himself in business in Melbourne. In 1850 he was chosen Mayor. In 1855 he was elected member of the Legislative Council for North Bourke. He introduced and carried the principle of voting by ballot at all political elections. In December 1855, on the defeat of the O'Shanassy Government on this question, he took office; but shortly afterwards left the colony for England and was absent for two years. He returned in 1858, and in August 1859 was elected member of the Assembly for Sandridge. On 17th November he moved an amendment on the address, which was carried, and on 27th October he formed a Ministry, which remained in office until 26th November 1860. He retired from politics, and died in 1870.

NICHOLSON RIVER, in N.A., was discovered by Leichhardt during his journey overland from Moreton Bay to Port Essington; it flows into the Gulf of Carpentaria to the westward of the Albert, and was so named in honour of Dr. William A. Nicholson, of Bristol, England, who had enabled Leichhardt to come to Australia to explore it, and to study its nature. The river is 100 yards wide where he crossed it.

NIXON, FRANCIS RUSSELL (1803—) first Bishop of T., studied at Oxford and was Fellow of his College there. He had been Chaplain to the Embassy at Naples, and in 1843 came out to T. as the first Church of England Bishop of that Diocese. Shortly afterwards he went to England on Church affairs. In 1851 he attended the first Synod of the Colonial Bishops in Sydney. Dr. Nixon, whose health was always bad, left in 1862, and not improving in health in 1864 resigned his see. He published a volume of *Lectures on the Church Catechism*.

NONDA COUNTRY, in N.A., was discovered by Leichhardt. It lies to the westward of the river Lynd and between the rivers Mitchell and

Van Diemens, near the Gulf of Carpentaria, and was named by the discoverer from a fine shady tree with a yellow eatable fruit which he and his companions very much enjoyed.

NORFOLK ISLAND, is situated nearly midway between N.Z. and New Caledonia, about 900 miles east of Brisbane. It is not quite five miles long, with an average width of two and a-half miles. Mount Pitt at the N.W. corner is 1050 feet high. There are precipitous cliffs round the greater part of the coast, and many small streams fall in cascades into the sea. There are no harbours, but tolerable landing places in fine weather. The surface is generally a table-land with numerous gulleys, and is covered with grass sprinkled in beautiful park-like fashion with white oaks, and the handsome Norfolk Island pine, which often exceeds 200 feet high. The gulleys and slopes of Mount Pitt are covered with a thick scrub, with tree-ferns and guavas. Phillip Island, a mile and a quarter long, lies three and a-half miles south of the main island, is nearly as high, very precipitous, and densely wooded; and there are two or three other small rocky islets. Norfolk Island was discovered by Cook in 1774, and now forms part of the Colony of N.S.W. It is a beautiful island, and its climate is mild and uniform when compared with the excessive vicissitudes of temperature experienced in continental Australia. Norfolk Island is interesting to naturalists for its peculiar birds. It has fifteen species of land-birds, eight of which are Australian, while three are peculiar species of Australian genera; but there are three others which connect the island unmistakably with N.Z. These are the *Nestor productus*, which formerly inhabited Phillip Island but are now said to be extinct; a fine parroquet, and a remarkable white rail. All these are peculiar N.Z. forms, and two of them would be quite unable to pass over any great width of ocean, while the Australian birds are mostly such as fly well, and might easily have migrated to the island. This sufficiently explains why, although the great majority of its birds are Australian, yet naturalists consider this group of islands to belong really to the N.Z. zoological district.

HISTORY.—On 14th February 1788 Governor Phillip despatched Lieutenant Philip Gidley King in H.M.S. *Supply*, from Sydney, with Lieut. Ball, to form a penal settlement at Norfolk Island. The party consisted of Lieut. King, with the title of Superintendent and Commandant of the Settlement, James Cunningham subaltern officer, Surgeon T. Jamieson, Assistant-surgeon John Alltree, Roger Morley, William Westbrooke, J. Sawyer, John Batchelder and Charles Heritage, with nine men and six women convicts, twenty-four in all. King arrived at the island on 5th March, and named the bay at which he landed Anson's Bay, in honour of Admiral Anson the circumnavigator. On the following day he took possession of the island in the name of the Sovereign of Great Britain. The party celebrated the occasion by hoisting the

British colours and drinking the healths of His Majesty the King, the Queen, the Princess of Wales, and success to the settlement. King was instructed to commence at once the cultivation of corn, flax and cotton. It was the intention of Phillip to use the island both as a storehouse and as a receptacle for refractory convicts. Immediately after landing the party began clearing the land and sowing the seed they had brought with them. On the 19th March Ball returned to Sydney, bringing with him a glowing account from the commandant of the fertility of the soil and the fine climate. Phillip in consequence sent a reinforcement of sixty-nine persons. Hardly had the party established themselves than a conspiracy was formed by the convicts to overpower their officers, take possession of the ship *Sirius*, and leaving the settlement sail for Norfolk Island. The plot was defeated through the fidelity of a female prisoner. On 26th February 1789 a tremendous hurricane swept over the island, destroying nearly all the property possessed by the settlers. The wheat harvest in December was fortunately very abundant. In March 1790 Governor Phillip, in order to relieve the settlement at Sydney, then very much in want of provisions, sent another party of 280 persons, including two companies of marines, under the command of Lieut.-Governor Ross, in the *Sirius*, to Norfolk Island. The voyage thither was prosperous, but when making preparations for the return voyage the *Sirius* was wrecked on the rocky shore of the island, and all the stores intended for the Sydney settlers were lost. Lieut.-Governor Ross relieved King in the command, whilst the latter proceeded to England to report to His Majesty's Ministers on the new settlement. The inhabitants of Norfolk Island then numbered 498, of whom 191 men and 100 women were convicts. In December 1791 King returned and resumed command of the settlement. The wheat harvest was again abundant for several years in succession. In 1793 the population had risen to 1008 souls. In June 1800 Major Foveaux was appointed Lieutenant-Governor in succession to King. In March 1803 Lieut. James Bowen of H.M.S. *Glatton* was appointed to take charge as Deputy Lieutenant-Governor during the absence of Foveaux. The latter resigned in September and left the Island, leaving the command of the settlement to Captain Wilson. Governor Hunter, on his return to England in 1800, visited the settlement, and formed the conviction that having served its purpose, the place ought to be abandoned on grounds of economy. The Imperial Government accordingly, upon Hunter's recommendation, issued an order for its abandonment, but the order was not executed till 1805. The settlers were then mostly emancipists, and had farms of from thirty-three to forty acres each. These settlers were conveyed either to V.D.L. or N.S.W. at the public expense, and had grants of land given to them double the amount of their former possessions, with cattle

on loan, and were rationed at the public stores as new settlers. The majority of the settlers went to V.D.L. and there founded a settlement naming the place where they located New Norfolk and Norfolk Plains, after the name of the island they had been compelled to leave. In 1826 an order was issued to re-establish the penal settlement on the island. The following year a vessel bound to the island with prisoners was piratically seized by the passengers when within one day's sail of the destined port. The leader of the mutiny was a desperado named Walton, who had long been notorious as a felon of the most audacious description. So well was the scheme devised and executed that no blood was shed, a few slight wounds inflicted in a scuffle which took place after the seizure excepted. The pirates resolved upon seeking South America; but being destitute of a nautical almanack, and short of water, they steered towards N. Z., where they hoped to obtain from one of the whaling vessels which frequented that country the appliances necessary for navigating their ship, as well as such other necessities as they required. The master, Harwood, and the crew were compelled to navigate the ship under the directions of Walton and his associates, who had assumed the arms and uniforms of the military guard. Arriving at the Bay of Islands they found two whalers anchored in that port, and to the inquiries of the commanders they replied that they were bound for the River Thames with troops and provisions; but the awkward appearance which the ship and crew presented, and the lax discipline everywhere observable, aroused the suspicions of the whaling captains, and after a little time the true character of the newly arrived vessel became apparent, and the whalers resolved to make an effort to retake the vessel. For this purpose Duke and Clark, the whaling masters, communicated with the missionaries on shore; these exercised their influence in assembling a large number of the natives, armed and accoutred for war; and everything being in readiness for an attack, both from the shore and the ships, the pirates were summoned to surrender. To the first summons they gave a refusal; but the whalers discharging their guns, and some shots striking the vessel, the pirates fled into the hold and concealed themselves wherever there was a hiding place, whilst some leapt overboard in their terror and confusion. Walton now parleyed, and after a few more shots had been discharged, and a threat having been held out that the natives, who all this time were spectators on the shore, would be let loose on the refractory ship, the pirates surrendered, making no other condition than that they should be protected from the fury of the New Zealanders. The prisoners were now landed, not without considerable danger from the natives, who disappointed in their anticipations of a battle, resolved not to miss the profits which they expected from a victory; for they stript several of the prisoners and plundered

the vessel of many valuable articles before they could be restrained. The damage done to the captured ship having been repaired, and several of the convicts who escaped into the woods having been brought back by the natives, the pirates were carried to Sydney by Duke in his own vessel and in the captured brig. A new conspiracy among the prisoners to repeat their piracy was frustrated by the fidelity of one of the crew, with whom the pirate leader tampered during the passage. While these events were transpiring at sea, a still more serious mutiny broke out on land. At the island in September, a gang of fifty-one prisoners on being mustered in the morning previous to commencing their daily labour, suddenly rushed, according to a preconcerted plan, on their guards and overseers, and having disarmed them after a struggle in which one of the guards was killed and another wounded, they placed them in close confinement in various cells, so that tidings of the outbreak could not be conveyed to the barracks. It was the intention of the mutineers to have suddenly attacked the garrison, after having secured all the remaining officers who were to be found in the stockades, and having taken the fort by surprise, to have made themselves masters of the island; but chance luckily frustrated these schemes. Four soldiers having occasion to go from their quarters to the hospital early in the morning, saw what was going on in the town, and made all haste back to communicate the alarming intelligence to their commanding officers. They were pursued and fired at by a party of the insurgents, who killed one, wounded another, and captured a third; but the fourth, fortunately escaping, gave the alarm to his companions. Finding themselves frustrated in their secret arrangements, the mutineers now betook themselves to the boats, which they had previously loaded with provisions, arms, ammunition, and such other articles as they deemed of use or value. The commandant, Captain Donaldson, in the meantime hastened to Kingston with all the troops under his command, and arrived at the sea-shore just as two of the three boats which the insurgents seized had passed the reef which ran round the island, at a short distance from the shore, while the third had just been got under weigh preparatory to following. The troops discharged their muskets at the fugitives, but without effect; and the boats proceeded to Phillip Island, distant about seven miles from the main settlement. One boat still remained at Kingston, but this the mutineers had disabled before leaving, and still more to delay if not prevent pursuit, they carried away the boat-builder. The disabled craft was repaired; and on the morning after the day which witnessed the transactions, Captain Donaldson, with Lieutenant Donnellan, the second in command, and twenty-two of the military, proceeded towards Phillip Island starting before daybreak in the hope of taking the fugitives by surprise, but wind and tide being adverse they did not arrive until after

sunrise. They were received with a cheer and a volley of musketry from the insurgents, who occupied an advantageous position behind the rocks. The military landed without sustaining loss, and after some firing the convicts fled, leaving three of their number killed, and eleven prisoners. Satisfied for the present with this victory, the commandant returned to the settlement, taking back the prisoners, the three boats, and the plundered property, leaving the remaining mutineers, not without means of escape, to subsist as best they could on the goats and swine which luckily for them were numerous in their fastness. A few days later the military again visited the island, when ten more of the fugitives were captured. The remainder, now reduced to twenty-five, continued for some time in the island, but were eventually glad to surrender to the authorities, their resolution to hold out completely giving way on the capture of their leader—one Goff—who was surprised by the military while sleeping under the shelter of a rock. In June 1839 Captain Wakefield of the 39th Regiment resigned his position as commandant, and was succeeded by Lient.-Colonel Morissett, late Superintendent of Police at Sydney. In 1842 the *Governor Phillip*, a vessel employed by Government to carry supplies to and from Norfolk Island, was piratically seized by the prisoners of that island. The boat's crew, numbering twelve men, all prisoners, who were employed between the island and the vessel, by a preconcerted plan disarmed the sentry on board, compelled such of the crew as were on deck to jump overboard, and secured the captain, mate and soldiers below deck. The captain and mate, by breaking through a partition got into communication with the soldiers and commenced an attack by firing through the crevices, which took effect, when they rushed on deck, and after a brief struggle with the pirates recaptured the vessel. The soldiers lost one man, and five others were wounded; of the convicts five were killed and two wounded. The others were tried, and four of them were convicted and executed. At this time Captain Maconochie was commandant; and this and other incidents did not testify favourably to his celebrated "humane" system of applying mild persuasion rather than severity in the treatment of even the most desperate criminals. Maconochie had come out with Sir John Franklin, who was favourably inclined to his new system of discipline. In his estimate of prisoners Maconochie, it is said, was equally deceived by a generous confidence, or by his pity for human suffering. He embodied the results in a report and sent it home to the Colonial Office, without having fully explained the contents of the despatch to Franklin. On its publication he was dismissed by the Governor, and stormy discussions followed the charges made against the settlers. A select committee of the House of Commons, presided over by Sir W. Molesworth, recommended that transportation to N.S.W. and T. should cease. It was determined to adopt a middle course, and

Norfolk Island was selected for the new experiment. Maconochie was appointed by Governor Gipps Commandant of the island, "to test the ideas he had propounded, and to seek the success he had foretold." At once he removed all outward signs of the severest discipline. The gaol doors were thrown open, the gaoler loitered before the deserted prison, and the prisoners "yielded to the spell of a transient enchantment." The "mark" or reward system, by which they could obtain freedom by good behaviour, was explained to them, and they were exhorted and entreated in tones humane even to tenderness. In May 1840, 1800 prisoners were set for one day (the Queen's Birthday) absolutely free to join in a general festivity, at which sports and a theatrical performance took place. Glee and songs were sung, tobacco and rum were served out, and three cheers for Her Majesty, and three for the Commandant, rent the air. No accident occurred—the goal was entirely unoccupied—no theft or disorder had disgraced the day. "Its novelty gave to Maconochie's system the air of delirium; the disciplinarians of the ancient *regime* raised their hands with astonishment." The reaction was brought about by the daring attempt of the conspirators to capture the *Governor Phillip*. The condemned men met their fate with fortitude, and their last words were in grateful remembrance of Maconochie. But his recall had been determined on. The colonial press teemed with ludicrous allusions to a system supported by plays, rum and tobacco. His administration was however prolonged till 1844, from the difficulty of finding a qualified successor. Meanwhile a new scheme (the probation system) was launched on the sea of penal speculation. "Norfolk Island was again to be made the lowest deep of transportation, and well has its destiny been fulfilled." It may be urged that Maconochie's plan did not receive a fair and sustained trial, and human sympathy, shuddering at the cruelties of other systems, not unnaturally turned to one which was by many laughed at and stigmatised as "sentimental." This new system succeeded no better than the old one. The prisoners were not reclaimed; and Norfolk Island became a perfect hell of crime and rigorous punishment. The place was visited by Governor Gipps in 1843, and the following year the Government of it was transferred from N.S.W. to T. The convict establishment was finally broken up in 1855, and in the following year the Pitcairn Island community of 194 persons were landed there. The island, with its buildings, 2000 sheep, as well as horses, pigs, and poultry, was given to them by the British Government. They were allotted land for cultivation, and supplies for a limited period; they were also supplied with seeds and implements of husbandry. A magistrate and chaplain were appointed. The instructions from the Secretary of State were that the islanders should be as little interfered with as possible, and that their existing social system was to be maintained. They inhabit the old convict town,

occupying themselves with agriculture and with whale-fishing. Forty of them returned to Pitcairn Island and the remainder have increased to about 300 souls. The island has been again placed under the Government of N.S.W., and is visited occasionally by the Governors of the colony.

NORMANBY, MARQUIS OF (1819—) Governor of V. He joined the Regiment of Coldstream Guards, and became Lieutenant in 1838. In 1844 he was made Deputy-Lieutenant of Yorkshire. In 1847 he was elected member of Parliament for Scarborough, but relinquished his seat in 1851 on accepting the office of Comptroller of the Queen's Household. In 1853 he was advanced to be Treasurer of the Household; in 1858 he was made Governor of Nova Scotia, and in 1863 he succeeded to the peerage on the death of his father. In 1866 he delivered his maiden speech in the House of Lords as mover of the Address in reply to the Throne. In 1871 he was appointed Governor of Q.; in 1875 Governor of N.Z.; and in 1879 Governor of V.

NORTHERN TERRITORY.—The Northern Territory, or Alexandra Land, comprises the immense tract of country made over to S.A. as one of the results of the explorations of McDouall Stuart. It contains an area of 531,402 square miles, or 340,097,280 acres. It is bounded on the N. by the Indian Ocean; on the S. by the 26th parallel of S. latitude; on the E. by the 138th meridian of E. longitude; and on the W. by the 129th meridian of E. longitude.

HISTORY.—When Stuart returned from his last journey across the continent after having shown the practicability of the overland route, the Government entered into successful negotiations with the Imperial Government for the cession of the newly-discovered territory to S.A. It was resolved to survey and offer for sale a considerable quantity of land on the north-western portion of the continent. The land sales took place in Adelaide in March 1864, before the surveys had commenced. The land was readily taken up and preparations were made for despatching a party to carry on the survey, and to protect life and property. Lieut.-Colonel Boyle Travers Finniss was appointed first Resident Commissioner. He was an old colonist of large experience in public life, and had been Treasurer of the colony and Acting-Governor. He was an officer in the volunteer force and a surveyor by profession. He set to work immediately to prepare for the departure of the first expedition and was liberally assisted by the Government. The Government chartered the *Henry Ellis* and well supplied it with stores, instruments and weapons for the protection of the party. In the instructions to the Government Resident, Adam Bay was suggested as a likely place for the first town; but he was left with full discretion to select another site if after examination he found that unsuitable. He was also to cultivate friendly relations with his party and to see that no injustice was done to the natives. A few days afterwards,

the expedition sailed and in June 1864 the *Henry Ellis* cast anchor in Adam Bay, and the party landed. The first river camp was fixed on 1st July and the men celebrated the commencement of their work by broaching a barrel of beer. The expedition resulted in failure. Quarrels between the Government Resident and his officers led to a state of disorganisation. Finniss selected Escape Cliffs as the site of the town, against the remonstrances of some of his officers and gentlemen who represented the selectors. But little progress was made with the survey. Quarrels took place with the natives, who stole the stores and who were punished without discrimination. The reports which reached Adelaide were of the most disheartening character. The Government Resident complained of his officers, and his officers complained of him. Meanwhile precious time was wasted, and little was being done towards the survey. Some of the settlers purchased a small boat—the *Forlorn Hope*—with which to leave the settlement. In this boat they sailed 1600 miles to Champion Bay, and proceeded thence to Adelaide where they brought before the Government what they averred to be the state of things at Adam Bay. Finniss was called upon for explanations, which being deemed unsatisfactory, he was recalled in 1868 and Manton was left in command. A Court of Inquiry was appointed which reported that the Government Resident was wanting in tact in the management of his men, had not shown skill in organising their labour, and had not taken sufficient care to protect the stores. They also blamed Finniss for selecting such an unsuitable site as Escape Cliffs for the township. The result of the inquiry was the removal of the Government Resident. Under Manton there was not much improvement. The impression became stronger that Adam Bay was not the proper place for the settlement. The next step was to find if possible a better site, and Captain Cadell was dispatched to the Gulf of Carpentaria to see what advantages offered there; but his report of his explorations was received with ridicule. The state of things was becoming serious. The five years within which the Government had pledged themselves to have the surveys completed and the land open for selection were passing, and nothing had been done. Escape Cliffs was abandoned and the party recalled. The London selectors demanded back their money with interest. This demand was resisted by the Government who still hoped to finish the survey. They passed a Bill through Parliament to give the original selectors a greatly increased area over that to which they were entitled, in consideration of the delay which had taken place in the surveys; but this offer was limited to those who undertook to withdraw the threatened legal action against the Government. Many of the selectors accepted this offer, but the bulk of those in London refused it and persisted in their demand for a return of their money. In 1869 G. W. Goyder, Surveyor-General, was

requested to go to the Northern Territory with a competent party to select a site and complete the survey. He undertook this responsible work, got a party together, and started. He selected Port Darwin for the site and laid the foundation of Palmerston as the chief town. He set his band of surveyors to work, and under the controlling spirit of one energetic man the task was completed in a few months. The Northern Territory, notwithstanding its disastrous early history, is a rich country and destined to become a great settlement. One melancholy incident has marked its brief history. In 1876 the Government determined to hold a Circuit Court at Palmerston, presided over by one of the Judges of the Supreme Court. Mr. Justice Wearing was dispatched, attended by the necessary officers. The party reached Port Darwin in safety; the Court was held, and they embarked in the steamer *Gothenburg* for the return voyage. Unfortunately the steamer ran on a reef lying off the coast of Queensland, and in the course of a few hours became a total wreck—the greater portion of her passengers and crew thus meeting with an untimely death. Over a hundred persons—men, women, and children—were swept from the deck of the ill-fated vessel. A few escaped in boats, but the great majority went down, and amongst them Judge Wearing; his associate, Mr. Pelham; Mr. Whitby, acting Crown Prosecutor; T. Reynolds, a leading politician of the Province, and his wife; and the Captain and his chief officers. No calamity that ever befel the Colony produced such a feeling of sorrow or such an expression of heartfelt sympathy as this. The Parliament made liberal provision for the families of those who died in the service of the Government, and the benevolence of the public took charge of the rest. Between £9,000 and £10,000 was at once contributed and distributed amongst the sufferers. Captain Douglas was next appointed Government Resident of the Northern Territory with a permanent staff. He retired in May 1874; and till the following October Dr. Millner took charge of the settlement, when G. B. Scott arrived to succeed Douglas.

DESCRIPTION OF THE COUNTRY.—Tropical in its character the climate is not very different from that of Northern Queensland. A great deal of the land is good, cattle thrive well upon the pastures, pearl and bêche-de-mer can be established, while mines of gold and other metals are being opened up. Contiguity to Java and other Indian islands will promote the success of the settlement. Conscious that the rich flats near the sea will one day have plantations of rice, sugar, cotton, &c., while horses, cattle and sheep can be raised on the pastures for the Indian market, the Government of S. A. has made use of a wise and liberal policy to attract emigrants and secure a permanent establishment. The land bounding the coast is in a great measure low and uninteresting, in very few instances being more than 100 feet above the sea level; wherever the coast is high it is generally

cliffs composed of sandstone, marl and ironstone; the lower portions are partly sandy beaches, but principally mud flats thickly fringed with mangroves. The country inland is generally speaking of a level character over which railways could be easily constructed, and is in a great measure destitute of conspicuous land marks. At a distance of from 30 to 100 miles from the coast a tableland is met with varying in height from 300 to 900 feet, and near the Victoria River it attains a height of nearly 1700 feet. The rivers must not be overlooked: many of them—the Roper, Adelaide, South Alligator, Liverpool and Victoria—will hereafter prove to be of considerable importance for inland navigation. The character of the soil in so large an area is necessarily variable; but its general fertility is unquestionable, and nearly all tropical plants, including maize, cotton, and the sugar-cane, have been grown successfully in the Botanic Garden at Palmerston. About 200,000 square miles of country have been taken up for pastoral purposes, and liberal regulations have been framed to encourage pastoral settlement. Gold-mining has hitherto been the only industry carried on to any extent. Some splendid nuggets—recently one of forty-two pound weight—have been obtained from the alluvial diggings, and the quartz-crushing returns have in many cases shown from four ounces to six ounces to one ton. The population of the settlement is estimated at about 400 whites, 30 Malays, and 2040 Chinese.

NORTHUMBERLAND CAPE, a headland at the south-easternmost extreme of S. A. to the westward of the river Glenelg, named by Grant after the Duke of Northumberland.

NORTHUMBERLAND ISLES are situated off the N.E. coast of A. about ten miles from the W. end of Percy Isles.

NUYTS ARCHIPELAGO. An assemblage of islands off the western coast of S.A. at Eyria Peninsula. The principal islands of the group are St. Francis, St. Peter and Lounds islands.

NUYTS CAPE is situated on the southern shore of S.A. near Point Fowler.

NUYTS LAND comprises that portion of the southern coast of the continent extending from Leeuwen's Land to the meridian of 124 deg. E. and was discovered by Peter Van Nuyts in 1627.

O.

OAKOVER. River in W.A., was discovered and named by Frank Gregory in 1861.

OAMARU, a township in N.Z., is the most northern township in Otago, ranking next to Dunedin, from which it is distant seventy-eight miles. It is connected with that city and Christchurch (152 miles) by railway. The district surrounding the town is the largest grain-producing district in the Middle Island, producing more than

a third of the entire produce of Otago. It abounds in building stone of magnificent quality, a pure white limestone, of which the town is principally built. Originally an open roadstead, an artificial harbour, rendered necessary by the large export of agricultural produce, is in course of construction, a break-water and wharves having been built of concrete, the works being now sufficiently advanced to shelter vessels drawing fifteen feet of water. The Oamaru harbour works are probably the most substantial in Australasia. The population is about 5000.

O'CONNELL, SIR MAURICE CHARLES, formerly Commander of the Forces in N.S.W., was a cousin of the celebrated Daniel O'Connell. He came to Sydney in 1809 in command of the 73rd Regiment, and bearing a commission as Lieutenant-Governor of N.S.W. and its Dependencies. After his arrival he married the daughter of Governor Bligh. Sir Maurice remained in the colony till 1814, when the regiment was ordered to Ceylon. In 1838 he again returned to the colony as Commander of the Forces, and continued to hold that appointment till relieved by Major-General Wynyard. He was Acting-Governor of N.S.W. from 12th July to 2nd August 1846. He never took an active part in public affairs, but in private life was much esteemed by all under his command, especially by the private soldiers. He died in Sydney 25th May 1848.

O'CONNELL, SIR MAURICE CHARLES (1812—1879) son of the preceding, was a native of Sydney. He accompanied his parents to Ceylon, and in 1819 was sent to England. He was educated at the High School of Edinburgh, and special studies were subsequently pursued at Dublin and Paris, where he was for some time a student of the College of Charlemagne. Destined for the military profession he entered the army as Ensign at the age of sixteen, and joined the 73rd Infantry at Gibraltar. During the prevalence of yellow fever at "the Rock," he was subject to quarantine for six months. Afterwards he served at Malta, and proceeded thence in 1831 to Jersey, remaining with the dépôt of his regiment as Adjutant until 1835. At twenty-three he went to Spain; and under the Orders in Council of King William IV. permitting British subjects to volunteer for foreign service, the young soldier raised in the county of Cork and other parts of Munster a regiment of the British Legion, and embarked for the Peninsula to fight for the Queen and Constitution. O'Connell, with the rank of Colonel, headed his regiment, the 10th Munster Light Infantry, in the stirring times which ensued. During the campaign he was present in several engagements between the Christinos and the Carlists, and for his gallantry in action was repeatedly mentioned with distinction in general orders and despatches. On the retirement of Sir Gaspard Le Marchant, Colonel O'Connell was appointed Deputy Adjutant-General; afterwards, on the return to England of Sir De Lacy Evans, he succeeded to the rank of General of Brigade in

command of the New British Auxiliary Legion in Spain; and shared in the vicissitudes which preceded and the triumphs which succeeded the close of the Spanish civil war. Amongst the honours conferred on him were those of Knight Commander of Isabella the Catholic, Knight of San Fernando, and Knight Extraordinary of Charles III. At the end of 1837 at San Sebastian the dissolution of the Legion was promulgated in general orders. Shortly after O'Connell returned to England and was re-appointed to the 51st Regiment; he was next promoted to a Captaincy in the 28th, and as military secretary on the staff of his father returned to N.S.W. in 1835. When his regiment was recalled home O'Connell sold out of the army and settled down in the colony, connecting himself with pastoral pursuits. In the social and political changes of the succeeding ten years he took an active part. He was a candidate for the representation of his native city in the first Legislative Council of N.S.W., but was not successful, owing to his connection with what was then regarded as the "exclusive" party. At a subsequent election he was returned without personal canvass for the district of Port Phillip. In 1848 he was appointed Commissioner for Crown Lands for the Burnett district, then a squatting district, and in 1854 was made Government Resident at Port Curtis, which office he held until the north-eastern territory was separated from N.S.W., and erected into the colony of Q. O'Connell was called to the Legislative Council of Q. on the assumption of the Government by Sir George Bowen. He took his seat as one of the Commissioners to open the first Parliament in May 1860, and represented the Ministry throughout the session. During this period his name became identified with some of the most important measures of legislation—notably the Primary Education Act and the Grammar Schools Act. At the close of the year he was appointed President of the Council, on the retirement of Sir Charles Nicholson. He also held the command of the local military force as Colonel of the Q. Volunteer Brigade. When Sir George Bowen left the colony, O'Connell administered the Government, and during his occupation of Government House had as a guest the Duke of Edinburgh. Following the death of Governor Blackall, and until the arrival of the Marquis of Normanby, O'Connell a second time administered the Government, and again during the period that elapsed between the departure of Lord Normanby and the arrival of Governor Cairns. The honour of knighthood was conferred on him in 1868. He was four times Acting-Governor of Q., and this office he was, under sign-manual of the Queen, entitled to bear on all occasions of necessity. He was President of the Q. Legislative Council at the time of his death on 23rd March 1879. Sir Maurice stood high in the craft of Freemasons, having been up to the time of his decease Provincial Grand Master under the Irish constitution. He was also President

of the Australasian Association and of the Q. Turf Club, and Vice-President of the National Agricultural Association. His remains were accorded the honour of a public funeral.

O'CONNOR AND BRADLEY, noted bushrangers who escaped in a whaleboat from V.D.L. in 1853 and crossing Bass Straits landed in V. The first act of bushranging these villains perpetrated in V. was to walk up to a ploughman of Mr. King's near Brighton and order him to deliver up his team. He declined, upon which he was shot dead by one of them, and they rode off with the horses. They committed many other robberies and excited the utmost terror amongst the settlers. They were at last discovered at the farm of a person named Cain, near Kilmore, and a smart skirmish took place between them and three mounted troopers, in which one of the latter was dangerously and one mortally wounded. They were overpowered and brought to Melbourne, tried before Justice Williams, convicted and sentenced to death.

OFFICER, SIR ROBERT (1800-1880) a native of Scotland, came to T. in 1821. He had obtained his diploma as Member of the Royal College of Surgeons, England, and he was at once appointed by Governor Sorell Government medical officer for New Norfolk and adjacent districts, this office including the surgeonship of the old Hobart Town Hospital. He acquired a considerable private practice which ultimately induced him to resign his Government connection, and he went into partnership with Dr. Agnew, which he continued for about a year. When the gold fever broke out in V. like many others he was induced to try his fortune over the straits, but after a few months stay he returned to his island home and resumed his private practice. After holding successfully the appointments of Assistant Colonial Surgeon, Surgeon Superintendent of the New Norfolk Hospital, and Principal Medical Officer and President of the Medical Court of Examiners, he retired from the active duties of his profession and went to live at his residence, Hall-green, near New Norfolk. He resigned his private practice to Dr. Agnew, but he was not long allowed to remain in seclusion. In the election for the Legislative Council of 1853—then the only Chamber in the colony—he was prevailed on to come forward for the constituency of Buckingham. He was opposed by Dr. Crook, but defeated his opponent by a substantial majority. He took his seat for the first time on the assembling of the Council on 18th April 1854. During that session the new Constitution Act was passed, and the measure having received the Royal Assent on being transmitted to England, the Council was dissolved for the election of two Houses of Parliament under the present form of representative government. This election took place in September 1856, on which occasion Dr. Officer was elected member for the district of Glenorchy for the Assembly. He was chosen Chairman of Committees, an office which he continued to fill with such ability and

tact that on the Speakership becoming vacant in August 1861, by the retirement of Fenton, he was chosen by the House to fill this important office. He filled the chair with credit to himself and the Assembly uninterruptedly until 1877, having been elected five times: namely in August 1861; January 1863; November 1866; November 1871; and October 1872. All this time he was member for Glenorchy, having been elected for the constituency without opposition on each occasion that he sought its suffrages. In 1869 he received the honour of knighthood from the Queen for his services as Speaker, and when failing health compelled him to retire from the post he had long and honourably filled, the House unanimously expressed its grateful sense of the manner in which he had discharged his duties and the loss entailed by his resignation. He sent in his resignation on 20th April 1877, and at the same sitting (on the 24th) at which it was read to the House, the Colonial Secretary, Reibey, without notice moved as follows: "That the thanks of the House be given to its late Speaker, Sir Robert Officer, for his able services during the period of nearly sixteen years in which he filled the chair of the House; that this House fully appreciates the zeal and ability with which he discharged his duties of Speaker and the urbanity and kindness which have uniformly marked his conduct in the chair, and which have secured to him the esteem and respect of every member of this House." The motion was seconded by F. M. Innes and supported by W. R. Giblin and Balfe. On 4th May the newly-elected Speaker (Dr. Butler) in accordance with the resolution of the House presented to Sir Robert Officer, in the presence of the House, the address; and the ex-Speaker, standing for the last time on the dais which he had occupied so long, replied in the words of farewell to the political arena in which he had held a distinguished place. From that date his health rapidly declined. Of all the enterprises calculated to benefit the colony on which Sir Robert entered with indefatigable energy—and they were many—none received such an enthusiastic support at his hands as the acclimatisation of salmon, the success of which is largely due to his efforts. He was the leader of this movement in Parliament and out of it, and by his earnest pleading oftentimes saved the acclimatisation vote from being sacrificed as a wasteful expenditure. He took pride in showing visitors the salmon ponds above New Norfolk, and among these was the Duke of Edinburgh. He was extremely benevolent and a staunch patron of education. He was himself a master of arts of Aberdeen College, and almost to the end of his life kept up his classical and other studies. His sons are engaged in pastoral pursuits in Victoria.

O'FLYNN, REV. WILLIAM (1828—) a clergyman of the Roman Catholic Church, arrived in N.S.W. in 1817. Although not the first Catholic priest who had visited the colony, he was the first deputed expressly to minister to the spiritual

wants of the members of his communion of whom there were probably at that time ten thousand in N.S.W. and V.D.L.

OHAĒAWAI, a native village of N.Z., halfway between Russell and Hokianga, is a place of considerable historical interest, having been the scene of an action disastrous to the British troops during the first Maori war. It is celebrated for its hot springs, which find vent in numerous places, extending over an area of five or six square miles. The most important are situated two miles from the village, and range in temperature from 90° to 150°. They are strong in mineral properties, and are famous for their beneficial effect in rheumatism and skin diseases, while to invalids benefiting by change of air a short residence within the influence of the strong gases issuing from the ground in the vicinity acts as a powerful tonic. Important mineral indications are also found, particularly sulphide of mercury, native mercury, sulphur, iron, &c. The village is fifteen miles from Auckland overland, 120 by sea; it has a Government and native school and a native Episcopal church.

O'HALLORAN, THOMAS SHULDHAM, (1797—) after an eventful military career retired from the army in 1838, and came to S.A. in 1839. In February 1840 he was gazetted Commandant of the S.A. Militia, and in June Commissioner of Police. In 1840, when the ship *Maria* was wrecked in Lacedpede Bay and the crew were murdered by the blacks, O'Halloran went down to investigate the matter. The result of the investigation was that he hanged two or three of the natives. This proceeding was severely condemned by a number of colonists who made strong representations on the subject to both the local and Home Governments. The result showed however that the summary measures adopted were the wisest and safest. On 17th August of the same year he was sent in command of an expedition against the Milmenura (Murray) blacks; in April 1841 he commanded an expedition against the Murray and Rufus blacks; in May he was again sent against the same tribes; in November he was in command of an expedition to Port Lincoln against the Battara blacks. In April 1843 he resigned his appointment as Commissioner of Police. In June of the same year he was nominated a non-official Member of the Council, which position he held for eight years, until the establishment of Representative Government. He was returned for the Legislative Council at the first election in March 1857. In 1863 he resigned. He was the principal founder and supporter of Christ Church, O'Halloran Hill, and one of the original Governors of St. Peter's Collegiate School.

O'LOGHLEN, SIR BRYAN (1828—) was educated at St. Clement's School, Oxford, then at Ascot College, Birmingham, and in 1846 at Trinity College, Dublin. He was called to the Irish Bar in 1856 and joined the Munster Circuit for five years.

He came to V. in 1862 and was admitted to the Victorian Bar in 1863, when he was appointed Crown Prosecutor which office he resigned in 1877, and in 1878 was elected a member of the Assembly. On the death of his uncle Sir Coleman O'Loughlen, in 1879, Sir Bryan was elected, though absent, member for Clare, Ireland, in the House of Commons but did not take his seat; and the Committee of Elections of the House of Commons declared the seat for Clare vacant by reason of Sir Bryan O'Loughlen's acceptance of an office of emolument (the Attorney-Generalship of V.) in the Berry Ministry. He acted as Chief Secretary during the absence of Berry on the embassy to England; he was defeated at the general elections in February 1880, and went out of office with the Berry Ministry.

OMEQ, a mining township in V. on Livingstone Creek about 250 miles E.N.E. of Melbourne. The diggings are of a rich character, and likely to last for many years to come, especially the quartz reefs on which little has been done for want of capital. Some portion of the district which is mountainous is parcelled out in runs. A large extent of valuable land suitable for grazing and cultivation is still unoccupied, although much has been taken up during the past two years. Selection is steadily progressing. The gold-field extends over eleven square miles of ground; there are twenty-three distinct quartz reefs.

ONSLOW, ARTHUR, (1833—) a Captain in the Royal Navy, came to A. in March 1857 as officer on board the *Herald* surveying vessel on the Australian station. He was employed surveying Shark's Bay and the numerous detached coral reefs outside the Great Barrier Reefs, and in Torres Straits. He returned to England in 1861, but came to Sydney on sick leave in 1863. He was elected member for Camden in the Legislative Assembly in 1870, which constituency he has since uninterruptedly represented. In 1874 he accompanied William Macleay in his expedition to New Guinea in the *Chevert*.

OPHIR, a township in N.S.W. contiguous to the Summerhill Creek, 154 miles W. of Sydney. It is famous as being the first gold-field in N.S.W. having been discovered by Hargreaves on 14th February 1851. It has now very few marks left of its former greatness, and the population from thousands has dwindled away to about 150 persons. The land in the vicinity of the town is taken up by sheep and cattle stations.

O'QUINN, JAMES (1820—) Roman Catholic Bishop of Brisbane, is a native of Ireland. He was ordained priest in 1843 and took charge of an academical institution in Dublin. On 29th June 1859 he was consecrated first Roman Catholic Bishop of Brisbane, where he arrived in 1861.

ORD, SIR HARRY ST. GEORGE, Governor of W.A., entered the Royal Engineers in 1850; in 1854 served in the Baltic under Sir Henry Jones, and distinguished himself by his courage

and ability. He also took part in several engagements in the Baltic resulting in the capture of Bomarsund. In 1861 he was appointed Governor of Bermuda and held that position for five years. He was also employed in diplomatic functions on several occasions on the W. coast of Africa. In 1867 when Singapore, Penang, and Malacca were separated from the Government of India and formed into a Crown Colony under the title of the Straits Settlement, he was selected by the Colonial Office as the first Governor of the new colony. He was also Commander-in-chief of the forces there. In 1877 he was appointed Governor of W. A.

O'SHANASSY, SIR JOHN (1818—) a native of Ireland, came to Port Phillip in 1839. He settled ultimately in business in Melbourne, and from the first devoted himself to public affairs. He took an active part in the agitation in favour of the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. and also in the formation of the Anti-Transportation League in 1851. In that year he was elected to the first Legislative Chamber of V.; in 1856 he was elected for Kilmore; and in 1857 became Chief Secretary, but only held office for six weeks. In 1858 he again came into power, and retained it until the end of 1859. In October 1861 he returned to office for the third time. His Government passed several important measures, amongst others the Electoral Law Amendment Act and the Land Act of 1862. In 1863 they retired, and he remained in opposition until 1866, when he paid a visit to Europe. He returned in 1867, and was elected to the Upper House for the Central Province in 1868. In 1874 he resigned his seat, intending to re-enter the Lower House, but was twice defeated. In 1877 he was elected for Belfast. He has always been an unwavering free-trader, for immigration, and supporter of a united form of government for the Australian Colonies rather than the Federal system. In 1870 he was made Companion of the Order of Sts. Michael and George, and in 1874 was created K.C.M.G. and Knight-Bachelor, by special warrant.

OTWAY, CAPE, the southernmost point of Portland Bay district in V., was discovered by Lieutenant Grant and named in honour of William Albany Otway, Captain in the Royal Navy and one of the Commissioners of the Transport Board. It is a bold headland and has a lighthouse 500 feet above high-water mark.

OVENS RIVER, in V., was discovered by Hume and Hovell in 1824, and named after Major Owens, Private Secretary to Governor Brisbane, who in company with Captain Currie had in 1823 explored the country around Lake George and discovered the Murrumbidgee River.

OVERLAND TELEGRAPH. On the return of John Macdougall Stuart to Adelaide in 1862 after having successfully crossed the continent and proved the existence of a practicable route, interspersed with tracts of valuable country in a region hitherto considered an impassable desert, the idea

of constructing a line of telegraph two thousand miles in length to the northern coast, and so opening up the country discovered, and also to connect with an Anglo-Australian cable to be brought down to meet it from Singapore or Java, was formed by Charles Todd, Postmaster-General of S.A., and laid before the Government. The measure, though generally approved of, was considered too large for the resources of the colony; so the question was postponed from year to year although Todd never lost sight of it, and frequently urged its importance on the Government. In the meantime the colony had formed the settlement on the northern coast at Escape Cliffs, which after two or three years had to be abandoned in favour of another at Port Darwin. These settlements suffered from their isolated position and want of communication with the settled districts in the southern portion of Australia, and the idea of a line of telegraph from Adelaide to Port Darwin gained favour till 1870, when the successful working of the Atlantic and Anglo-Indian cables gave an impetus to telegraph extension all over the world, resulting in the formation of the British-Australian Telegraph Company, for the purpose of putting down a cable from Singapore to Port Darwin *via* Java. The South Australian Government, under the advice of Governor Sir James Fergusson, decided to carry out the scheme of the telegraph recommended by Todd, and undertook to complete and have it ready to meet the cable on 1st January 1872, a period of about twenty months. The work was placed in the hands of Todd, who with an admirable system of organisation and ingenuity tided it over many unforeseen difficulties, and brought it to a successful completion. Six hundred miles of the work at each end were let to public contractors acting under Government superintendents, but Todd reserved the section in the centre extending to nearly eight hundred miles—which had hitherto only been traversed by one lightly equipped party of white men—to be constructed under his own immediate supervision. He divided the work on this central portion into five different parts and organised parties for each section; five officers of ability and experience, Knuckey, McMinn, Mills, Woods and Harvey—all of whom had taken leading parts in the pioneer expedition to the Northern Territory—being selected to take command of the different parties. The region was so unproductive of game and other articles of sustenance that every ounce of food required until the completion of the work and also for the return journey had to be taken with them. The parties proved to be so well organised that they arrived on the ground without any hitch, completed their portion of the line within the estimated time, and also erected one hundred miles extra of poles and finished in all about two hundred miles of line in addition. Great difficulty was experienced throughout the sections owing to the scarcity of suitable timber for poles, but by

traversing the country in every direction and carting the poles great distances—sometimes over one hundred miles—the requisite number was at last obtained. While everything was progressing satisfactorily on the most difficult portion of the work the contractors at both ends were encountering difficulties. Assistance was promptly rendered to the southern contractor which enabled him to complete the works within a few weeks after time; but the expedition of the northern contractor, after erecting about 220 miles of poles, collapsed entirely—most of the draught stock required for transit having died and nearly all the men returned to Adelaide. The Government immediately sent round to Port Darwin by sea a large and well equipped expedition under the command of R. C. Patterson, Assistant Engineer-in-Chief of the colony, to finish off the work, offering him a bonus of £1500 if he managed to get the work done in time; but this party also encountered difficulties which rendered the completion of the work within the specified time hopeless. The Government therefore sent Todd himself with reinforcements, and he wisely took his steamers 100 miles up the River Roper in the Gulf of Carpentaria and made that place the base of operations instead of Port Darwin, thus saving about 300 miles of carting and obtaining a better road. An unprecedentedly wet season was encountered immediately after his arrival, rendering the country impassable for loaded teams for some time; but as soon as the weather improved great activity took place and Todd completed the line on 22nd August 1872, being a little over eight months after time. The British Australian cable after being successfully laid broke, and was not repaired until 22nd October 1872, when telegraphic communication was established between Australia and all parts of the world—the first recipient of a message from London being Messrs. James McEwan and Co. of Melbourne. The beneficial results of this great work became apparent at once. Within six months after the opening of the line the colony gained nearly a quarter of a million sterling extra on its wheat harvest, through the telegraph enabling sales to be made in foreign markets. Gold discovered in payable quantities by the northern contractors' party led to the opening up of valuable goldfields and the settlement of the Northern territory. Deposits of copper, lead and iron have since been discovered, and will no doubt at some future time prove remunerative. Stockholders quickly pushed their herds out along the line and the country near the centre of Australia was rapidly taken up for pastoral purposes. All classes were directly or indirectly benefited and all saw the utility of this great work, which it is to be hoped will soon be followed by a railway along the same route.

OXLEY, JOHN (1781-1828) explorer, a native of England, whilst quite a youth entered the navy, saw some active service in various parts of the world; and rose to the rank of lieutenant. He came

out to Australia and was appointed Surveyor-General of N.S.W. in January 1812. Being a young officer of great spirit and enterprise he was sent out as a leader of an expedition from Sydney in 1817. He had with him Allan Cunningham, botanist and explorer; Evans, Deputy Surveyor-General; C. Frazer, botanist; and Parr, mineralogist. The expedition started early in 1817, and on 14th April arrived at Bathurst Plains, where they found the young settlement formed by Governor Macquarie in a flourishing condition. They reached the Lachlan River on 26th, at a place where it was about 100 feet wide, with deep banks. Here a depôt was established, and two boats constructed to assist their progress down the river. Numbers of natives were found encamped on the banks, and behaved in a friendly manner. They reached the settlement on 29th August, after an absence of four and a-half months, having added greatly to what was previously known of the interior. In May 1818 Oxley again set out with a party consisting of Dr. Harris, surgeon of the N.S.W. Corps; Evans, Deputy Surveyor-General; C. Frazer, botanist; and twelve men, with nineteen horses and six months' provisions. A lofty range of hills, which in their outward journey they had seen was the object to which they directed their course. These hills had been named Arbutnot's Range, but were afterwards known as the Warrumbungle Range. On 27th July when they had been out about two months they came to the banks of a stream more than 500 feet wide, and apparently in flood by the heavy rains which were now falling. This was named the Castlereagh, in honour of Lord Castlereagh, and after waiting on its banks for a few days it fell so much that they were able to cross it. Ascending Arbutnot's Range they ascertained that its loftiest point (Mount Exmouth) was about 3000 feet high. From this elevation they described a lofty range of hills, to which they gave the name of the Earl of Hardwicke. Its highest elevations were named Mounts Apsley and Shirley. On 2nd September they reached a stream which they called the Peel, after Sir Robert Peel, and they named another fine stream the Hastings, after Lord Hastings. They reached Port Stephens, and from thence were conveyed to Newcastle on 5th November, after an absence of more than five months. Oxley was made a member of the Legislative Council in 1824, and died on 25th May 1828.

OXLEY, a township in Q., on the S. and W. Railway, eight miles south of Brisbane. The river at this point is spanned by a fine iron bridge called the Albert. It consists of eight lengths—one of 40 feet, six of 80 feet, and the largest of 160 feet, which is formed of bow-string girders of the "hogback" type, the smaller ones being lattice with parallel booms. The girders at either end rest on massive freestone abutments, and are supported by piers of cast-iron cylinders 8 feet in diameter. The dimensions of the bridge are: length 716 feet, width 22 feet, height above

high-water 43 feet. 1274 tons of iron were used in its construction, and its cost was £52,135. The surrounding district is agricultural.

OXLEY'S PEAK. A mountain of N.S.W. in the Liverpool range.

OXLEY'S TABLE LAND in N.S.W. consists of two hills that appear to have been rent asunder by some convulsion of nature, since the passage between them is narrow, and their inner faces are equally perpendicular. The one named Mount Oxley is steep on all sides, but the other gradually declines from the south. It is from four to five miles in length, and is picturesque in appearance, and lightly wooded with cypresses.

P.

PALMER, ARTHUR HUNTER (1819—) a native of Ireland, came to N.S.W. in 1838. In 1845 he went to Q. In 1866 he was returned to Parliament, and in the following year became Colonial Secretary in the Mackenzie Ministry, and successively Minister for Public Works and Minister for Lands in the same cabinet. After holding office for eighteen months, his Ministry resigned; but Palmer again came into power in 1870, and formed the Palmer Ministry, which held office for nearly five years. In January 1879 Palmer joined M'Ilwraith, and formed the Ministry now in power, taking the office of Vice-President of the Board of Lands and Works.

PALMER. A goldfield in the extreme north of Q., named after the river of the same name, about 1250 miles N.W. of Brisbane, and 120 miles S.W. of Cooktown. The diggings were discovered about the middle of 1873 by James V. Mulligan. A large digging population was drawn thither and much gold raised. Tin is found on Granite Creek waters, where in the form of stream tin it occurs in association with gold. The gold in the alluvial deposits is fast disappearing, but the quartz reefs are proving remunerative. There are it is estimated 119 well-defined reefs on the Palmer. Nine crushing machines are at work and some of the stone is very rich. The gold is pure, averaging an assay value of £4 2s. 6d. to the ounce. In 1879, 4814 tons of quartz were crushed yielding 10,002 ounces of gold, an average of 2oz. 1dwt. 23grs. to the ton. The geological evidences betoken a regular formation of gold-bearing rocks extending in a northerly and southerly direction for some hundreds of miles. During the year 1879 the population fell from 10,000 to 6500, of whom only 500 were Europeans, and the yield of gold from 120,233 ounces in 1878 to 90,000 ounces in 1879. Reefing is not in a flourishing condition, as the present appliances are not capable of overcoming the water found in the lower levels. The population is estimated at 300 Europeans and 5000 Chinese.

PALMER, SIR JAMES FREDERIC (1814-1873) was a native of Devonshire in England, and was educated for the medical profession. He came to Port Phillip in 1839, and practised his profession. In 1846 he was elected Mayor of Melbourne, and Member for Normanby in the Legislative Council, and in 1851 was chosen first Speaker of the Council. In 1856 he was returned for the north-western Province, and again elected President of the Council. He was knighted for his public services in 1857.

PALMER, REV. THOMAS FYSSHE, one of the "Scotch Martyrs," was a native of Bedfordshire, England, and descended from one of the oldest families in that county. He was educated at the University of Cambridge and was fellow of Queen's College, but in consequence of perusing the writings of Dr. Priestly he had embraced Unitarian opinions, and in 1792 became minister of a church of that denomination in Dundee, Scotland. He was a man of excellent understanding, unimpeachable morals, and great simplicity of character, but he incautiously took part in republishing an old "Address to the people of Scotland concerning the Reform of Parliament." For this offence he was tried in Edinburgh in August 1793, convicted and sentenced to seven years transportation to Botany Bay, where he arrived in September 1794. Palmer was voluntarily accompanied in his banishment by two devoted friends, Ellis and Boston, who by instances of devotion and self-sacrificing sympathy were the means of saving his life, which had been threatened by a plot laid by the captain of the *Surprise*, the vessel which brought them to Australia. When Palmer's sentence had expired in 1801 Ellis, who had meanwhile established himself in Sydney as a brewer, fitted out a small vessel to convey himself and his friend and pastor to England, but they were wrecked on one of the Ladrone Islands, where they were taken prisoners by the Spaniards, and Palmer debilitated by hardship and suffering caught a fever and died in December 1801.

PALMERSTON, the metropolis of the South Australian settlement in the Northern Territory, is situated on the eastern side of Port Darwin, on the peninsula dividing the main portion of the harbour from Frances Bay, and terminating at Fort Point. It is about 2000 miles N.N.W. of Adelaide. The site of the city is eligible and healthy for a tropical climate, being about sixty feet above the level of the sea and almost surrounded by it. From the nature of the ground the heavy rains of the wet season run off into the harbour immediately after falling, and so lessen the danger of malaria. Cool breezes blow almost constantly throughout the year and so temper an otherwise unbearable climate. The town is admirably laid out. Substantial buildings and stores of wood and iron abound. The South Australian Government has erected good stone buildings for public purposes, comprising court-house, post-office, land and survey office, and the

Government House or Residency which was completed in 1879. There is a large population of Chinamen who have separate quarters. In June 1880 the greater portion of the town inhabited by them was burned to the ground. The township was selected as the site of the settlement by Goyder in 1869, and named after Lord Palmerston, Prime Minister of England. The area as laid out covers 800 acres, each allotment occupying half-an-acre. It is a station of the British-Australian Telegraph Company, and of the South Australian Overland Telegraph.

PALM TREE CREEK, a beautiful stream of fresh water in N.A., joining the River Dawson. Fine corypha palms grow along its banks; it was discovered by Leichhardt in 1846.

PAMPHLET, THOMAS. When Oxley in his expedition to Moreton Bay in 1823 anchored at the mouth of the Pumice Stone River, scarcely had the crew landed when a number of men, supposed to be natives, were seen approaching the vessel. When they got near however, the man who was foremost was perceived to be of a much lighter colour than the others, and so soon as he was within speaking distance he hailed them in English. He was so bewildered with joy that we could make very little out of his story that night. He said his name was Thomas Pamphlet, and that with three other men he had left Sydney in a small coasting vessel on 21st March—more than eight months previous—to procure a cargo of cedar at Illawarra. They were driven out to sea, with very little water on board, by a heavy gale shortly after leaving the port. They believed that during the storm they had been driven south, and that when it abated they were off V.D.L. They steered north with the hope of reaching Port Jackson. The water was soon exhausted, and on the thirteenth day one of their number named Thompson became raving mad and died a few days after. A shower of rain at length partially supplied their wants; and steering north they made the land, and in their eagerness to reach a small stream of water they ran their boat on shore at a place where, in a few minutes, it was dashed to pieces. Some bags of flour were washed on shore, and they secured from twenty to thirty pounds each, being as much as in their exhausted state they were able to carry. Still thinking they were to the south of Sydney they set out along the coast in a northerly direction, and after travelling for some distance fell in with a tribe of friendly natives who treated them very kindly. They continued their journey north for several days, and at length found they were on an island. This must have been Stradbroke Island, whose western shore forms the south-eastern boundary of Moreton Bay. They were a month in crossing a stream, and on arriving at its mouth struck off northwards, but meeting with a large party of natives Pamphlet lived with them until he was seen by Oxley. Whilst with the natives he and his companions were frequently separated from

each other and were taken by their black friends to engage in hostile encounters with other tribes. Oxley and Lieut. Stirling learning from Pamphlet that he and his companions had discovered a large river set out to explore it, taking Finnegan, one of the shipwrecked men, with them as guides. This was on 1st December 1823. On the following morning they reached the mouth of the river, which was named the Brisbane in honour of Governor Sir Thomas Brisbane.

PARKER, SIR HENRY WATSON, (1808-1881) a native of Kent in England, came to N.S.W. in 1843. He was Private Secretary during the Government of Sir George Gipps, and was for many years a member and Chairman of Committees of the Legislative Council. He was Prime Minister and Colonial Secretary, and member of the Executive Council of N.S.W. from October 1856 to September 1857. He was knighted for his public services, and for many of the latter years of his life resided in England.

PARKES, HON. SIR HENRY (1815—) Colonial Secretary and Premier of N.S.W., came out to N.S.W. in 1839. In 1848 he took an active part in the election of Robert Lowe for Sydney. Subsequently he took a leading part in the agitation for the abolition of transportation, and was a member of the Council of the Australasian League. In December 1850 he started the *Empire* newspaper, which he conducted for seven years. By that time he had begun to make himself known in Sydney as a public speaker; and the establishment of the paper as the leading organ of liberal progressive views in the colony increased his political influence. In 1853 he contested with Thurlow the representation of Sydney, but was defeated. In 1854 he was again brought forward at a few days notice, and defeated Kemp by a majority of more than two to one. In 1856 he was elected one of the four representatives of Sydney for the new Legislative Assembly. He took an active part against the nominee principles of Wentworth's Constitution Act. After the introduction of the new Constitution he was elected by a large majority, and in 1858 gave effective aid in Parliament to the carrying of the Electoral Act, and was returned at the head of the poll for East Sydney at the first general election under that Act. For some time, after twice retiring from Parliament, he represented the district of Kiama. In 1861 he proceeded to England in company with Dalley as Immigration Commissioner, and returned to the colony in 1863. He again entered Parliament, and first took office in 1866, in Martin's Ministry, as Colonial Secretary. The great work that he accomplished whilst in that Ministry was the passing of the Public Schools Act. He resigned in September 1868, in consequence of a difference of opinion with his colleagues in reference to the treatment of Duncan the Collector of Customs. Less than two years afterwards he resigned his seat in Parliament, but towards the end of the year 1871 was elected for

Mudgee. In May 1872 the Martin-Robertson Ministry was defeated on the motion of William Forster, on the subject of the Border duties. Forster failed to form a Ministry; and the most influential members of the Opposition having indicated their opinion that Parkes ought to be a member of the new Ministry, he was sent for and formed his first Administration. During his Ministry he effected, with the sanction of Parliament, a change and enlargement in the constitution of the Ministry. The office of Solicitor-General was abolished; a new office, that of Minister for Justice and Public Instruction, was created, and also that of Minister for Mines. The retirement of Sir Alfred Stephen from the office of Chief Justice gave the Premier the opportunity of naming a successor to the highest position under the Governor. Butler, the Attorney-General, had reason to expect that this high office would be offered to him. When it was given to Martin, Butler left the Ministry. About two years and a half later the Parkes Ministry was defeated on a motion of John Robertson's, censuring their conduct in relation to the release of the prisoner Gardiner. From February 1875 to March 1877 Parkes was in opposition. He resigned the position of leader of the Opposition, which was successively taken up by Fitzpatrick, Farnell, Piddington and Stephen Brown. Just as the weakness of the Government came to a crisis he again took the lead, and carried a vote of censure by thirty-one to twenty-eight. The Governor, after consenting to dissolve Parliament, on the assumption that supplies would be granted for the interval to be occupied by a general election, refused to grant a dissolution when he found that the Assembly withheld supplies. The Ministry thereupon resigned, and Parkes was summoned a second time to form an Administration, which he did on 22nd March 1877. In 1877 Parkes, having declined a previous offer of distinction from the Crown, was offered the rank of Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George, which he accepted. In the excitement of the general election of December 1877, consequent on the continued interchange of the two leaders to opposite sides of the House, Parkes was defeated for East Sydney (at the same time that the rival leader, Sir John Robertson, was defeated for West Sydney,) but was immediately afterwards elected for Canterbury, which place he still represents. On 17th August he resigned, and remained in opposition until December 1878, when he was again sent for by the Governor. He formed a coalition with Sir John Robertson, and now occupies the post of Colonial Secretary and Premier. Parkes is a man of great ability as a writer and speaker on public subjects, and has published a volume of his collected speeches, with an introduction by David Blair.

PARRAMATTA is, next to Sydney, the oldest town in N.S.W. It is situated on the Parramatta River which in reality is an elongation of Port

Jackson. It is distant from Sydney fourteen miles W., with which communication is by steamers and the Great Southern Railway. It was originally known under the name of Roschill which was afterwards changed to its old aboriginal name. It was established as early as November 1788, the year in which Phillip landed; the natural beauty of the country and the fertility of the soil at once attracting his attention and causing him to make it his residence. Much of the early history of the colony is bound up with Parramatta and the first grain was grown and harvested here. The town has many features of interest, it is well laid out and is not altogether unlike an English town of the same size. The public buildings are numerous and comprise the Government House, which however is not occupied by any of the authorities. There are two tweed manufactories, and two others outside the town, a brewery, a meat-preserving factory, a drain and tile works, and five public schools. A beautiful park is reserved for the recreation of the inhabitants. The walks are planted with oaks which are the largest in Australia. The population is about 6103, the district containing 11,560. The district is mainly devoted to fruit-growing, and the orangeries and orchards of Parramatta have an almost world-wide reputation. The largest orange trees in the world are believed to be here, the earliest having been planted soon after the colony was founded. Upwards of 10,000 oranges have been gathered in a season from one tree. The town has been under municipal government since 27th November 1861. It is lighted with gas, contains thirty-six miles of street, and the rateable property is valued at £235,000.

HISTORY.—Parramatta has a history. It was originally known under the name of Rosehill, which was afterwards changed to the aboriginal name. It was established as early as November 1788, the year in which Phillip landed, the natural beauty of the country and the fertility of the soil at once attracting his attention and causing him to make it his residence. Much of the early history of the colony is bound up with Parramatta. The first grain was grown and harvested here, and the earliest grants of land to convicts who had served their time were made. It was for a long time the central penal station of the colony, and also the country residence of the Governors. In January 1793 John Macarthur was appointed to the command of the settlement. St. John's Church of England was completed in September 1796. In September 1800 instructions were issued by Governor King to the Rev. Samuel Marsden, delegating to him the general superintendence of the Police Convict Settlement and of Government Affairs at Parramatta. St. John's Church was opened for worship in April 1803. The first Roman Catholic service was held by Rev. James Dixon on 24th May 1803. The foundation-stone of the Church of England parsonage was laid by the daughter of Rev. Samuel Marsden on 5th May 1816. The Observatory was built by Mr. Dunlop, the

Astronomer, in 1822. The School of Industry was opened in July 1829. The annual conference with the aborigines was held in the Market Place by Governor Darling in January 1830. The foundation of the King's School by the Home Government (Rev. Robert Forrest first Head Master) took place in May 1831. Lady Bourke, wife of Sir Richard Bourke, died at Parramatta and was buried in the Church of England Cemetery, in May 1832. The King's School (present building) was opened in November 1856.

PATERSON, CAPTAIN, succeeded Major Grose as Acting-Governor of N.S.W. from 13th December 1794 to 1st September 1795.

PATERSON RIVER (or YIMMANG); a river of N.S.W., which flows into the river Hunter, at the town of Hinton. It was named in honour of Colonel William Paterson.

PATTESON, JOHN COLERIDGE (1826-1871) first Bishop of Melanesia, was educated at Eton, and graduated at Baliol College, Oxford. He came out to N.Z. in 1855 to assist Bishop Selwyn in his missionary work amongst the Solomon and other islands; and after spending five years in this work, in 1860 was consecrated in N.Z. by the Bishops of Nelson and Wellington, as Bishop of Melanesia. He visited Sydney and Melbourne in 1864, and established the head quarters of the mission in Norfolk, where native youths of the islands were educated and afterwards returned to impart to their fellow-countrymen the blessings of Christianity and civilisation. It is supposed that he owed his death to the ill-feeling engendered by the coolie traffic, to which he was strongly opposed. He was murdered at Nukapu in the Santa Cruz group, 20th September 1871.

PEARSON, CHARLES HENRY, M.A., (1830—) was lecturer on Modern History at Trinity College, Cambridge, from 1869 to 1871. He then came to S.A., where he remained till 1874, when he was appointed Lecturer on History to the Melbourne University. After a few months he accepted the head-mastership of the Presbyterian Ladies College, which he resigned in 1877. Entering public life he stood for the electorate of Boroondara at the general election in that year, but was unsuccessful. He was then appointed by the Berry Government a commissioner to examine into and report on the working of the State system of education in V., for which duty he was paid the sum of £1000. He was elected Member for Castlemaine on the retirement of James Farrell, who received in exchange for his seat the appointment of Parliamentary Librarian. He was chosen by the Chief Secretary as his colleague in the embassy to the Imperial Government in December 1878. Pearson is the author of—*A History of England during the Early and Middle Ages*, and *Historical Maps of England during the First Thirteen Christian Centuries*. He edited the *National Review* in 1862-3. He is also author of two works written in Australia—*History of*

England in the Fourteenth Century, and an *English Grammar* written in conjunction with Professor Strong.

PEDDER, SIR JOHN LEWIS (1784—1860) first Chief Justice of Tasmania, arrived in the colony in 1824, and retained office till 1855, when he retired on his pension and returned to England.

PELSART, FRANCIS, Dutch navigator. In 1628 eleven vessels equipped for an expedition by the Dutch East India Company, sailed from Texel 28th October. After they had passed the Cape of Good Hope one of them, the *Batavia*, commanded by Pelsart, became separated from the others in a storm. While beating about for some time the crew discovered Australia, but in a most dismal manner. The vessel carried an enormous crew, besides passengers, making a living freight of human beings utterly unprovided for in case of accident. The *Batavia* drifted about for many days, the pilots fancying they were steering for Bantam, but without the slightest idea where they were. On 4th June 1629, fair and calm, while the ship was going easily along, the master of the vessel called attention to the white appearance of the water beyond them. The steersman said it was the moonlight reflection from the waters; but he was wrong. It was foam from breakers, and when the ship got fairly into it she struck heavily. The spot was the Abrolhos, or Rocks of Houtman, lying off the west coast of the continent. The people on board endeavoured to reach some islands they saw not far off, and many succeeded. But the weather was so stormy that it was nearly a week before they could all leave the wreck, and great numbers were drowned before they could reach the shore. Those who escaped from the sea seemed to be but little less miserable than they were before, for the islands were quite bare and afforded them neither shelter nor fresh water. Water was found at last on one of the islands; but it was a long time before it was discovered, because the holes in which it was were filled and emptied at the rise and fall of the tide, and were naturally concluded to be salt water. When things were a little in order, Pelsart put a deck to one of the ship's boats, and coasted along towards Batavia. This he reached in safety. Those who were left behind had a sad time of it. Half of them mutinied, and tried to murder the other half for the sake of getting control of the cargo. They nearly succeeded, but the few survivors, fighting resolutely for their lives, succeeded in escaping to a neighbouring island. Here they were exposed to daily attacks from the mutineers, until he returned. The majority voted for the execution of the mutineers, which was there and then carried into effect. But two of them were spared and were set ashore or marooned on the mainland. In proceeding to Batavia Pelsart was enabled to see a good deal of the western coast. The mainland was about sixteen miles N. by W. from the place where they suffered shipwreck. He landed

above Shark's Bay on 14th June, and found that there was in front of the coast a table of sand one mile in breadth and none but brackish water to be found on it. Beyond this the country was flat, without vegetation or trees, with nothing in view but ant-hills, and these so large that from a distance they were taken to be the habitations of the natives. Some of the savages were seen carrying clubs, and apparently anxious to surprise and massacre the boat's crew, as they crept towards the seamen who were seeking for water, on their hands and feet. One of the seamen stood up on an eminence, and the savages perceiving him took to flight. They are described as wild, black, and altogether naked. On the 16th savages were again seen in another part of the coast, but they took to flight upon the Dutch sailors approaching them. The voyagers reached Batavia in safety. When Tasman was sent out in 1642 it was part of his instructions to inquire after the two Dutchmen whom Pelsart had marooned; but no account of them was ever obtained.

PERRY, CHARLES, D.D. (1807—) was consecrated first Bishop of Melbourne in Westminster Abbey in 1847, and the following year arrived in Melbourne accompanied by Dr. Macartney, the Rev. Messrs. Hales, Newenham, and Dr. Learmonth. On 28th January 1848 he preached his first sermon in Australia in St. James' Church Melbourne. On landing he found only a few very modest Anglican churches with a mere handful of ministers; and he left behind him in 1874 many stately edifices with numerous clergymen of his denomination scattered broadcast over the colony. In 1872 the twenty-fifth anniversary of his arrival was celebrated by special services in St. James' Church, Melbourne. In 1874 he left Melbourne for London, and resigned his charge; and early in the following year was succeeded by Dr. Moorhouse.

PERTH, capital of W.A., was constituted a city in September 1856. It is pleasantly and picturesquely situated on the Swan River, about twelve miles above Fremantle, with which there is communication by the river and land, a well macadamized road connecting the two towns. Approached from Fremantle by road or water, the city presents a striking appearance—a splendid lake-like reach, known as Melville water, washing the base of the slope on which it is built. The city is, on the whole, well laid out; the streets are regular, and of sufficient width. The principal building is the City Hall, an imposing-looking structure, standing on a slight eminence in the centre of the town. Of cathedrals there are two, one Protestant and one Catholic. Most of the houses are built of stone and brick; very good samples of bricks are made both in Perth and Fremantle. The population at the last census was 5000 persons, inclusive of the military. The city is under the control of a council of wardens and a chairman. The site of Perth

possesses much natural beauty, and advantage has been taken of the physical formation of the ground in the alignment of the streets and in their width to preserve an attractive character. The main street from west to east comprises a distance of nearly two miles, and is planted with Cape lilac and mulberry trees, which not only afford a grateful shade, but add to the beauty of the city. In the district round Perth there are 1512 acres under cultivation.

PHILLIP, CAPT. ARTHUR, first Governor of N.S.W., was born in London in 1738. His father, Jacob Phillip, was a native of Frankfort in Germany, who having settled in England, maintained his family by teaching languages. Phillip entered the navy at the age of sixteen, and was present at the taking of Havannah in 1761, when he gained prize money and was made Lieutenant on board the *Stirling Castle* by Admiral Sir George Pococke. At the close of the Seven Years War in 1763 he returned to England, and having married, settled at Lyndhurst, in the New Forest. A rupture taking place shortly after between Portugal and Spain Phillip offered his services to the Portuguese, and was employed in their navy till 1778, when Great Britain being again embroiled with France, he returned to England. In 1779 he was made master and commander, and appointed to the *Basilisk* fireship. Two years after he was promoted to the rank of post-captain, and appointed first to the *Ariadne* frigate and subsequently to the *Europe*, sixty-four guns. In January 1783 he sailed with a reinforcement to the East Indies, but returned to England shortly after. He was not again in active service till he was appointed first Governor of New South Wales in 1787. When the first fleet anchored in Botany Bay on 20th January 1788, Phillip took three boats and sailed out to search for some more convenient harbour. As he passed along the coast he turned to examine the opening which Cook called Port Jackson, and soon found himself in a winding channel with great cliffs frowning overhead. All at once a magnificent prospect opened on his eyes. A harbour, perhaps the most beautiful and perfect in the world, stretched before him far to the west till it was lost on the distant horizon. To Phillip, whose mind had been filled with anxiety and despondency as to the future prospects of his charge, it opened out like the vision of a world of new hope and promise. Three days were spent in examining portions of this spacious harbour and in exploring a few of its innumerable bays. Phillip selected as the place most suitable for the settlement a small inlet, which in honour of the Secretary of State, Lord Sydney, he called Sydney Cove. About daylight two strange ships were seen in the offing showing French colours. Scarcely were the anchors down when boats put off, and mutual explanations followed on both sides. Phillip learned with surprise that the vessels before him were the exploring vessels, *Boussole* and *Astrolabe*, on a voyage of discovery under the command of

La Perouse. After a mutual exchange of civilities the two commanders proceeded to the work each had in hand—the Frenchman to provide his fleet with wood and water, the Englishman to establish the settlement of the new colony. On 26th January the fleet, having been brought round, anchored in deep water close along the shore of Sydney Cove. A formal disembarkation then took place. A detachment of marines and bluejackets leaped from their boats into the primeval forest. After hoisting the British colours at a spot near where the Colonnade in Bridge-street, Sydney, now stands, the Royal Proclamation and Commission constituting “The Colony of New South Wales” were read, a salute of small arms was fired, and the career of the British Dominion in A. commenced. The whole party landed amounted to 1030 souls, who encamped under tents and under and within hollow trees in a country which they described as resembling the more woody parts of a deer-park in England. Such were the circumstances of the foundation and such were the founders of the magnificent colonial empire in the Southern Ocean! The ground had been cleared and the work of erecting storehouses and other buildings begun. All this was not easy. The work of felling gigantic gum trees was in itself a fearful task, and to remove them afterwards and grub the stumps required the labour of all their men for weeks together. When things began to look a little orderly and the sickness which raged among them had begun to abate, the Governor went with the long-boat and cutter on an excursion to Broken Bay. Continued rains prevented the party from making a survey of their discoveries upon this expedition, more especially as the land was much higher here than Port Jackson, more rocky, and equally covered with timber. Above them soared the Blue Mountains in huge, precipitous walls of red sand-stone, crowned on the summit with trees, and quite inaccessible. Upon the south side of the bay there was a headland, which seemed to obstruct the view, but on rounding it the finest harbour of all was discovered, and it received the name of Pittwater. The solemn ceremony of establishing a regular Government in the newly-founded colony was performed on 7th February 1788. On that day, a sufficient space having been cleared for the tents and stores, the people were all landed on the shores of Sydney Cove, and assembled on the western side of the Cove, then named Point Maskelyne, but afterwards known as Dawes Battery; the military were drawn up under arms; the prisoners stationed apart; and near the person of the Governor, the gentlemen who were to fill the principal offices. The Royal Commission was then read by the Judge-Advocate; afterwards the Act of Parliament authorising the establishment of the courts of judicature; and lastly the patents under the Great Seal empowering the proper officers to convene and hold those courts. Three rounds of musketry concluded this part of the ceremony. Governor

Phillip then advanced and addressed the soldiers, thanking them for their steady good conduct. Turning to the prisoners he explained to them the nature of their position. He reminded them that they were now so placed that by industry and good behaviour they might soon regain the advantages which for a time they had forfeited, and promised that every encouragement should be held out to induce them to make the effort to regain that place in the estimation of society of which they had deprived themselves by their offences. He concluded by declaring his earnest desire to promote the welfare and happiness of all who were placed under his control; and his determination, with the help of the Almighty, to render the colonisation of N.S.W. advantageous and honourable to the country. The latter part of 1788 and the first four months of 1789 was one of the darkest periods ever experienced in the history of the settlement. The stock of provisions brought out from England was well-nigh exhausted; the few head of cattle also brought out had disappeared no one knew where, and nothing eatable had yet been produced in the colony with the exception of a few vegetables. Governor Phillip at this time of depression and anxiety set a noble example of disinterestedness and self-sacrifice. He lived on the same rations as was allowed from the public store to the meanest person in the settlement. The weekly quantity issued to every person indiscriminately at this time was but two and a-half pounds of flour and two pounds of pork. The latter, says Collins, when boiled, from the length of time it had been in store shrunk almost to nothing, and when divided barely afforded three or four morsels. “The Governor,” continues Collins, “from a motive that did him immortal honour in this season of general distress gave up three hundredweight of flour which was his own private property, declaring that he wished not to see any more at his table than the ration which was received from the public store, without any distinction of persons; and to this resolution he rigidly adhered, wishing that if a prisoner complained he might see that want was not unfelt even in Government House.” Phillip during the darkest hour had never allowed a shadow of doubt to cross his mind as to the ultimate success of the settlement and the eventual greatness of the colony. From the first he devoted most of his spare time to making excursions in search of better land for cultivation than was to be found on the shores of Port Jackson. On 6th July 1789 he discovered a large river, which he named the Hawkesbury, in honour of Lord Hawkesbury. He sailed up this fine stream for more than a hundred miles until he came to the shallows near a hill, which he named Richmond Hill. In 1790 Phillip had a very narrow escape from being murdered by the natives. He had educated and treated kindly two native youths at Government House; but they escaped to their old companions. Phillip hearing that they were amongst a tribe of natives camped

on the Manly Beach proceeded thither. In the course of the negotiations one of the blacks threw a spear at Phillip, which pierced him in the side. The wound was at first thought to be mortal, but the spear being carefully extracted and the wound dressed, Phillip recovered in six weeks. Phillip, whose health had suffered from privation, exposure and anxiety, announced his intention of proceeding to England. He sailed on 11th December 1792, six years having elapsed since the date of his commission and nearly five since his landing in the colony. Phillip was undoubtedly one of the most remarkable men of his day, and was admirably adapted both by nature and education for the important duties with which he was entrusted. Kind and confiding under ordinary circumstances almost to a fault, where firmness and decision were required, where a warning was needed, where duty had been neglected, deceit practised, or the public interest jeopardised, he regarded leniency as a most culpable weakness. His punishments were not frequent, but prompt and terrible. With a man of less self-sacrifice, less decision of character, or less humanity, the shores of Sydney Cove would probably have witnessed in the first year of the existence of the colony more terrible scenes of vice and crime than any which history has recorded. Under his rule public order was never for a moment endangered; and considering all the circumstances by which the people under his charge were surrounded, the offences were few and insignificant. He left the colony loaded with the blessings of those over whom he had ruled, and followed by earnest wishes for his safe return to England and speedy restoration to health. The first Australian Governor in point of time, he must also be regarded as the first in point of character and ability. The limited and remote sphere in which he exercised his talents, his death in a short time after his return to England, and the absorbing interest which attached at that period to the great events transpiring on the European Continent, prevented that recognition of his services and that appreciation of his character which he certainly merited from the British Government and people, and which in more peaceable times and under other circumstances he most assuredly would have received. He brought to England two native youths, Bennilong and Yemmerawannie. They had acquired, from residing with the Governor, a knowledge of the usages of civilised life, and both were persons of more than ordinary sharpness and address. The latter died in England, but the former returned to the colony.

PHILLIP ISLAND, an island in V., situated at the entrance of Western Port; its principal capes are Cape Wollamai and Point Grant. It was named Snapper Island by Lieutenant Grant, from its great resemblance to a snapper's head, or horseman's helmet; but was subsequently named Phillip Island after Governor Phillip. The greatest length

E. and W. of the island, from Point Grant to Cape Wollamai, is fourteen miles, and its greatest breadth N. and S. six miles. Its S. portion is swampy, and in the S.W. is a small marshy lake, called Swan Lake. These swamps abound in fish and waterfowl, and wallaby and other game in the scrub to the N., which is well grassed. The Acclimatisation Society has made this island a regular depôt, and has liberated a number of hares, Cape, English, and Indian pheasants; Ceylon, Indian, and Chinese partridges: Chinese, Californian, and Tasmanian quail; starlings, Algerine sand grouse, and wild ducks.

PIETERSEN, PETER, Dutch navigator, sailed along the coast of Arnheim or Van Diemen's Land, as the northern part of the continent was then called by the Dutch, in 1636.

PIGEON HOUSE, a mountain and singular land mark in the county of St. Vincent, N.S.W., so named by Cook; it resembles a cupola superimposed upon a large dome.

PINCHGUT ISLAND, (native name MATTEWAE;) an island of N.S.W. situated in the harbour of Port Jackson, near Sydney; it was named Rock Island by Governor Phillip, but the prisoners gave it the name it bears in memory of the physical privations they endured there.

PLATTER ISLAND, near Point Upright, is a remarkable cliff to the northward of Bateman's Bay, in N.S.W., 158 miles from Sydney.

PLATYPUS (or WATER MOLE.)—This strange animal is described in the article "Fauna." Sydney Smith humorously describes it as a "quadruped as big as a large cat, with the eyes, colour and skin of a mole, and the bill and web feet of a duck." It is known to naturalists as the *Ornithorhynchus Paradoxus*. The first complete description of it printed in English was written by Dr. George Bennett of Sydney, the eminent naturalist, and contributed to an annual publication in 1828. Dr. Bennett writes:—"It was on a beautiful evening in the month of October, the commencement of summer in southern latitudes, that, arrived in a district lying about two hundred miles to the south-west of Sydney, I approached the banks of the Yass River, in the interior of Australia. The scenery here is of the most picturesque description; the open forest country and wooded hills; the neat cottages and gardens, with the grain of a vivid green just bursting into ear,—the tranquillity around being only occasionally disturbed by the lowing of cattle, bleating of sheep, or the gay and blithesome notes of the feathered tribe. The silver stream of the Yass continued its silent course, its banks adorned by the beautiful pendulous acacias, which at that season were profusely covered by their rich golden and fragrant blossoms; while the lofty and majestic gum-trees, the graceful manna, or the dark swamp-oak, added to the variety and beauty of the landscape. The sun was near its setting, when up a more quiet part of the river, I sought the burrows

of those shy animals the water moles, known also to naturalists as the platypus or duck-billed animal. Among the colonists it is known by the name of water mole from some resemblance it bears to the common European mole. By the aboriginal tribes at Bathurst, Goulbourn Plains, Yass, Murrumbidgee and Tumut countries, it is designated by the two names, Mallangong and Tambreet, the latter being more in use with them than the former. The illustration may assist the reader in forming a correct notion of the peculiar shape and character of the animal. The body is depressed like the otter, mole, and beaver. It is covered by long and thick dark brown hair, underneath which is a short and very soft fur, resembling the two distinct kinds found on the seal and otter; on the abdomen, breast, and throat, the fur and hair is of much finer quality, and more silky in its nature. In young specimens the under surface of the tail is covered by hair of a beautiful silvery white; this is lost however in the adult; the under surface of the tail in such having merely a few coarse hairs scattered over it. This circumstance induced many to suppose that the animal uses its tail as a trowel, in a manner similar to the beaver; but from an examination of their burrows, I have no doubt that the hair is rubbed off by the attrition of the tail on the surface of the ground. The tail is flat, broad, and inclining on each side abruptly off at the termination, beyond which the long hairs project. The hair on the upper part of the tail is of a dark colour, long and coarse, and destitute of the peculiar glossy appearance of the other parts of the body. There was no variation in the colour of the fur in all the specimens I have seen; the under short fur is of a greyish hue. The whole of the under surface of the body is of a ferruginous colour, varying in intensity according to age. The legs are short, feet five toes webbed, and in the fore feet the web extends a short distance beyond the claws, is loose, and falls back when the animal burrows. The head is flat; and from the mouth two lips, or mandibles, project, resembling the beak of a Shoveller-duck; the lower mandible is shorter and narrower than the upper, and its internal edges are channelled, with numerous *strice*, resembling in some degree those seen in the bill of the duck. The colour of the superior mandible above, when seen in an animal recently taken out of the water, is of a dull, dirty, greyish black, covered with innumerable minute dots, and the cartilaginous continuation around the mandible is uniformly smooth and soft. The eyes are very small, but brilliant, and of a light brown colour; they are situated rather high up the head. The ears are not visible, but are perfectly formed within. The size of the animals varies; but the males are usually found to be, in a small degree, larger than the females. The average length is from eighteen to twenty inches. When the fur is wet the animal has a soiled and far from attractive appearance, resembling more a lump of dirty weeds which are often seen floating about the rivers, than any production

of the animal kingdom; it would therefore often escape observation, but for its paddling motion in the water; such was its appearance when lying dead on the surface, or when drifted by the stream against the stump of a tree, or among the reeds and bulrushes growing profusely near and upon the banks of the river. The animals are seen in the Australian rivers at all seasons of the year, but are most abundant during the spring and summer months. The best time for seeing them is very early in the morning or late in the evening. During floods and freshes they are frequently perceived travelling up and down the rivers; when going down they appear to allow themselves to be carried by the force of the stream without making any exertion, but when swimming against the stream, all their muscular power is exerted to the utmost to stem the force of the current." The Platypus abounds in the rivers, creeks, and lagoons of the S. and E. of the continent as well as T. It makes burrows in the banks sometimes forty or fifty feet long, in the extremity of which it forms a nest. It is by excellence a *lusus nature*,—the one unclassable anomaly of the animal kingdom.

PLUNKET, JOHN HUBERT, (1802—1869) was a native of Ireland, and educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He was called to the English Bar, and in 1832 was appointed Solicitor-General of N.S.W. by the Home Government. He landed in the colony in June of that year. In 1837 he became Attorney-General, with a seat in the Executive and old Legislative Councils, which office he held for nearly twenty years, whilst the Government was under the control of the Home authorities. He visited Europe in 1842. Whilst Attorney-General he distinguished himself by prosecuting ten Europeans for the massacre of a number of aboriginals—men, women and children. He procured their conviction, and seven of the ringleaders were executed. Under the new Constitution in 1856 he represented Argyle in the Legislative Assembly. In 1857 he was appointed President of the Upper House, on the resignation of Sir Alfred Stephen. In 1858 he was removed from the Chairmanship of the Board of Education, an office he had held for several years, by the Executive Council. This act gave rise to an angry feud, in which sectarian feeling largely mingled, Plunket being a Roman Catholic. He made his dismissal the cause of a personal quarrel between himself and Cowper the Premier. He resigned the office of President of the Legislative Council, together with his seat in that House. A public meeting was held in Sydney, attended by influential men of all denominations, at which resolutions were unanimously carried expressing sympathy with Plunket in his "abrupt and arbitrary dismissal" from the Chairmanship of the Board, and a deep and grateful sense of his public services in various official capacities during a period of more than twenty years. Similar meetings were held in many of the country districts. A vote of censure on the Ministry for their treatment of

Plunket in the matter was moved in the Assembly by James Macarthur. It was negatived, but a milder resolution of the same general tenor was carried. The Government offered to restore Plunket if he would consent to withdraw certain portions of a correspondence that had taken place between him and them, and which they considered offensive; but this he refused to do. In 1866-68 he represented the Martin-Forster Government in the Legislative Council. He died in Melbourne on 9th May 1869, and was buried in Sydney. Plunket was a man of considerable ability and of undoubted integrity. His popularity with his fellow-religionists was almost unbounded. He was of a rather austere nature, and inclined to severity in his administration of the law. But his private charity was very large, and was motivated by the highest principles.

POHLMAN, ROBERT W. (1811-1877) was educated for the legal profession and was called to the English Bar. He arrived in Melbourne (the Port Phillip settlement of those days,) in 1840, and was admitted a member of the Colonial Bar in 1841. He held a seat in the first nominee Legislative Council of V. under the Government of Sir Charles Hotham; was the first County Court Judge that ever sat on the bench of V.; and held office as Master in Equity, Commissioner of Insolvency, and Chairman of the Board of Education. On the introduction of Parliamentary Government he retired from political life, and devoted himself to the exercise of his judicial duties at the County Court.

POLDING, JOHN BEDE, D.D. (1794-1877) first Roman Catholic Archbishop of Sydney, was a native of Liverpool, England. At the age of eleven he entered St. Gregory's College in Ireland, and after eight years training for the priesthood was ordained in March 1819. When in 1834 it was resolved to send out a Bishop, as chief pastor of the Roman Catholics of Australia—who had before been under the superintendence of the Bishop of Mauritius—Dr. Polding was selected for the office. He was consecrated Bishop of Hiero-Cæsarea, with instructions to act as Vicar Apostolic of New Holland and V.D.L. The Bull of Pope Gregory XVI., appointing him to this position, was dated 2nd May. He arrived in Sydney in September 1835. In 1841 he visited England, and thence proceeded to Rome. In April 1842 he was appointed Archbishop of the newly-erected See of Sydney. During his stay in Rome he was created by the Pope a Count of the Holy Roman Empire, and a Bishop Assistant to the Papal Throne. Much excitement arose on his return to the colony with the title of Archbishop. The Bishop of the Church of England publicly protested against the assumption of such a title by any one within the dominions of Her Majesty, without the authority of the Crown. But the protest was treated as a dead letter. The community in Australia accepted without reserve the principle that every religious denomination has perfect freedom

to carry out its own organisation, with whatever titles it may see fit to use. Polding was remarkable throughout the whole of his career in Australia for a calm and conciliatory demeanour towards those who differed from him in theological views. In 1848 he again visited Rome, and brought with him on his return a number of priests and sisters of charity. In 1854 he made a third visit to Rome accompanied by Dr. Gregory; and as before brought out priests and sisters of charity. He spent much of his time in traversing the interior of the colony, and visiting the towns of V., T., and Q. As the fruits of his labours nine dioceses have been established within the arch-diocese; those of Melbourne, Hobart Town, Adelaide, Perth, Maitland, Goulburn, Bathurst, Brisbane, and Armidale. He was always ready to acknowledge and honour the services of those who laboured with zeal and fidelity in the work of the Church. His concern for the training of the young was unremitting. His large flock held him in deserved reverence and respect. In November 1865 he left Sydney for Europe for the fourth time. His zeal in encountering when over three-score and ten years of age the perils and hardships of a long voyage elicited warm expressions of admiration. This, it was supposed, would be the last time he would venture on so arduous a journey. But five years afterwards, when the Pope summoned the bishops of the Church from all parts of the world to meet in the Œcumenical Council of the Vatican, Polding would not be deterred, by any consideration of the ease to which his advanced years might well be supposed to entitle him, from setting out to join the Assembly. This was the fifth time he left Australia to visit Rome on the business of the Church. But he was not able to bear the fatigues of the journey, and after landing at Aden in the Red Sea, in compliance with the advice of those who watched with anxiety the effects of the passage and the tropical heat on his frame, he returned to Sydney. After that time he repeatedly travelled long distances in the colony. He died at Darlinghurst, Sydney, on 16th March 1877. His remains were honoured with a public funeral.

POLO, MARCO, the famous Venetian traveller of the thirteenth century. He brought back to Europe on his return from China, glowing accounts of the great wealth of the islands of the unknown sea which formed the boundary of China on the E. and S. It was reported to contain, he stated, no fewer than 7440 islands, mostly inhabited, and these abounded in gold, fragrant spices, precious stones, and forests of perfumed trees. He was careful to explain that this sea was not a mere gulf or arm of the ocean, but a boundless expanse of waters. At a distance of 700 miles in a direction between S. and S.W. from Lesser Java, he places two uninhabited islands; and fifty miles S.E. from these he states that there existed a country called Loehac, which formed part of a great mainland of a wild and mountainous character, little frequented by strangers, where

gold was abundant to a degree scarcely credible, and whose inhabitants were idolaters, having a language peculiar to themselves. They paid no tribute to any power—the situation of their country protecting them from attack. Were it assailable, he says, the Grand Khan would not have delayed to bring it under his dominion. The position assigned by Marco Polo to the two uninhabited islands agrees with that of Barrow's Islands in Dampier's Archipelago; and Marsden the translator of Marco Polo's "Travels," and, after him Major, have shown that Lochac was also an island in the Eastern Archipelago.

PORT ARTHUR, in T., is situated on Tasman's Peninsula, 185 miles from Launceston, and sixty-four miles S.E. of Hobart Town. It was formerly the principal penal establishment of the colony, and inhabited solely by convicts and the officers in charge. It has ceased to be a prison since May 1877, and the establishment is now broken up.

PORT CHALMERS, in N.Z., lies at the entrance of the Harbour of Otago, distant from Dunedin about nine miles N.E., of which city it is the port. The Otago Graving Dock, opened in May 1872, is one of the largest in the southern hemisphere. The floor is 328 feet long, and width forty-one feet; the length and width at the copings are respectively 342 feet and sixty-eight feet. There are extensive workshops and machinery in connection with this dock. There is also a floating dock 170 feet long by forty-two feet broad. The Port Chalmers stone is well known, and is extensively used for building in Dunedin and other cities. The population is about 1800. In the municipality are 320 dwellings, and rateable property of the yearly value of £13,600. The town is lighted with gas. The place is named in honour of the Rev. Dr. Chalmers, the Scottish Divine.

PORT CURTIS is situated just on the verge of the tropic of Capricorn, on the eastern coast of the continent, and was so named by Flinders, in honour of Admiral Sir Roger Curtis, who then commanded at the Cape of Good Hope. He discovered it in 1802. This port is nearly as large as Port Jackson, and is protected from the sea by Facing and Curtis Islands, the former being the most southerly and the lesser island. There is a channel separating these islands about a mile wide.

PORT ESSINGTON lies on the northern coast of the continent. In 1838 it was resolved by the Home Government to found a settlement at this point, and Captain Gordon Bremer was sent out with H.M. ships *Alligator* and *Britomart* for that purpose. A station was selected, and a town was commenced and named after Queen Victoria. The first impressions of the settlers regarding the place were very favourable. They wrote of it in this glowing strain:—"The port has a very fine harbour. Victoria is the capital—a very admirable little town. The position is on a considerable piece of rising ground midway on the western side

of the inner harbour. The soil around is of the finest description, and well supplied with fresh water. On Point Record and Spear Point are wells where ships can water most expeditiously, while around the town are large ponds and many running streams, all excellent. The climate appears to be as fine as any tropical one, but there may be reason to doubt whether it is not equally subject to drought as the rest of Australia. This town being in the vicinity of New Guinea and several other islands where slavery prevails, promises the inhabitants a supply of free labour from the runaway slaves, and it will afford an asylum to many islanders driven from their homes, and who will, as at Singapore, find protection under the British flag." Notwithstanding these advantages the settlement was abandoned, as being too unhealthy, in 1850. Leichhardt's overland expedition reached Port Essington on 17th December 1845.

PORT FAIRY, in V., was discovered and named by Wishart in 1827, after his vessel, the *Fairy*. He had been driven into the port by stress of weather.

PORT JACKSON, the harbour in N.S.W. on which stands Sydney, the capital of the colony. The entrance to it was described by a seaman from the mast-head of Cook's ship, the *Endeavour*, on 6th May 1770. Cook named it after Sir George Jackson, who afterwards took the name of Duckett. In the parish church of Bishop's Stortford, in Hertfordshire, England, there is a monument to this gentleman, with the following inscription:—"To the memory of Sir George Jackson, Bart., afterwards Sir George Duckett, Bart., Judge Advocate of the Fleet, who died 15th December 1822, aged ninety-seven years. He was for many years a Secretary of the Admiralty, and a member of Parliament for Weymouth and Melcombe Regis, and Colchester. Captain Cook, of whom he was a zealous friend and an early patron, named after him Point Jackson in New Zealand, and Port Jackson in New South Wales." Phillip, on his arrival at Botany Bay in January 1788, finding its shores so wild and solitary, the heat so great, the land beyond the circle of half a mile from the sea so encumbered with sands, swamps and heavy forests, and the anchorage so unsafe when the weather was rough, and the easterly winds prevailing, resolved to go northward with an expedition or pioneering corps in the ship's boats, for the purpose of examining another harbour discovered, and called Broken Bay by Cook; and on his passage upward along the coast curiosity led him to enter this harbour, laid down as an "inlet" on the chart of Cook's expeditions. His astonishment cannot be described on his finding a harbour equal to any in the world; hither he at once proceeded and laid the foundation of the City of Sydney. The approach to it through Bass Straits is through striking scenery. Cunningham thus describes it:—"The shore is bold and picturesque, and the country behind, gradually rising higher and higher into swelling

hills of moderate elevation, to the utmost distance the eye can reach, is covered with wide-branching, evergreen forest trees and close brushwood, exhibiting a prospect of never-failing foliage, although sadly monotonous and dull in tone compared with the luxuriant summer foliage of Europe. Grey rocks at intervals project among these endless forests, while here and there some gigantic tree, scorched dead by the summer fires, uplifts its blasted branches above the green saplings around." Port Jackson, if equalled, is certainly not surpassed by any other natural harbour in the world, not even by the magnificent haven of Rio Janeiro. The bold coast fronting the Pacific is suddenly broken, and the giant cliffs form a portal to an estuary about a mile in width, with an enormous perimeter, capacious enough to shelter the navies of the world. A vessel making the port sails in a few moments out of the long swell of the ocean into calm deep water, protected on every side by high lands. On entering a splendid vista is presented to the voyager, the elevated shore being broken into innumerable bays and inlets, and the central expanse of water relieved by many a picturesque islet. The rocky shore on each side stretches from heights of above 200 feet down to the water's edge, disclosing at intervals in the distance the white sandy beach of a bay which Stanfield or Copley Fielding would have loved to paint. The well-wooded hills, clothed in the bright garb of spring, or in the russet of summer, and bathed in the glorious light of an Australian atmosphere, form a charming margin to the bright blue waters they enclose. As the city is approached, pretty villas and imposing mansions, surrounded with gardens and orchards, crown the heights or extend along the shore. Trollope—a man not given to enthusiastic praise—speaks of it as "so inexpressibly lovely that it makes a man ask himself whether it would not be worth his while to move his household gods to the eastern coast of Australia, in order that he might look on it as long as he can look at anything." Some of the estates and pleasure-grounds on its shores, he adds, are perfect. They leave nothing for the imagination to add. Mossman writes with equal enthusiasm:—"It is the sailor's delight to be snugly moored in Sydney Cove at the present day, as it was to the captains of the first fleet that entered Port Jackson. As the traveller or emigrant passes between the perpendicular and overhanging precipices that stand at its entrance like the portals of some giant edifice, he is struck with feelings of dread at the swell of the Pacific Ocean and the rocky desolation around. This is suddenly changed to pleasure, as the picturesque scenery of the inner harbour opens up its panoramic beauties, and he sails along a lake-like inlet where the agitation of the sea ceases. As the ship passes between a succession of bays and coves, indented by picturesque points of land and guarded by small islets, he is charmed with the fairy-like aspect of the scenery; and when the captain informs him that each of these bays is

deep enough to float a line-of-battle ship, with sufficient room to hold all the navies of Europe, he cannot but marvel at the maritime advantages of Sydney Harbour. Then, as the ship comes to anchor in the cove, the city appears the perfection of a great seaport. It has landing facilities at quays where the largest merchantmen moor alongside, and there is no current or impetuous tide to endanger the shipping and boats. No dirty, muddy stream around the ship, nor dingy-looking warehouses on shore to offend the eye and nostrils, as too frequently happens in seaport towns. All is bright, clean, and wholesome, spreading a cheerful aspect around the haven. The clear waters below, and the blue sky overhead, throw out in bold relief the white freestone buildings that compose the city. The public edifices are perched on the surrounding heights, and the church spires arise out of the densely-packed streets beyond. Sydney is admirably situated for a city in a hot climate, as it is built upon hills where the natural drainage is flushed by the rains that clear the streets of anything that otherwise would create malaria. Extensive suburbs spread in every direction as far as the eye can reach from any of these elevated points, and numerous villas dot the landscape to the extreme horizon. Within this area dwells a population surrounded by all the luxuries, adornments, and amenities of life; and the architectural designs of Greece and Rome have a habitation and a name beneath a sky that surpasses in purity and intensity of hue the far-famed skies of Italia." Five miles from the Heads, on Sydney Cove, stands Government House, looking down on a lovely scene. The still waters, alive with steamers passing and repassing, with ships of English and American flags, and a crowd of small craft, yachts, and pleasure-boats, betoken the approach to a centre of busy commerce, even before the church spires show themselves against the sky." Sidney writes:—"The entrance to the port is marked by the N. and S. Heads, about three quarters of a mile apart. On the southern head a stone lighthouse, bearing the often-repeated name of Macquarie, affords a revolving flame at night and a white landmark by day to the great ships from distant quarters of the globe, and to the crowd of large-sailed coasters which ply between innumerable coast villages and Sydney. Steering westerly, the great harbour, like a landlocked lake, protected by the curving projecting heads from the roll of the Pacific storms, opens out until lost in the distance, where it joins the Parramatta River. The banks on either hand, varying from two to five miles in breadth, are sometimes steep, and sometimes sloping, but repeatedly indented by coves and bays, which fringed with green shrubs down to the white sandy water-margin, when bathed in golden sunlight, present dainty retreats as brilliant as Danby's Enchanted Island. On one of the first and most romantic coves stands Vaucluse, the marine villa of William Wentworth." The harbour of Port

Jackson proper has an area of 9 square miles—Middle Harbour, one of its arms, 3 square miles; and the coast-line of the whole is 54 miles. From the Heads to the city the distance is 4 miles, beyond which the waters extend 8 miles into what is called the Parramatta River, giving 15 miles as the length of navigation. The average breadth of the navigable waters is three-quarters of a mile, though at some points they widen to 2 miles or more. The shallowest part is between Middle Head and George's Head, where the soundings show 23 feet at low-water. Beyond this the depth ranges between 5 and 18 fathoms. There are miles of wharf frontage in use, and about 25 miles of deep-water frontage in sheltered places that may be made available for a like purpose. The chief light-house is 76 feet high, erected on cliffs 268 feet above the sea-level. It is a white revolving light, visible 25 miles to seaward. On a rocky point, 60 feet high, situated immediately within the South Head, stands a second light-house, 30 feet high from the base; it has a bright fixed light visible at 15 miles. Within the entrance there is a light-ship with two fixed white lights; and at Fort Denison, nearer the city, there is a red harbour light, beyond which ships are forbidden to proceed until they are boarded by the Health Officer and other authorities. The Circular Quay, at the head of Sydney Cove, has a length of 3100 feet available for the largest vessels. Cowper Wharf in Woolloomooloo Bay is 1200 feet long.

HISTORY.—The history of Port Jackson is, in fact, the history of the foundation and settlement of the Colony of N.S.W.

PORT MACQUARIE, a town of N.S.W. situated at the mouth of the river Hastings. It was named by Oxley after Governor Macquarie. The population is about 700. The surrounding district is an agricultural one, the principal crops being maize, wheat, barley, oats, and potatoes. The vine is, next to maize, the principal object of culture; soil and climate suit it well, and the quantity of wine made is yearly increasing. Tobacco also is largely grown. The cultivation of sugar, after persevering efforts, has almost been abandoned, the seasons being too uncertain.

PORT PHILLIP, the original name of V., but now restricted to the spacious harbour on which Melbourne is situated. This magnificent sheet of water is about forty miles long, with a breadth varying from twenty to sixty miles, and embraces an extent of 875 square miles of open water. The northern part is named Hobson's Bay, and a considerable indentation into the land, formed by a promontory to the S.W. called Bellarine, is named Geelong Harbour. Port Phillip receives the waters of numerous rivers, the principal of which are the Werribee, Saltwater, and Yarra-Yarra. Three-fourths of Port Phillip is available for anchorage, the depth nowhere within the lighthouses exceeding fifteen fathoms; ships drawing twenty-six feet

of water can come up as far as Hobson's Bay at the mouth of the Yarra-Yarra, but vessels requiring more than thirteen and a-half feet of water cannot get over the bar there. Although the distance from the Bay to Melbourne along the course of the river is about seven miles, the distance by land is not two miles. The Heads, or opening connecting Port Phillip with Bass Straits is about two miles wide, but the passage for ships is only about a mile across. Through this narrow channel the ebb and flood tides sweep over the uneven bottom with great force, and raise a sea which, particularly when the wind happens to be fresh from the opposite direction, is extremely dangerous to small craft. The rise and fall of the tide is about three feet. The distance from the Heads, Point Lonsdale on the W. and Point Nepean on the E., to the anchorage in Hobson's Bay, is over thirty miles, and the channel is obstructed part of the way by sandbanks, which render the assistance of experienced pilots necessary. Hobson's Bay is the principal anchorage; it is capable of affording shelter to upwards of 800 sail, and has excellent holding ground, the bottom being stiff clay and mud, with a depth of from three to four fathoms of water. Sandridge, the port of Melbourne, lies at the head of this bay; it has two fine piers capable of berthing the largest vessels alongside; a railway runs from the Railway Pier directly into Melbourne. Williamstown lies on the W. of Hobson's Bay, and has also two piers, several ship building and repairing yards, and a large patent slip capable of accommodating vessels of the largest tonnage; there is a railway from the township to Melbourne. Geelong Harbour lies on the S.E. of Port Phillip, and consists of two parts: the inner and outer harbours, and a smaller harbour, called Corio Bay; there are four jetties in this bay, with sufficient water to float vessels of the largest tonnage visiting the port. There are several small harbours on the E. coast, the principal of which is Snapper Point. The traveller arriving in Hobson's Bay is particularly struck with its animated appearance, where a fleet of large merchantmen may be seen at anchor or loading and discharging at the railway pier and other jetties. It looks more like a harbour in England than one at the other end of the globe, not yet fifty years in existence. To the British emigrant there is nothing strange about it; as he lands upon the pier there is nothing foreign to his eye, all seems familiar, and he may wonder how he has journeyed fifteen thousand miles, during three or four long months, finding at the end a place similar to that which he left, and people speaking his own mother tongue. From the pier he arrives in ten minutes by railway at the city, and finds the streets just like those in England. Melbourne is quite a smaller London, with all the conveniences and luxuries of the English metropolis.

HISTORY: I. Discovery.—It is only very recently that the original materials for the early history of Port Phillip have been dragged to light. It was

to be found in print that Bass had discovered and spent a fortnight in Western Port during the early part of 1798; as also that Lieutenant Grant of the Government brig *Lady Nelson* had, in the months of March and April 1801, in company with Bareillier, an officer of the N.S.W. Corps, made a tolerably accurate survey of it. Neither Bass nor Grant however appear to have had the slightest suspicion that another and far finer sheet of water lay almost at their elbows. This discovery was reserved for Lieutenant Murray, Grant's successor in the command of the *Lady Nelson*, who discovered it on 5th January 1802, but was prevented by contrary winds from entering. On 15th February he passed through the Heads, remaining in the port until 11th March, but confining his examinations entirely to the lower portion near the entrance. Nothing was known of Murray's discovery—beyond the bare facts that he made the discovery in January 1802; that he named Arthur's Seat from a fancied likeness to the hill of the same name in the neighbourhood of Edinburgh; that he named Swan Bay and Point Nepean; and that some of the hill which surrounded the port reminded him very strongly of Greenwich-park,—until the publication of Labilliere's *Early History of the Colony of Victoria*, in 1878. This author, a native of the colony, whilst studying for the bar in London, was bent on searching out the full particulars of the discovery of Murray. An application to the Admiralty for leave to examine the log of the *Lady Nelson*, led to his being permitted to make what use he pleased, in the way of research, of many hundreds of volumes of despatches and letters, stored up in the National Record office, relating to the earliest days of Australian colonisation. The result of his search was the discovery of many original documents of extreme interest and value, that had never been printed. Selecting the most important of these, Labilliere, by inserting them in his work, has placed them for ever beyond the chance of perishing or being buried in oblivion. One document he could not find—the journal kept by Grimes in his exploration of Port Phillip in 1802; but the zeal of John Shillinglaw has brought that precious record to light, after being hidden away for three-quarters of a century. The only original document of worth still remaining to be disinterred is Bass's journal of his whale-boat expedition to Western Port; but the substance of this is undoubtedly given by Flinders in his great work. The labours of G. W. Rusden and of Gurner leave nothing to be desired in respect of what may be termed the archaeology of Port Phillip. The next visitor to Port Phillip was Flinders, who made another independent discovery of it on 26th April, and remained in it until 3rd May, during which time he made a close examination of all these parts which lie between a line drawn from the You Yangs to Arthur's Seat. Although doubtful of the suitability of Port Phillip for settlement, his report made Governor King anxious to know more of the place.

II. *First Survey*.—The fears of King that France had a design to establish herself somewhere in Australia—to convert Western Port perhaps into a second Pondicherry—lent weight to the concurrent testimony of Bass, Grant, Murray, and Flinders, as to the suitability of the south coast as a place for settlement; and the expedition of Collins was the prompt result determined on by the British Government. But meantime King saw fit to have a more particular survey made of Port Phillip. For this purpose the colonial schooner *Cumberland* of twenty-nine tons (the same in which Flinders, twelve months afterwards, was made prisoner in the Isle of France) was equipped in Sydney, and placed in charge of Lieutenant Charles Robbins of H.M.S. *Buffalo*. Robbins carried despatches to the French Commodore Baudin, then known to be on the coast, in case he should fall in with him. Besides the crew, the party consisted of Charles Grimes, Acting Surveyor-General of N.S.W.; Dr. McCallum, surgeon; James Meehan, surveyor; and James Flemming, a man in whom the Governor had great confidence, who was to observe the nature of the country explored. Their orders were to "walk round" Port Phillip. A journal of the expedition was kept by Flemming, and a chart of the survey made by Grimes. The *Cumberland* sailed from Sydney on 23rd November 1802, and on 8th December fell in with Baudin at Sea Elephant Bay, on the east coast of King Island. Peron, the naturalist of the French Expedition, tells us what followed:—"Just as we had made these arrangements for the safety of our ship, we saw the little schooner, the *Cumberland*, appear. She had come from Port Jackson and had on board Mr. Grimes, Engineer-in-Chief of the English establishment, who came by order of the Government to make a declaration to us which was as singular in form as remarkable in its object. 'It being reported,' wrote Mr. King to our commander, 'that you propose to leave some men either in V.D.L. or on the western coast of N.S.W. in order to form there a French colony, I think it my duty to declare to you, M. le Commandant, that in virtue of the Act of 1788 for taking possession, solemnly proclaimed by England, all these countries form an integral part of the British Empire; and that you cannot occupy any part of them without breaking the bonds of friendship which have been so recently re-established between the two nations. I shall not even attempt to dissemble, for such is the nature of my special instructions with regard thereto, that I must oppose by all means in my power the execution of the project you are suspected of being about to execute. In consequence of which H.M.S. *Cumberland* has received orders not to leave you until the officer who commands her is satisfied that your operations are foreign to any kind of invasion of British territory in these parts.'" Having delivered their message and made an exploration of King Island, the *Cumberland* sailed on her mission to Port Phillip, which it entered on 20th January

1803. The journal and chart show how faithfully Grimes carried out his instructions. He was undoubtedly on this occasion the discoverer of the river on which Melbourne stands; but excepting the notice of his survey by Flinders, his meritorious services to A. have met with almost total neglect.

III. *Collins's Expedition*.—Grimes's report of the nature of the country seen round Port Phillip was considered unfavourable, and was sent home to England by the *Glatton*. Before the information reached the Government, however, Collins had been despatched—27th April 1803—to form a penal settlement at the place which had been described by Murray as resembling the scenery of Arthur's Seat and Greenwich Park. The expedition was embarked on board the 50-gun ship *Calcutta*, Captain Daniel Woodriff, and the chartered transport *Ocean*, John Mertho, master. Labilliere gives a full and interesting narrative of the objects and instructions of the British Government, and of the reasons given by Collins for the abandonment of the place. The prompt and energetic action of the first Australian Governor—Phillip—in searching for a more suitable spot than Botany Bay, to which he had been despatched by the British Government, had saved the eastern sea-board of A. to Great Britain. But the bright example was lost on Collins. King sent him the report and survey of Grimes, which mentions the Yarra. Indeed, Collins knew that the king's ship which had brought him hither lay at her anchors in Hobson's Bay for ten days, and filled up her water-casks with fifty tons of fresh water obtained from the river; and also that one of her lieutenants (McCulloch) had actually walked from Sandridge to the camp near Arthur's Seat, a distance of fifty miles. But there can be no doubt of his having had from the outset a personal preference for T. The letters from Sir Joseph Banks to Governor King, which Rusden found in the papers of the latter, clearly show that Collins before he left London intended to go to V.D.L. During the stay of Collins at Port Phillip Heads he issued from time to time a number of orders. These were printed at a small hand-press set up under a gum tree on the beach, and a printed set has been preserved in London. The original MSS. are treasured in the Parliament Library of T. The date of the first of these printed is 16th October 1803. An encampment was formed at the place now known as Sorrento; but disappointed at not finding water at a spot which he regarded as being sufficiently near the Heads, and an examination of the port as far as Frankston on the E., and nearly as far as the head of Corio Bay on the W., having disclosed no good land, on 6th November he despatched an open boat to Sydney for the purpose of informing Governor King of the unsuitability of the place for the purposes of settlement, and asking his permission to return to V.D.L. On 12th December he received King's answer, dated 26th November, granting the required permission, and forwarding a copy of Grimes's report with the

remarks, "The enclosure and accompanying survey will inform you that your observations have been fully anticipated. . . . It appears as well by Grimes' and Robbins' survey as by your report that Port Phillip is totally unfit in every point of view to remain at without subjecting the Crown to the certain expensive prospect of the soil not being equal to raise anything for the support of the settlement. Unless you should have made any further observations to encourage you remaining there—perhaps the upper part of the bay at the head of the river may not have escaped your notice, as that is the only part Grimes and those that were with him speak the least favourably of." This was the first intimation Collins had that there was a fresh water river at the north of the Bay. It was brought to him by the *Ocean*, one of the ships which brought the party from England, and which had been re-chartered to Sydney for the purpose of removing the people and stores to the River Derwent. Shillinglaw however believes that the *Calcutta*, the other of Collins's ships, and a man-of-war, sailed up to Hobson's Bay on 18th November, and lay there taking in fresh water from the Yarra, after which she returned to the settlement on the 30th, and Labilliere has come to the same conclusion. There are grounds, however, for doubting the statement. Tuckey, first-lieutenant to Collins, wrote and published in London an account of the voyage. This book bears internal evidence of not being a log written from day to day, but a narrative of events and facts, some of which occurred outside the sphere of his own observation, and even after he had left the place. Thus he speaks of the abandonment of the settlement, an event which did not take place for four weeks after the *Calcutta* had left the Bay for Sydney, and this fact must be borne in mind as accounting for expressions which might otherwise be taken to imply a personal knowledge of certain facts on the dates at which they are brought forward. On 16th October Tuckey was sent with a party in two boats in order to search the bay to the northward to find, if possible, a more eligible site for settlement. On the 21st he returned and reported that he had discovered a stream of fresh water, which appeared to be a branch from a large river at the northern extremity of the port, and which, after running through an extensive swamp, emptied itself into the E. side of the port, about twenty-eight miles from the entrance. He also said, "the bed of the stream was covered with foliaceous mica, which those in the boats at first conceived to be gold dust, and thence expected they had discovered an *Elsatedorado*." This description can refer only to the Kananook Creek, which after running through the Carrum Swamp empties itself into the bay at the township of Frankston. Knopwood, the chaplain to Collins's expedition, kept a manuscript diary of the incidents of the voyage to and first attempt at settlement on Port Phillip. This diary is reprinted in Shillinglaw's *Historical Records of Port Phillip*. The incidents

detailed are of very little interest taken separately. Thus : On 25th November, Knopwood notes the arrival at the settlement of Lieutenant M'Culloch, of the *Calcutta*, who had walked round from the watering-place during the day,—“not less than forty or fifty miles, a very great undertaking.” The distance agrees with the distance round the beach from Frankston to Sorrento, and this was the only way a man would have dared to walk, for the natives were gathering in large numbers—so large that Collins feared an attack on the settlement. On 28th November, M'Culloch returned to the ship. His conveyance was Knopwood's boat ; and Knopwood and Humphries, the mineralogist, accompanied him. His entry is as follows :—“At 9 a.m. Lieut. M'Culloch, Mr. Humphries and self, went in my boat to the Fresh Water River, on the E.S.E. side of the Bay, where H.M.S. *Calcutta* was watering ; they were cutting wood. The distance across from the camp to the ship is not less than thirty miles per water. At seven we got on board ; at half-past it rained and blew very hard, with thunder and lightning. That eve Mr. Pattshall with the watering party left the shore, having watered the ship.” On the 25th the first child was born in the settlement and named William James Hobart Thorne. On the 28th November the first marriage was solemnised : “Richard Garratt, prisoner, to Hannah Harvey, free.” Tuckey grows poetical over the circumstances of these first settlers. He writes :—“Nothing could offer a more imposing picture of reposing solitude than the wilds of Port Phillip on our first arrival. Here Contemplation, with her musing sister Melancholy, might find an undisturbed retreat. Often at the calm hour of evening I have wandered through the woods—

Where the rude axe with heaved stroke,

Was never heard the nymphs to daunt,

Or fright them from their hallowed haunt.

The last hymn of the feathered choristers to the setting sun, and the soft murmurs of the breeze, faintly broke the death-like silence that reigned around ; while the lightly trodden path of the solitary savage, or the dead ashes of his fire, alone pointed out the existence of human beings. In the course of a very few weeks the scene was greatly altered ; lanes were cut in the woods for the passage of the timber carriages ; the huts of the woodmen were erected beneath the sheltering branches of the lofty trees ; the busy hum of their voices, and the sound of their axes, reverberating through the woods, denoted the exertions of social industry, and the labours of civilisation. At other times, sitting on the carriage of a gun, in front of the camp, I have contemplated with succeeding emotions of pity, laughter, and astonishment, the scene before me. When I viewed so many of my fellow men sunk, some of them, from a rank in life equal or superior to my own, and by their crimes degraded to a level with the basest of mankind ; when I saw them *naked*, wading to their shoulders in water to unload the boats, while a burning sun

struck its meridian rays upon their uncovered heads, or yoked to and sweating under a timber carriage, the wheels of which were sunk up to the axle in sand, I only considered their hapless lot, and the remembrance of their vices was for a moment absorbed in the greatness of their punishment.” On 27th December four of the convicts absconded. Their names were Buckley, Marmon, Pye, and Gibson. The latter returned to the camp in a very exhausted state on 24th January, and reported having seen the river now called the Yarra Yarra. Buckley's remarkable story is narrated under his name. Pye and Marmon seem to have perished in the bush, or, it may be, were murdered by the blacks. On 24th January 1803 Collins, with all the settlers and convicts, sailed for the settlement formed by Bowen on the Derwent in V.D.L. McCombie says of Collins' abortive experiment :—“In reading the history of the first effort to colonise V., we may almost be inclined to believe that an especial decree of All-wise Providence had gone forth, that a colony so fair and fertile should not be degraded by a convict origin. Nothing prospered with the settlement ; and, as with the Pilgrim Fathers on their landing at New Plymouth, everything was found desolate and gloomy : sterile soil, and distressing scarcity of fresh water, appear to have given all connected with the expedition a perfect dread of the country ; the whole of the convicts, with the exception of a few (amongst whom was the celebrated Buckley, who had escaped and taken to the woods,) were re-embarked, and the establishment removed to the Derwent River. Tuckey has left a history of this expedition. He seems to have had quite a literary turn, as he gave to the world a narrative of an expedition to explore the River Zairee, or Congo, in South Africa. He appears to have been an adventurous, brave, and ready-witted man ; and so enthusiastically devoted to exploring, that like many more of similar disposition he sacrificed his life to his desire for the extension of geographical and scientific knowledge. It seems however that Collins had landed on the eastern shore of the harbour, where the country is poor and sterile, and water scarce in several spots. It is quite apparent that no proper survey of the surrounding country could have been made, as there are several tracts of rich ground and excellent forest land at no great distance from the shore. Collins seems to have resolved to quit the shores of the bay without making a proper survey of the inlet ; for, had he examined its shores thoroughly with his boats, he could not have helped discovering the Bay of Corio, and many spots of great attraction. He might have sailed up the Yarra and Saltwater rivers and seen the beautiful and picturesque scenery upon their banks.”

IV. *Hume and Hovell*.—In October 1824 Hume and Hovell succeeded in travelling overland from Sydney, and struck the shores of Port Phillip on 16th December, and camped near the present site of Geelong. They learned this native name from

the natives as denoting the inner harbour. The picturesque eminence called by Flinders "Station Peak" was named by the natives Willanmaneter, and the Downs were called Iramoo. On the 18th the party started on their return journey. In 1826 Hovell again saw Port Phillip, having come to Western Port with the party under Wright.

V. Batman and Fawcner.—The foundation of the colony by Batman and Baker in 1835 is fully detailed under their respective names, and need not be repeated here. From this point the history of Port Phillip merges into that of Melbourne and the colony.

PORT STEPHENS, a beautiful harbour of N.S.W. The entrance points are named Yacaba and Tomaree. Within the entrance are extensive sand banks. It may be considered a large estuary about fifteen miles in length, contracted near the centre to the width of about a mile. The Karnah River flows into this harbour at the north-west corner, on which river stands Bourral, about twelve miles up, it being the furthest point navigable. The River Myall also discharges its waters into this harbour. On the northern bank of Port Stephens stands Carrington, a neat little town, distant from Sydney by water 100 miles, and by land 200 miles.

PORTLAND, a seaport town in V., on the west coast of Portland Bay, 225 miles (277 postal) S.W. of Melbourne, about the same distance E. from Adelaide, fifty-five miles from Hamilton, to which a railway line has been constructed. Portland is in direct railway communication with the metropolis. Portland was founded by the late Edward Henty, who arrived on 19th November 1834; it is consequently the oldest settlement in V. excepting Old Settlement Point on the shores of Western Port Bay, where for nearly twelve months detachments of the 3rd and 30th regiments, under Captain Wright, were located in the year 1826. It was first used as a whaling dépôt. The town, on the high road to the west, overlooks the bay, which is twenty-four by twelve miles, capable of affording anchorage to the largest fleet in the world. The bay is the natural outlet for an immense tract of back country, comprehending many millions of acres of agricultural and pastoral land. There is jetty accommodation for the loading and discharge of vessels, and the harbour accommodation will eventually be much improved by the construction of a breakwater. Portland possesses a well-laid out botanical garden. The population is about 2000. To the north-west of the town lies the valley of the Wannon, which cultivated with corn would produce as much annually as would feed the whole population of Victoria; and still further west, but within easy reach of the bay, lies the Mount Gambier district, second to no part of Australia for productiveness. The chief exports are cattle, horses, sheep, wool, tallow, hides, bark, butter, and recently wheat, corn, and the different sorts of agricultural produce.

PORTLAND BAY, a fine harbour of V., was discovered by Grant and named by him in honour of the Duke of Portland. The principal rivers which flow into this harbour are the Fitzroy, Shaw, Hopkins, and Surrey rivers.

PORTUGUESE NAVIGATORS (EARLY.) In 1486 Bartholomew Diaz reached the southern extremity of Africa, to which he first gave the name of the Cape of Storms, subsequently changed to the Cape of Good Hope. In 1497 Vasco di Gama doubled the Cape and conducted a fleet to India. In 1500 Pedro Alvarez de Cabral discovered the coast of Brazil and took possession of it in the name of the Portuguese Crown; but Brazil had been previously visited by Diego Lope and Vicente Yonez Pinzon, who was the first to cross the equator in the Atlantic.

POSSESSION POINT, in W.A., was discovered and named by Vancouver in 1791.

POSSESSION ISLES are situated off the N.E. coast of the continent. Possession Island, the largest, was discovered by Cook in 1770, who says, "As I am about to quit the eastern coast of New Holland, which I have coasted from lat. 38° to this place, and which I am confident no European has ever seen before, I once more hoist English colours, and though I have already taken possession of several parts, I now take possession of the whole eastern coast in right of His Majesty King George III." His men then fired three volleys of small-arms, which were answered by the same number from the ship and by three cheers from the main shrouds. He re-embarked on the boat and left this island, to which, from the ceremony just performed, he gave the name of Possession Island.

PRATT, SIR THOMAS SIMSON (—1879) entered the Army as Ensign in February 1814; served in Holland in the campaign of that year with the 56th Regiment, and was present at the attack on Merxem and the bombardment of Antwerp; served with the 26th Cameronians in the China Expedition, for which he received the medal; commanded the land forces at the assault and capture of the forts of Chuenpee in January 1841; again at the capture of the Bogue forts, 26th February. He commanded the 26th at the attack on Canton; also at the night attack on Ningpo Woo Sung. He was Commander of the Military Forces in Australia throughout the N.Z. war in 1860; while thus employed in Australia and N.Z. he held the rank of Major-General. For his services he received the medal and was created K.C.B. On 8th January 1860 he succeeded Sir Edmund Macarthur in command of the Military Forces of V. In May 1862 he was appointed to the colonelcy of the 37th Regiment, and retired from the active list under the provisions of the Royal Warrant of May 1878, being over the age of seventy years.

PRICE, JOHN, a native of Cornwall in England, came to V.D.L. in 1835 and commenced

agricultural pursuits, but gave them up to enter the service of the Government. He attracted attention by his daring in the capture of bush-rangers. In 1838 he was made Police Magistrate of Hobart Town; in 1848 he succeeded Captain Mackenochie as Chief Superintendent at Norfolk Island; in 1853 he was appointed Chief Inspector of Penal Establishments in V. On 26th March 1857 he was murderously attacked by eighty-two of the convicts employed on the public works at Williamstown, and received such severe injuries that he died on the following day.

PRINCE OF WALES ISLANDS, a cluster of islands situated off the N.E. coast of the continent. They are much intersected by straits and openings; there is an appearance of a good port a little to the S.W. of Horned Hill.

PRINCESS CHARLOTTE'S BAY, is an extensive bight on the N.E. coast of the continent, twenty-two miles deep and thirty-one broad. There is, over the head of this bay, a remarkable level topped hill, called by Cook, Jones' Table-land, rendered conspicuous from the low nature of the surrounding country.

PUDDING PAN HILL, on the N.E. coast of the continent, is 384 feet high. It received this appellation from Bligh, from a resemblance it has to an inverted pudding-dish commonly used by sailors.

PYRAMID HILL, a remarkable hill of granite, in V., five and a half miles from Mount Hope. It is a triangular pyramid, and stands quite isolated, closely resembling the monuments of Egypt.

Q.

QUEENSCLIFF, a township at the entrance of Port Phillip Bay, about thirty-two miles S. of Melbourne—sixty-five miles by land. It is situated on a small peninsula, connected with the mainland by a narrow neck of land about 400 yards in width. Two lighthouses are here so placed that when seen from seaward in one line they form a leading mark for vessels entering. The width of Port Phillip Heads, between Point Nepean on the E. and Point Lonsdale on the W., is about 4000 yards, but the navigable channel, called the Rip, through which the tide rushes with great velocity, is only about 1600 yards wide. The entrance is protected by two batteries, one mounting three 300-pounder guns, and the other three 80-pounders; in case of war these would be supplemented by lines of torpedoes laid across the channels. A battery of seven guns is also erected on Swan Island, which has been purchased by the Government. Queenscliff is connected with Geelong by railway. It is a fashionable watering place, much frequented by Melbourne visitors in summer. All vessels arriving from foreign ports are here boarded by the Health Officer.

QUEENSLAND, the youngest of the Australian Colonies, having been established in 1859, prior to which date it formed the Moreton Bay district of N.S.W.

GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION AND AREA.—Q. occupies the whole of the north-eastern portion of A., commencing at a point of the E. coast about 400 miles N. of Sydney, called Point Danger. The greater portion of the southern boundary-line is formed by the 29th parallel of S. lat. The eastern seaboard extends about 1300 miles to Cape York, the extreme northern point of the continent. The mean breadth of the territory is 900 miles from the eastern coastline to the meridian of 138° E. long., which forms the western boundary-line. This includes the greater portion of the Gulf of Carpentaria, which has a seaboard of about 900 miles. The whole of Q. comprises about 670,000 square miles, nearly twelve times the area of England and Wales. It is larger than the German and Austrian empires with France and Belgium added. It equals in size the united areas of California, Oregon, Washington, Nevada and Utah.

PHYSICAL FEATURES.—The physical features of Q. are strongly marked. They consist (1) of a seaboard from 50 to 100 miles broad; (2) an elevated table-land, or more strictly speaking, a succession of undulating downs or plains, situated some 2000 feet above the sea-level, and stretching back to the W. for 400 or 500 miles, without continuous rise or fall; and (3) a succession of terraces descending, generally with rapidity, but in some places less perceptibly, until the more extended level of the interior of the continent is reached. There are thus three portions of territory, widely differing in their peculiar capabilities. The seaboard owes its origin to the action of a network of streams issuing from the more elevated table-land, and bringing down with them the disintegrated particles from the flanks of the Great Range. Indeed the process may be still seen going on in the immediate neighbourhood of the sea-shore, and on a series of muddy and sandy islands lying off the coast, which are thus yearly growing in size. The more upland portions however, nearer the Great Range, have long ceased to derive any addition from this source, and now form excellent districts for the growth of wheat, maize and other cereals, which they produce in great luxuriance, yielding generally two crops in the year, and as much as 80 and 100 bushels to the acre. Indeed the deep alluvial character of the soil and the plentiful supply of warm showers, caused by the influence of the Great Range, combine to produce a very remarkable degree of fertility, while the well-sustained slope of the whole seaboard prevents that accumulation of stagnant waters which communicates so unhealthy a feature to many similarly luxuriant regions within the tropics. The scenery throughout the whole tract, and more especially along the course of its numerous streams is of the most delightful character. Lang writes:—"Close to the water's edge rises a complete wall of

luxuriant foliage. Fig-trees, bean-trees, pines, and a variety of other trees stand thickly set and overhung with a rich drapery of creepers, presenting the forms of turrets, buttresses, festoons and stalactites in endless variety, and bespangled with flowers and fruit. There is a purple convolvulus, wild roses, tulips and some yellow flowers scattered high and low; and close to the water's edge a pure white lily. Cherries, figs and mulberries overhang the water." More often however, the course of these streams lies through a succession of thinly-treed plains where the principal feature of the day's journey is a series of beautiful flats or plains of limited extent, each surrounded with an amphitheatre of hills, with the river, flanked with tall trees, and occasionally with lofty cedars, stealing silently along in its deep bed. There is nothing more remarkable in this part of the territory than the way in which the fruits of the temperate and torrid zones grow harmoniously together in the same garden-plot, and fructify and come to maturity each in its proper season. The following almost incredible example of healthy and rapid growth is reported by the same writer:—"I may also mention, as a remarkable instance of the extraordinary fertility of the district, that a young peach tree, about eight feet high, and covered with blossoms, happened to attract my notice in the garden of the Rev. James Collins, near Grafton; and Mr. Collins informed me that the peach-stone from which that tree had grown had been planted by himself in the month of January preceding, only eight months before." As we descend this slope, however, to the immediate borders of the sea-coast, much of the land assumes a more dreary aspect, consisting chiefly of mangrove-swamps, sand-banks and "drowned land," in actual process of formation. But though less refreshing to the eye, there is reason to suppose that these tracts will prove highly valuable for the cultivation of those varieties of the cotton plant which love "salt swamp." The shore is well supplied with bays, some of very considerable extent, as Moreton Bay, Wide Bay, Port Curtis and numerous others. These bays however are not so much indentations of the coast-line as enclosures formed by the islands we have already mentioned. Moreton Bay itself is some 60 miles long and 20 wide; and they are all supplied with rivers navigable for 50, 60 and 100 miles inland. Moreton Bay possesses no less than five such valuable rivers besides some smaller ones. One of these, the Brisbane, gives its name to the capital city of the colony, situated twenty-two miles from its mouth. At this distance the mangrove-swamps are entirely passed, and the city stands upon a scene of surprising beauty. The noble river which winds almost under foot, and appears and disappears, and appears again, as it pursues its tortuous course through the dark forest to the bay, or is traced upwards to its sources, presents, ever and anon, points of view surpassingly beautiful; the thick brushes on its banks, with the

majestic Moreton Bay pine overtopping all the other giants of the forest, merely indicating the spots of extraordinary fertility where the hand of man is perhaps erecting his future dwelling, and transforming the wilderness into smiling farms and fruitful fields. The river here is a quarter of a mile wide—a width which it preserves for several miles upwards: indeed the Brisbane is navigable for 150 miles inland, and steamers daily ply up its course. The population of the city amounts to about 35,000. Numerous handsome villas on a succession of terraces overlook the town and command splendid views of the surrounding country. The city itself stands considerably above sea-level, and is distinguished for its very healthy climate, both during the summer and winter months. Excepting the neighbourhood of Sydney, which is perhaps the most beautiful city-site in the world, it would be difficult to select a more charming scene. The bays abound with fish, turtle (of an excellence long known throughout the neighbouring colonies,) crabs of three and four pounds weight and very superior quality, and the deep fisheries off the coast team with several varieties of large fish of peculiar and most delicate flavour. The next great physical feature of Q. is the table-land constituting the flat back of the Great Coast Range. This range attains to its mean elevation, or almost to its mean elevation, at a distance of from 50 to 100 miles from the sea-shore. Nor does it begin to descend into the interior with any marked or continuous depression until the sources of Mitchell's Victoria River, about the 147th meridian, are passed. Thus, commencing from the southern bounds of the colony, an elevated region some 400 or 500 miles broad stretches away thence to the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria—a distance of over 1000 miles, giving an area of more than 400,000 square miles. The whole of this area, with the exception of the two partial interruptions already mentioned, may be described as a succession of wide open downs, enclosed each within small subsidiary basaltic ranges traversing the great plateau. These downs are each of immense extent, and contain deep and excellent agricultural soil, clothed with the richest grasses, growing in wonderful luxuriance. They are in a great measure destitute of trees, but the bases of their enclosing ranges are furnished with a handsome and stately description of pine, behind which, and retiring into their recesses, are found some valuable cedar trees. These recesses are plentifully supplied with numerous springs and rills, which, trickling down the slopes of the ranges and traversing the enclosed plains, unite and form the abundant network of rivers by which this immense plateau is watered. Some of the rivers—as the Clarence, the Richmond, the Brisbane, the Fitzroy, the Burdekin, the Maranoa, the Balonne, the Warrego, the Victoria—are of considerable extent, and traverse in their windings, peculiar to all Australian watercourses, immense tracts of country. The Victoria, without taking

into consideration its windings at all, possesses a curiously protracted length of some 1500 miles. These streams, according as their main course tends to the east or the west, discharge themselves into the Pacific or the interior of the continent, and hence the term, "Great Dividing Range," applied to this vast table-land, as parting the eastern and western waters of the continent; though, as the range is entirely confined to the eastern seaboard, the term itself is somewhat misleading. Lang writes of this extensive river system:—"Notwithstanding the generally received calumny to which the great South Land has hitherto been subjected in Europe, as being destitute of springs of water, and to a vast extent hopelessly barren and unavailable for the purposes of man, it would perhaps be difficult to point to any tract of country of equal extent, and within the same parallels of latitude in either hemisphere, in which there is a greater number either of streams of water or of rivers available for navigation." Travellers throughout these vast plains all concur in their admiration of the luxuriance of the soil, the coolness and salubrity of the climate, and the loveliness of the entire landscape. They describe its countless rills issuing cool and limpid from their pine-clad slopes—deep rivers stealing through waving meadows—the golden sunlight, the rosy atmosphere and the songs of innumerable birds which give an additional charm to each scene. Sir George Bowen, in a speech delivered on the occasion of his visit to the Darling Downs, said:—"I wish to avail myself of this opportunity to state publicly that my recent journey over the Darling Downs has filled me with surprise and admiration. Even before I left England, I knew by report the rich natural resources and the picturesque beauty of this district, the scenery of which vividly recalls to my mind the general aspect of the classic plains of Thessaly. But I confess that I was not fully prepared for so wonderfully rapid an advance in all that can promote and adorn civilisation—an advance which has taken place during the fourth part of an average lifetime. Not only have I seen vast herds of horses and cattle and countless flocks of sheep overspreading the valleys and forests which, within the memory of persons who have yet scarcely attained to the age of manhood, were tenanted only by wild animals and by a few wandering tribes of savages; not only have I travelled over roads beyond all comparison superior to the means of communication which existed less than a century ago in many parts of the United Kingdom; not only have I beheld flourishing towns arising in spots where, hardly twenty years back, the foot of a white man had never yet trodden the primeval wilderness; not only have I admired these and other proofs of material progress, but I have also found in the houses of the long chain of settlers who have entertained me with such cordial hospitality all the comforts and most of the luxuries and refinements of the houses of

country gentlemen in England. The wonderful advance of this portion of the colony during the last ten years is due to no sudden and fortuitous discovery of the precious metals; it is derived wholly from the blessing of Providence on the skill and energy of its inhabitants in subduing and replenishing the earth. Assuredly I have observed during the past week very remarkable illustrations of the proverbial genius of the Anglo-Saxon race for the noble and truly imperial art of colonisation." The whole of this almost boundless plateau—extending within the tropics, but elevated 2000 feet above sea-level—is peculiarly fitted for a wide range of crops. Indeed, as vegetation is continued during the whole year, the farmer has only to choose his various seasons for bringing most of the productions of the temperate and tropical zones to maturity. Thus wheat, oats, barley, maize, potatoes (and more especially the sweet potato, which here grows to the weight of twenty and even thirty pounds,) arrowroot, indigo, and more generally, all the productions of the kitchen garden, have already been cultivated with great success. At present however, with the exception of some townships and their surrounding farms, these table-lands are clothed throughout their vast extent with the rich and luxuriant natural grasses of the country, and are roamed over by the flocks and herds of some widely-scattered sheep and cattle owners.

MOUNTAINS.—The highest mountains are the Bellenden Ker peaks, not far from the coast, to the north of Rockingham Bay, while Mount Dalrymple, about 100 miles farther south, is over 4000 feet. The ranges in the southern part of the colony are not very lofty, but they contain the "Glasshouses" and other singular volcanic peaks.

RIVERS.—The principal rivers are the Burnett, the Fitzroy and the Burdekin, emptying themselves into the Pacific; the Flinders, the Albert, the Mitchell, the Gilbert and Norman emptying themselves into the Gulf of Carpentaria; the Victoria or Barcoo flowing through Cooper's Creek to Lake Eyre; the Dumaresque, Condamine and Warrego flowing towards the Darling.

BAYS.—The coast has many good harbours. Besides the fine and extensive harbour of Moreton Bay it has Hervey Bay, Keppel Bay, Port Curtis, Port Bowen, Port Denison, Rockingham Bay, and Port Albany, near Cape York.

DISTRICTS.—(1) The East and West Moreton District lies between the Main Dividing Range and the sea, and almost encircled by a rough semicircle of hills. This tract of country, of which Brisbane and Ipswich are the chief towns, was the site of the original settlement of Moreton Bay. It is watered by several rivers descending from the ranges, of which the most important are the Brisbane and Bremer, which uniting form a navigable stream. Two long-shaped sandy islands lie off the coast, forming the sheltered harbour of Moreton Bay, into which, besides the Brisbane, several smaller rivers rising in the mountain ranges

also fall. In this tract of country the soil is of better average quality near the ranges, and worse near the sea, where the only really good land is on the banks of the rivers and creeks. But that good land is nearly all in the hands of selectors, who profit by the remarkable range of production rendered possible by the mild climate of the district, and its moderate, well-distributed rainfall. In no part of Q. and in few parts of the world is it possible to grow such an infinite variety of plants, vegetables and shrubs as in these districts. Turnips, potatoes and cauliflower are grown within sight of fields of cane, which mature and yield excellent sugar. Bananas, oranges, pineapples and peaches are the fruits most commonly grown; but a wonderful variety of trees indigenous to the tropical and temperate zones are growing and thriving in experimental gardens. Sugar cane is cultivated in localities where the soil is suitable, generally on the bank of a river, which also serves as a waterway for the transport of canes from the field to the mill. Besides sugar, arrowroot of fine quality is produced. The settlers also grow maize, potatoes—English and sweet—oats for hay, lucerne, sorghum and tobacco. There are a number of vineyards, and the cultivation of the grape vine is increasing, especially in the country around Ipswich and near the range. The winter frosts, especially near the coast, are seldom severe enough to injure any but the more delicate tropical plants, while the cool season is sufficiently prolonged to give those from the temperate zone an opportunity of gathering vigour and strength. As in all the coast districts the country is pretty thickly covered with trees, and on the banks of some of the rivers the pencil cedar is found. The local pine furnishes employment to sawmills in Brisbane and several townships of the districts. The Moreton districts are not so rich in minerals as some parts of the colony. Gold has been found in reefs in different places, and has been worked in the immediate neighbourhood of Brisbane; but the finds have not been important. But the Brisbane and its tributaries intersect an important coal basin from which large and increasing quantities of the mineral are being raised. (2) The Darling Downs District, although on the western side of the watershed of the Main Dividing Range, enjoys many of the advantages of the coast districts. The atmosphere is fairly charged with moisture, and the rainfall frequent; running streams are numerous, and the high average fertility of the soil has gained for it the name of the Garden of Q. Agricultural settlement has made considerable progress, especially in the eastern portion, and several important towns, as Toowoomba, Warwick and Dalby, have grown up as centres for the pastoral and agricultural population. Originally the Darling Downs was the best known and most highly esteemed pastoral district in Q. It possessed unusual advantages, having to a great extent the same open grassy plains as the interior, fertile

soil growing a thick sward of sweet and very nutritious pasturage, as well as an abundant rainfall. These advantages attracted the attention of the land selectors and agriculturists, to whom, after a prolonged struggle, the pastoral occupiers had partly to give way. The construction of the railway from Brisbane to Toowoomba, and thence towards the N.S.W. border, gave a great impetus to settlement. Still the district, though appearing as a small patch on the map of Q., is a large tract of country containing some millions of acres not yet alienated from the Crown. The grazier finds the Darling Downs equally suitable for sheep or cattle, and climate and natural pasturage are of the kind that suit either the merino or the coarser woolled sheep. The sharp winter frosts, however, debar the agriculturist from attempting the cultivation of tropical plants or trees, but they enable him to cultivate with marked success all the products of the temperate zone. There is reason to hope that this will become a great wheat district. The principal mineral in this district is tin, found near the southern border. The discovery of stream tin in that locality led to the foundation of the town of Stanthorpe. Gold has been found in one or two places and some promising reefs are being worked near Warwick. But the district is so rich in the fertility of the surface soil that, with its regular rainfall, temperate and bracing climate, it would be certain to maintain an important position even without the tin on its borders, its reefing patches, or the coal seams in more than one locality. (3) The Wide Bay and Burnett Districts. The first of these lies nearest to the coast, and takes its name from a sheltered sheet of water somewhat similar to Moreton Bay, enclosed by a large island known as Frazer's Island. Into this bay the Mary River, running from S. to N. and draining the larger half of the district, falls. Maryborough, the chief seaport town, is built on the navigable part of it, about twenty-five miles from the mouth. The northern end of the district is crossed by the Burnett River, on which the seaport of Bundaberg is built. Other smaller streams, of which the Burrum is the most considerable, fall into the sea within the limits of the Wide Bay district. The remarks made concerning the soil in the Moreton district apply to Wide Bay, and it enjoys a similar climate, though perhaps warmer. The banks of the Mary and its tributary creeks were originally clothed with thick scrub, but on the lower reaches these have been nearly all cleared, and sugar-growing as well as general cultivation is carried on. On the Upper Mary the prevalence of frost and the absence of water carriage has prevented settlers from growing cane; but the rich lands which flank the mountain ranges that form the western watershed of the Mary have been largely selected, and are being used for depasturing stock, and some cultivation. In the northern end of the district traversed by the Burnett River the soil is of more uniformly good character, even close

to the sea coast, and is becoming an important agricultural centre. At present the farmers confine themselves mainly to maize, but steps are being taken to establish sugar cultivation, for which soil and climate are both suitable. The Wide Bay district is extremely rich in minerals. On the Upper Mary is the goldfield of Gympie, the first of any importance discovered in Q. Although not so extensive as the auriferous areas of the North, Gympie maintains a high average of productiveness as a reefing-field. It was discovered in 1867, and the exceedingly rich alluvial field attracted a great "rush" from all the colonies. The reefs were speedily found, and after the alluvial had been partly exhausted were vigorously attacked. The output of gold has averaged about 40,000 ounces for many years, and the reefs show no sign of deteriorating in the lower levels of the mines. Besides gold, the ores of a variety of other metals are found in this district. The ranges that form the northern watershed of the Mary are seamed with metallic veins. Of these a large proportion are copper lodes which were worked some years ago, when the high price of the metal enabled the miners to overcome the disadvantages of land carriage and inadequate mining plant. Galena has been found in the same locality; and veins of cinnabar, which have been superficially worked to extract quicksilver for the use of the Gympie machines. Antimony has been mined at Neardie, and exists in large accessible lodes. Zinc and other ores have been found—bismuth and cobalt among the number. Coal abounds. According to surface indications the whole country from the Lower Mary to the Burnett River appears to be more or less of a coal basin. A number of pits have been sunk on the seams, and several thousand tons of excellent coal raised. The timber forests of Wide Bay have always been a considerable source of wealth to the district. They contain cedar, immense quantities of pine, and excellent hardwood, consisting of iron-bark and other timbers. Noosa, the timber scrubs, are found in the neighbourhood of a connected string of picturesque shallow lakes, separated from the coast by a narrow strip of land. The timber is cut up on the spot and sent around by sea to Brisbane. The Maryborough saw mills are supplied with logs from the timber scrubs of Frazer's Island, and the opposite mainland as well as the upper reaches of the Mary River. Those at Bundaberg draw their supplies from the extensive coast scrubs. Both Wide Bay and Moreton Bay abound with fish. In their sheltered waters a number of men find employment in capturing the dugong, and preparing a valuable medicinal oil from its fat, and thick tough leather from its hide. The pasturage of Wide Bay resembles that of the Moreton district, and is more suitable for cattle than sheep; but in the Burnett district which lies directly west of it, the pastoral country is of higher average quality. This district is as yet mainly pastoral. It includes

the whole watershed of the Upper Burnett and its numerous tributaries. About 10,000 square miles of country are held under pastoral lease in the district, and a good deal of land has been selected, but the selections are almost exclusively used for depasturing stock. Its climate is drier and colder than that of Wide Bay, but moist enough for agriculture, and the district resembles the Darling Downs in this respect and in the fertility of the soil, suitable both for sheep and cattle, but the latter are preferred. In the north-eastern portion of the district valuable copper deposits occur. One mine was worked for some time, yielding a profit in three or four years equal to about five times its capital. A sudden fall in the price of copper led to the abandonment of most of the mining operations. (4) The Port Curtis and Leichhardt districts embrace the whole watershed of all the numerous tributaries of the Fitzroy River, which falls into the sea in Keppel Bay at the point where the tropic of Capricorn intersects the coast line of Q. Port Curtis is a comparatively narrow strip of country occupying the whole seaboard. The Leichhardt is two or three times as large, stretching westward to the watershed of the Main Dividing Range, which at this point is about two hundred miles from the coast. Port Curtis is crossed by the Fitzroy River, which is for the last twenty or thirty miles of its course a broad navigable stream. The seaport of Rockhampton, built on it, is the outport for the central districts of Q., and the terminus of one of the trunk lines of railway now being extended westward from the coast. A number of small streams rising in broken and hilly country in various parts of the district fall into the sea at several points on the coast. Near the southern end of the district is the sheltered harbour of Port Curtis, which has given its name to it. But although this is the finest harbour in southern or central Q., and Gladstone, which is built on it, is one of the oldest settlements in the colony, it has never grown beyond the size of a township; the trade current having set entirely to Rockhampton. That portion of the district of which it is the natural outport is full of metalliferous veins and gold reefs; but mining of all sorts has been carried on only in a fitful manner. Small gold reefing areas have been worked near Rockhampton, but none have attained any importance as mining centres. Copper mines have been opened and worked in the district, but are now all abandoned. There is little agriculture carried on in the Port Curtis district, though a good deal of land has been taken up in the neighbourhood of Rockhampton. The selectors confine themselves mainly to stock-keeping and dairy work. The soil of the district is on the whole good, it is pretty thickly wooded, although with the exception of the ordinary hardwood there is not much marketable timber. But the rainfall is unevenly distributed, and prolonged intervals of dry weather militate against agriculture. As

to climate it occupies an intermediate position between the temperate and tropical portions of the coast country, and the temperature is decidedly high. For pastoral purposes Port Curtis is well adapted, though stockowners are compelled to confine their attention to cattle. But the native grasses are of higher average quality than in Wide Bay. The large district of Leichhardt is distinctly pastoral country, the area of available country held under lease in 1879 amounting to 18,732 square miles. Although portions of it are sandy and scrubby, others are exceedingly fertile land. The blacksoil volcanic plains and downs of the Comet were considered at one time to be equal to the finest pastoral country in Q., but a few of the stations have deteriorated, owing mainly to overstocking. The Leichhardt is well watered, and contains a fair proportion of running streams and brooks. The country is adapted either for sheep or cattle, but the latter are chiefly depastured on it. (5) The North and South Kennedy Districts consist of the extensive watershed of the Burdekin, embracing an even larger area of country than the affluents of the Fitzroy. They form two irregular triangles, joined by a base line running about east and west. Of the South Kennedy district little more than an angle touches the sea; of the North Kennedy, a whole side is seaboard. The western boundary of both districts is the Main Dividing Range, which forks opposite their connecting point, one division of the great watershed stretching westward, the other forming the boundary of the North Kennedy, trending rapidly towards the sea. The small seaboard of the South Kennedy includes the sugar-growing district of Mackay, formed on the rich lands of the Pioneer river. The town of that name situated on the navigable portion of the river owes its rise entirely to the establishment of sugar-growing, which prospered almost from the beginning. Not only is the soil very fertile, and of the character most suitable for cane-growing, but the climate is unusually favourable for the manufacture of sugar. It is tropical and free from frost, and while there is a sufficient rainfall to ensure the growth of the cane, the planter can nearly always reckon on a prolonged spell of dry weather when he requires to turn his crop into sugar, and rain would interfere with crushing operations. It is estimated that over 100,000 acres of excellent sugar land are to be found in this locality; and about 12,000 acres are actually under crop. In the southern inland angle of South Kennedy, on the watershed of the Belyando, one of the tributaries of the Burdekin, is the pastoral and mineral district of Peak Downs. The surface of the country is covered with fertile black soil clothed with a fine sward of grass and herbage. The Peak Downs sheep stations are reckoned among the finest pastoral properties in the colony, and immense sums of money have been spent on improving them. A small goldfield near Clermont, the chief centre of population, has been worked since the separation

of Q. from N.S.W., and still continues to yield small quantities of gold. But the most important mine has been the Peak Downs copper mine. This rich mineral deposit, discovered in 1860, was taken in hand by a N.S.W. company and worked with vigour. The lodes were large and produced immense quantities of rich ore, so that in spite of the cost of wood fuel, and the land cartage of 180 miles to port, the operations were profitable. During the years that copper was high priced the mine gave dividends nearly equal to its whole capital. The fall in price of copper threw the affairs of the company into confusion from which they did not recover. The mine is still being worked, though on a small scale, by tributors, and appears to be far from exhausted. Several unworked copper lodes exist in the district. North Kennedy is eminently a mineral and above all a gold producing country. The reefing districts, of which Charters Towers is the centre, produced in 1879, 83,275 ozs. gold, and the neighbouring reefing centre of Ravenswood 15,744 ozs. But the actual gold production of this district gives no idea of its capabilities. There is practically no alluvial mining, and the quartz reefs extend over an area of about 120 square miles of proclaimed auriferous ground, besides a great deal of country not yet included in any official proclamation. Besides gold, the silver lodes of Ravenswood are attracting attention and are likely to prove profitable. Copper lodes are also found in several localities. The mining centre of Charters Towers having assumed a settled and permanent character, attention is being paid to the surface soil in its neighbourhood. Homesteads embracing an aggregate area of about 3000 acres have been taken up; the holders, though but mainly engaged in stock-keeping and dairying, practise a little agriculture. Although close on the 20th parallel of south latitude, the country lying at a considerable elevation above the sea has a climate rather sub-tropical than tropical, and grapes have been found to thrive and mature. The summer though hot is distinctly healthy, and there is a pleasant cool season. The interior of the district contains some excellent pastoral country, but unsuited for sheep. On the coast of North Kennedy lies the beautiful harbour of Port Dennison, a land-locked sheet of water, unequalled for shipping purposes by any other natural port north of Port Jackson. But the town of Bowen, built on it, has been commercially unfortunate. Possessing this noble harbour, a climate so temperate and equable that the place is used as a sanitarium by those who have to endure the fiercer heat of the far north, it has been deprived of its inland trade by the newer settlement of Townsville on Cleveland Bay. Nevertheless, Bowen is a prosperous little place. It is the main centre of general agriculture—as distinct from sugar-planting—in the north. A number of settlers have formed homesteads and cultivated maize, potatoes, &c., besides planting orchards in which oranges, mangoes, custard

apples, lemons, citrons, pineapples, limes, &c., grow with marked success. There is excellent agricultural land in the neighbourhood, and much of the soil is said to be quite suitable for sugar cultivation. Gold is found at no great distance, galena exists, and tin has been discovered. The Government geologist speaking of the coal measures on the Bowen River says:—"The coalfield is the geological equivalent of the most valuable part of the N.S.W. measures." At the extreme northern end of the seaboard of the district, where the Main Dividing Range sends down its spurs to the sea, lies the port of Cardwell, near which, on the rich alluvial flats of the Herbert River, sugar-growing has been long established. Although both soil and climate are suitable for cane cultivation the industry has not advanced; its progress being delayed by the isolated position of the settlement. Some plantations however seem to have overcome the initiatory difficulties. (6) The Cook District occupies the whole of the Cape York Peninsula, having on its seaboard on one side the ocean—the coast here being sheltered throughout its length by the Great Barrier Reef—and on the other the Gulf of Carpentaria. This large district—the largest in the colony—is hardly yet thoroughly explored, and was almost unknown till the Palmer "rush" of 1874; but so far as it has been examined it appears to possess in unusual variety and abundance all the sources of natural wealth with which Q. is so richly endowed. The Main Range running parallel to the east coast from south to north is visible for several hundred miles from the sea. In some places it runs to lofty crests such as the Bellenden Kerr Mountains, of which some peaks are 6000 feet high; in others it forms a mountain wall which viewed from the sea appears to forbid access to the interior. But the mountains themselves are clothed to their summits with luxuriant vegetation; in the belt of coast land at their feet are tracts of good land; they are pierced by valleys carved out by swift rivers, enshrouded by dense forests of pine, cedar and other valuable timbers growing in the richest soil; and in places they fall back and encircle large tracts of the richest agricultural country. From the western slopes of the range descend rivers which fall into the Gulf of Carpentaria. The head waters and tributaries of these rivers have all given names to gold workings, such as the Gilbert and Etheridge, the Hodgkinson, including the Tate and Walsh, and the Palmer, which with its tributaries form the well-known goldfield of that name. It is the range which is auriferous, or rather metalliferous, for even on the narrow belt of country between it and the east coast gold and tin have been found; and where further north it trends more towards the centre of the peninsula the rivers descending from it and falling into the ocean, such as the Normanby and Coleman, also traverse auriferous country. It may almost be said of the Cook District so far as it is known that it is one vast goldfield. The extensive but shallow

alluvial deposits of the Palmer attracted the first great "rush" of miners, European and Chinese; but the former soon discovered reefs in all directions. The Palmer, Hodgkinson and Etheridge are names applied generally to what are really provinces seamed with gold reefs. The extent of auriferous ground actually included in the proclaimed goldfields is 14,600 square miles; but there are thousands of square miles of gold-bearing country on which no discovery of a sufficiently startling nature has attracted a "rush" of miners, and which has not therefore been formally proclaimed. The latest official report of the Mines Department gives the number of lines of reef proved to be auriferous in the proclaimed fields as 854, but these constitute only a small percentage of the reefs known to exist. But the workings being in the hands almost exclusively of the Chinese, they add little or nothing to the capital stock of the colony. Only about a third of the coast line on the eastern side of the district has been partly occupied, and the western or Gulf side has hardly been even examined. On the east coast the principal seaport is Cooktown, founded by the rush to the Palmer, of which field it is the outlet. To the south of Cooktown are Port Douglass and Cairns, smaller ports originally opened as outlets for the Hodgkinson. There is a good deal of agricultural land in the neighbourhood of these places, which is leading to some permanent settlement. Tin is found in the mountainous country at the back of the two last-named ports. In the southern part of the district a fine tract of agricultural country on the banks of the Johnstone River has been taken up for sugar-growing. Large quantities of cedar are cut on the river side scrubs of the Daintree and Mossman Rivers, and shipped south in log. In describing the east coast its peculiar formation should be mentioned. It is everywhere sheltered by the line of the Barrier Reef, which with a few breaks extends as far as Cape York. Inside the Reef are archipelagos of islands of all sizes and shapes, for the most part rocky and unfertile, but of the most picturesque form. The coasting steamers follow a deep wide channel between the mainland and the reef and among the islands. No more pleasant pleasure trip can be taken in Australia than a coasting voyage along the north coast of Q. The sheltered water, stirred only into a gentle ripple by the fresh cool trade wind, is seldom rough enough to discompose the most sensitive traveller. As the boat pursues its journey every mile discloses a new combination of mountain and island scenery; the grand outlines of the former softened by their mantle of luxuriant green, and the fantastic shapes of the latter, rendered attractive by the contrast of grey rock, dazzling white sand, and blue sparkling water. The pearl shell and bêche-de-mer fishery, carried on among the islands off the coast, especially in or near the Torres Straits, must be mentioned. This industry gives employment to a number of boats and men. The Chinese have engaged in the collection of

the bêche-de-mer, and a junk built by them in Cooktown trades among their fishing stations. (7) The Interior District includes the districts of Maranoa, Warrego, Mitchell, North Gregory and South Gregory. According to the last report of the Lands Department the extent of country held under pastoral lease was, of available pasturage 178,433 square miles, and of unavailable 72,360; in all a territory about one-fourth larger than the colony of N.S.W. There is some country not yet taken up, so that the gross area of this division is larger than the total amount of land held under pastoral lease. It may fairly be calculated that the interior of Q. contains at least 200,000 square miles of good pastoral country. As a rule it is all open, there is very little of what is known as "forest." Enormous plains stretching to a vanishing point on the horizon, or undulating downs over which, from an elevation, the eye can range forty or fifty miles without a check, and the whole sheeted with grass or nutritious herbs; such is the general description of the interior. Belts of timber fringe the watercourses, and there are in places extensive scrubs comprised mainly of short gnarled trees with no entangling creepers or vines, but often filled with saline shrubs or plants which are eaten greedily by the stock. The watercourses are mere channels connecting pools of greater or less magnitude; there are very few springs, and no running water, and the whole unite to form one or two main channels leading into the huge shallow lakes of S.A. The scarcity of surface water is the main defect of the country, but is easily remedied by the construction of dams and reservoirs, for which the formation of the water channels is generally suitable. The air is pure and exceedingly dry, there is seldom any dew at night, and the rainfall is scanty and irregular. Naturally under these climatic conditions the temperature is variable and apt to be in extremes. The sun's heat in the daytime is very great, but by no means so oppressive as the thermometer readings would lead one to suppose, for the air is always elastic and the fresh breeze that plays incessantly over the downs and plains is singularly invigorating. When the sun sets the temperature falls rapidly, and it is rarely that the bushman is inclined to dispense with his blanket even in the midst of summer. In winter the cold is severe, and four, five and six degrees of frost during the night or early morning are not uncommon. It is a decidedly healthy climate, and Europeans preserve their vigour undiminished through a great deal of hardship. For persons having a tendency to phthisis the interior is one of the best climates in the world—its dry, pure, invigorating atmosphere is a more efficacious remedy for this disease than any medicine in the pharmacopœia. It is essentially a pastoral country, and peculiarly suited for rearing merino sheep. At present it is mainly occupied by cattle, but the fact is due to its recent occupation, as pioneers prefer this description of stock

when pushing out into the wilderness. However in all directions the squatters are preparing their runs for sheep, and it is probable that in a few years the wool production of these districts will be very considerable. Already Queenslanders are apt to speak of this territory as their Riverina, but a Riverina on a gigantic scale. It is, however, doubtful whether it can be used for any but pastoral purposes, as the dry climate seems to preclude the possibility of growing anything but wheat, and perhaps in places grapes and deep rooting fruit trees. Nor does it seem to possess any great store of minerals. Indications of coal have been seen in some places, and at one locality a number of very beautiful opals have been found. (8) The Burke District is hardly yet thoroughly explored, although 31,542 square miles of available and 7315 square miles of unavailable country are at present held under pastoral lease. This however is only a portion of the area included within its boundaries. The southern part of the district resembles, in its general character, the interior; but as the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria are approached its appearance changes, and it becomes more thoroughly tropical. The northern part of the district is well watered by numerous rivers falling into the Gulf, and on one of these the small town of Normanton is built. When the project of a trans-continental railway is carried out there will, of course, be a large commercial town formed on the Gulf. At present the population of the country is scanty, and is only partly occupied even by pastoral settlers. For pastoral purposes the greater part of the Burke is very good. It is mainly cattle country, although sheep have been put on runs near its southern boundary. It is rich in minerals, the Dividing Range and spurs leading from it showing indications of gold and other metals in many places. One remarkable deposit of virgin copper and rich ores of the same metal was discovered many years ago near the upper part of the Cloncurry River, but its great distance from port and the absence of roads have up to the present time prevented its utilization. For the same reason there has been little regular exploration for metals, which could not in such a remote country, be profitably worked. Enough however has been discovered to make it certain that the Burke district possesses a good deal of mineral wealth in addition to its excellent pastoral country.

CLIMATE.—In addition to the remarks made on the climate of the several districts of Q., the following general observations are quoted from Wallace:—"As Q. extends only five degrees beyond the tropic, it of course possesses a more uniformly hot climate than the more southern settlements wholly in the temperate zone. It may however be doubted whether the heat is so oppressive as farther south, since Q. is almost wholly free from the exceptional hot winds from which the other colonies suffer; while their sudden and extreme changes of temperature are equally unknown here.

During a large part of the year the weather is fine, the sky cloudless, the atmosphere dry and exhilarating. The three summer months—December, January and February—are hot, and as much rain falls at this time tropical moisture and heat are combined. In all the coast districts the rainfall is great, being about 50 inches at Brisbane and Rockhampton, while at Rockingham Bay it is 90 inches. Inland it decreases rapidly. At Gympie, about 30 miles from the coast, it is 44 inches; at Nebo, 70 miles, 21 inches; while at Springsure, 160 miles inland, it is only 17 inches. At greater distances inland it is much less and altogether uncertain; the Alice Downs, on the Thompson and Barcoo rivers, having about 10 inches, with excessive evaporation. The north coast has the regular tropical monsoons, giving about seven months dry and five months wet weather. The mean temperature at Brisbane is 69° Fahr., and the changes of the thermometer are far less extreme than at Sydney or Melbourne, while cool southerly breezes prevail throughout the year, so that the heat is rarely felt to be oppressive. Over by far the larger part of the colony frost and ice are unknown, while at Brisbane the winter is a most delightful season, with cool mornings and evenings, bright and warm days, the sky always blue, and the air wonderfully transparent. This colony is almost entirely free from epidemic diseases, and is very favourable to the European constitution, especially to those with a tendency to consumption. Although most of the mining districts are well within the tropics, the dryness and purity of the air are such that Europeans pursue the laborious occupation of gold-mining as easily as in other parts of A."

NATURAL HISTORY.—"The natural products of Q. differ chiefly from those of N.S.W. by the presence of a number of tropical forms, which everywhere intermingle with the usual Australian types. Thus in the vegetation of A. we first meet with the screw-pines at Moreton Island, in latitude 27° S., and Araucarias at Port Bowen, just within the tropic. The sea-coasts are chiefly tenanted by an Indian vegetation, including mangroves and pandani. Farther inland we have many Indian genera of leafy trees, very different from the usual Australian type. This is hence called the 'brush-wood' or 'cedar' country, and it also contains numerous Malayan forms, especially palms of the genera *Cycas*, *Areca*, *Caryota* and *Calamus*. Bamboos and epiphytic orchids are however rare, and everywhere *Eucalypti*, *Acacie* and other specially Australian forms make up the bulk of the vegetation. Farther inland, over the elevated sandstone plains, is found a peculiar vegetation of small trees and shrubs and the curious bottle-trees with swollen trunks. It is very singular that in tropical A. the number of genera and species of plants is much less than in the temperate parts of the continent. Only about 2200 tropical species are known, and Sir Joseph Hooker thinks that the total number will not exceed 3000. The known

species are therefore hardly more than a third of the numbers found in temperate A. It is to be noted too that about 500 species are quite identical with those of India and Malaya. Another peculiar feature of the tropical Australian flora is that several important families, abundant in the *tropics* of other parts of the world and also found in *temperate A.*, are either scarce or altogether absent. In the animal world there is no such striking difference. There are no peculiarly tropical forms of mammals in A., except a *Cuscus* allied to those found in the Moluccas and New Guinea, and a sea-cow allied to that of India. In birds however several forms allied to the Paradise birds of New Guinea occur near the northern coasts. In insects, too, there is a great change in the numbers, size, and colour of the butterflies. The golden-green bird-winged butterfly is found all through Q., and even as far south as Richmond River in N.S.W.; but its small size, in comparison with its Papuan relatives, betrays the inferiority in climate and vegetation; and on the whole, the butterflies of Northern Australia are far inferior in variety and beauty to those of the Moluccas and New Guinea. In beetles Australia is very rich, and differs greatly from the Austro-Malayan fauna; and this difference appears to pervade the tropical as well as the temperate regions. The Australian weevils abound in large and peculiar forms, while the allied Anthribidæ, which abound in Austro-Malaya, are almost unknown even in the most tropical parts of Australia."—Wallace.

GEOLOGY.—"The geology of Q. has been tolerably explored by travellers and colonial geologists. The eastern and northern portions consist of ancient formations, producing coal, gold, granite, slate, and basalt; while the western interior is largely covered with the Tertiary desert sandstone, alike unproductive of minerals and deficient in water and vegetation. The ranges next the coast are granitic, those farther inland of Palæozoic rocks, and it is in the intervening country that the coal formations are developed. Granite extends with little interruption from Cape York in the extreme north to Broad Sound in lat. 22° S., with patches farther south. It rises to 2500 feet high on Hinchinbrook Island in lat. 18½° S. At the Ravenswood gold-field (200 miles west of Repulse Bay, in the upper valley of the Burdekin River) the formation is described as syenitic granite. Mr. Daintree estimates that one-sixth of the area of the colony is granitic. Metamorphic rocks occur near Brisbane, and at the gold-mines to the north. Palæozoic rocks are very extensive. The carboniferous cover 14,000 square miles and the Devonian 40,000, the latter extending 200 miles inland between lat. 18° and 29°. They are found at the Gympie goldfields on the Mary River, and are of immense thickness from the Burdekin to the Gilbert rivers. The Mesozoic formations are better developed in Q. than in any other part of Australia. In the southern part of the colony there is an Oolitic

coalfield, with fresh water and estuarine deposits. Rocks of similar age occur on the Barcoo and Thomson rivers far in the interior; while in the west and north-west are vast cretaceous beds, believed to extend over an area of 200,000 miles, or one-third of the entire colony. Both deposits contain numerous marine shells of the same genera as occur in the Oolitic and chalk formation of Britain. We have here a probable explanation of the curious fact of the poverty and want of specialty in the tropical fauna and flora of Australia; for if so much of the tropics was beneath the sea during the cretaceous period, there may have been no room for special tropical forms to be developed; and when the area in question became dry land it was at once overrun by such of the specialised temperate forms as were suited to it, and by a number of waifs and strays from the tropical lands to the north, thus producing that intermixture of types and want of special character which are now its most prominent features. The coal formations of Q. are very extensive and of great prospective value, some of the coal having been proved to be of good quality. It consists of Paleozoic or true coal, found in the central parts of the colony about the Mackenzie and Dawson rivers; while farther south, near Brisbane, and on the Upper Darling, there are almost equally extensive and valuable deposits of Mesozoic age. Volcanic rocks abound, covering more than 30,000 square miles, and forming open basaltic downs, dome-shaped hills, peaks, or tabular ranges, with precipitous ravines and prismatic columns. True volcanic cones also abound in the Dividing Range, extending as far north as the York Peninsula. Well-defined craters and ancient lava-streams are often found, especially about lat. 20° near the Burdekin River. Signs of very recent volcanic action are to be seen in the Murray Isles off Cape York. Tertiary formations cover about one-fourth of the colony, consisting of conglomerates and desert sandstone. The latter often renders a country uninhabitable, the loose surface being blown or washed into parallel ridges, sometimes forming hilly undulations, at others furrow-like ripples, and almost wholly barren. This sandstone is usually conformable to the cretaceous rocks beneath. When ferruginous it forms the singular flat-topped hills of Central Australia, and near the Cloncurry River in the north reaches 3000 feet above the sea. These sandstone hills are often very picturesque, and have been compared by the explorers to ruined castles or the wild pictures of Salvator Rosa. Gorges and precipitous escarpments abound, with vertical walls 600 or 1000 feet deep, and occasionally even 1800 feet, according to Leichhardt's estimate. The Great Barrier Reef of Australia belongs entirely to Q., and is one of the most remarkable geological and geographical phenomena in the world. It is 1200 miles in length, and extends along the whole eastern coast from opposite Port Bowen in lat. 23° to Torres

Straits. Near its southern end it is seventy miles wide, and nearly 100 miles from the coast; but it is generally of much less width, and the channel between it and the shore from five to fifteen miles wide. The navigation is dangerous for ships owing to the numerous sunken reefs. Here and there are openings to the ocean, some very narrow, some ten or twelve miles wide; and it contains examples of all the various kinds of reefs—atolls, fringing reefs and other coral formations. The portion of the reef above water with its numerous islands is estimated to cover an area of 30,000 square miles. Its outer margin probably indicates the position of the ancient coast-line of Australia. This was fringed with coral reefs; but as the land sank the coral animals continued to build upwards to the level of the sea, and thus a great ridge was formed, which broken and heaped up by the waves of the Pacific forms the present huge barrier. Fresh water is very inimical to coral, and openings are thus formed in all fringing reefs at the mouths of rivers. These openings remain in the Barrier Reef, the largest being opposite the mouth of the Burdekin River, which drains a considerable portion of tropical Eastern Australia."—*Wallace*.

POPULATION.—Owing to its fine climate and the mixture of mining adventure with the culture of tropical products, Q. has attracted to itself a more varied population than most of the other colonies; and this may be said to consist of four distinct races—the White, the Yellow, the Brown and the Black. The White, or Europeans and Americans, are by far the most numerous, forming about nine-tenths of the whole; then come the Yellow, or Chinese and Japanese, about two-thirds of the remainder; the Brown or Polynesian labourers (most of whom are, however, Melanesians, and nearly black,) forming the other third. This is exclusive of the Black, or aboriginal Australians, whose numbers are unknown, but which are probably more numerous than the Chinese and Polynesians combined. The rate of increase has been very rapid. Soon after the formation of the colony in 1860 the population was 28,056; in 1876 it had reached 173,283. Of these about 16,000 were of various non-European races. Of the 157,000 Europeans about 71,000 were native-born Australians, 70,500 British, 900 Americans, 10,000 Germans, and 4000 of other European nationalities. The estimated population on 31st December 1879 was 217,851, of whom 130,867 were males, and 86,984 females. Unfortunately the difference in the numbers of the two sexes still continues very great. The Chinese may be said to be all males; the Polynesians nearly all; and even among the population of European race there is a surplus of 21,000 males. In 1879 there were 7870 births to 3207 deaths, while the increase due to emigration was 13,828.

AGRICULTURE AND STOCK.—Agriculture has not as yet made progress commensurate with the wide possibilities of soil and climate. In other new countries a large proportion of settlers have

attached themselves to the soil because it offered the surest and most certain hope of a home and pecuniary independence. In Q. so many chances have been offered to the adventurous of reaching fortune by a shorter cut than the slow track opened by the plough, that the fertility of the soil has not received its due attention. Chief among these for men of means has been the pastoral industry. The whole colony is one great pasture-ground, its capabilities varying according to the climate. Cattle can be kept in every part of it. In the southern coast districts the grass is not so rich in nutritive properties as in the interior; but on the other hand, the more frequent showers cause it to spring oftener, and grow more thickly. On some of the black-soil basaltic plateaux of tropical Q. the cattle are almost hidden in the tall, thick-springing, sweet grasses. For sheep only a portion of the colony is suitable, equal in area to about 300,000 square miles of good country. The sheep country is on the interior high lands; but it is impossible to define exactly the division between it and that which is only suitable for cattle. The true sheep districts include the North and South Gregory, Mitchell, Warrego, Maranoa, Leichhardt, Darling Downs, South Kennedy and part of the Burnett, besides portions of other districts. In the divisions named the amount of country held under pastoral lease at the close of 1878, according to the report of the Under-Secretary of Lands, was—available 235,280 square miles; unavailable 83,624 square miles. Much country taken up as “unavailable”—*i.e.* unfitted for pasturage, and therefore subject to a reduction of rent—proves on official examination to be very good indeed. It is at least certain that the good sheep country largely exceeds in extent the whole Colony of N.S.W., and most of it is of a quality not to be surpassed in A. Nearly the whole of it is occupied up to the border line of the S.A. territory. Except in tropical Q., and more especially in the huge Burke district, which includes the watershed of most of the rivers falling into the Gulf of Carpentaria, there is not very much good country not already included in the existing pastoral leases. The cattle stock of the colony is proportionately very much larger than that of sheep: official reports giving the number of the former at 2,469,555 in 1878, and of the latter 5,796,742 at the close of 1879. The disproportion is due to several causes. Of these the simplest is the fact that while the whole colony is suitable for cattle-breeding, only a portion is fitted for sheep. But a good deal of the sheep country has been occupied with cattle. Its occupation has been quite recent, and cattle are preferred by pioneers for many reasons: they are more easily managed, fewer hands are required—a great consideration when land-carriage is long and costly—and less expensive improvements are needed. Consequently during the year that the great movement for the occupation of western country was in progress, there was a constant

demand for store cattle. This constant demand increased the prices, and stimulated production. Much of the capital and energy available for pastoral enterprise was therefore diverted from sheep to cattle during the last decade. This diversion was the more marked because during the preceding ten years a great many mistakes had been made in sheep-breeding. Unsuitable country had been stocked with sheep, and the proper attention to breeding and appliances for getting up wool in good marketable condition had been neglected. The financial difficulties of 1866, followed by some bad seasons, came with disastrous effect on an industry which had not been firmly established on a sound basis, and brought about something like a collapse, followed by a regular rush into cattle-breeding. But this branch of the pastoral industry has quite recovered itself, and sheep are increasing in numbers. The pitfalls into which the early breeders fell are well known and marked now, and capitalists, both in the colony and from other parts of Australia, are preparing to stock with sheep great tracts of suitable country, on which they are storing water and making other provisions for their maintenance. The agricultural returns for the year ending 31st March 1880 were:—Total extent of land under cultivation during the year 106,864 acres; total extent of land under crop 101,052 acres. Wheat 3607 acres, produce 29,259 bushels; for hay 1197 acres, produce 1774 tons; oats for grain 175 acres, produce 4330 bushels; for hay 4430 acres, produce 8180 tons; for green food for cattle 624 acres; barley 1789 acres, produce 44,160 bushels; for hay 242 acres, produce 374 tons; for green food for cattle 488 acres; maize 48,365 acres, produce 1,511,006 bushels; for green food for cattle 554 acres; rye, bere, millet 259 acres; potatoes 4760 acres, produce 14,404 tons; cotton 105 acres, produce 30,423 lbs. of ginned cotton; sugar-cane, total area under crop 17,652 acres; area crushed (included in crops) 12,029 acres, produce 18,714 tons of sugar made; Arrowroot 132 acres, produce 258,057 lbs. made; tobacco 35 acres, produce 284 cwt. of dried leaf; sorghum, for green food for cattle 197 acres; sown grasses, lucerne, rye-grass, &c., for hay 5776 acres, produce 12,526 tons; for green food for cattle 5919 acres; vines for wine-making 399 acres, produce 104,674 gallons of wine made; for table use 205 acres, produce 480,230 lbs. of grapes; unproductive 138 $\frac{3}{4}$ acres; bananas 443 acres, produce 297,443 dozen; pine-apples 180 acres, produce 55,877 dozen; oranges 219 acres, produce 92,140 dozen; other crops 787 acres; garden and orchard 2370 acres; land in fallow 5812 acres. The return of live stock for the year was:—Horses, including foals, 163,083; cattle, including calves, 2,800,633; sheep, including lambs, 6,065,034; pigs 64,686. The area selected as homesteads and conditional purchases during the year 1879 amounted to 278,609 acres. Of this area 67,723 acres were comprised in homesteads and 210,886 acres in conditional purchases. There are

still open for general selection 23,130,774 acres and 1,798,118 acres for homestead areas. The gross area held under conditional purchase and homestead selection on 31st December 1879 amounted to 3,720,000 acres. The area of land sold at auction during 1879 was 12,617 acres, the amount realised being £23,195 10s. 4d. The statistics of the sugar industry for the season 1879-80 were—sugar manufactured 18,714 tons; molasses produced 641,486 gallons; rum distilled 238,710 gallons; sugar exported 12,001 tons; rum exported 92,629 gallons; 70 sugar mills and 9 distilleries.

MINERAL RESOURCES.—The first important discovery of gold was made at Canoona, about thirty-five miles from Rockhampton. In the year 1867 the Government offered rewards varying from £200 to £1000 for the discovery of new and paying goldfields. This led to the discovery early in the year of several goldfields, and in September of Gympie, where a nugget weighing nearly 100 lbs. and valued at £4000 was found near the surface. The gold-bearing quartz at Gympie is very rich, and numerous claims are being profitably worked. There are at present upwards of twenty goldfields in the colony, comprising the Palmer, Etheridge, Gilbert, Cape River, Charters Towers, Ravenswood, Normanby, Marengo and Mount Wyatt, Mulgrave, and Barron Rivers, Cloncurry and the Hodgkinson. The last-named was discovered by Mulligan and Warner towards the end of 1875, and has proved to be of superior reefing qualities. The last report of the Department of Mines stated that there are 1453 distinct lines of reefs "proved" on the various goldfields, and these include an area of auriferous ground amounting to 14,878 square miles. The returns given by the crushing mills amounted to a total for the year of 110,032 tons of stone, yielding 165,786 oz. of gold, or an average all round of 1 oz. 10 dwt. 3 gr. The lowest average return for each miner working on any field was 29 oz. 8 dwt. 23 gr. of gold, worth £97 3s. 7d.; and the highest was 68 oz. 7 dwt. 8 gr., worth £239 5s. 9d. The appliances on some of the outside fields are very rough and wasteful, and in the year for which the figures are quoted (1878) the miners were hindered by a severe drought. In quartz-mining the poorest miner can ensure not only good wages (reaching in the N. £3 10s. and £4 a week,) but can take a chance in the golden lottery, often drawing sudden wealth as a prize. Copper, tin and coal are the other chief mineral products of Q., so far as is at present known. The former is found in various parts, but the richest mines are at Claremont, Mount Perry and Cloncurry. Antimony is found at Tiaro. In 1878 three mines only were at work, the product being 7405 tons of ore, value £23,030, and 642 tons of smelted copper, value £35,810. Tin kept three mines at work, the yield being 1178 tons of ore, valued at £35,340. Iron has also been found in various parts, and a bonus of £5000 has been offered for the production of the first 500 tons of good marketable iron from ores raised and smelted in Q. Since 1872 tin has been found

in almost exhaustless quantities. It was first discovered at Stanthorpe, afterwards at several places on the border, and extensive deposits have also been laid bare on the Palmer and other northern goldfields. During 1880 extensive deposits were found not far from Gladstone, and still larger at the Wild River in the N. Coal is extensively diffused throughout the colony, and has yet to take its place among its leading products. It is found on the banks of the Brisbane and Bremer rivers, and in other parts of the West Moreton district, on the Darling Downs, at Burrum near Maryborough, at Bowen, at Cooktown, and other places in the N. As yet comparatively surface coal only has been got out, but the deposits at greater depths are believed to be a true coal of much better quality. It is estimated that the coal beds underlie a surface of nearly 24,000 square miles. During 1878 ten mines were at work, producing 52,580 tons, valued at £21,272. The stone quarried and raised during 1878 was:—blue stone 54,000 tons valued at £11,000, from three quarries at Ipswich, Toowoomba and Rockhampton; sandstone 2958 tons, value £2958, from four quarries at Gatton and Toowoomba; freestone 5149 tons, value £2658, from nine quarries, one at Brisbane, one at Goodna and seven at Warwick; felstone porphyry, 11,870 tons valued at £3916, from four quarries in the Brisbane district; limestone 1280 tons of the value of £318.

PEARL FISHERY.—In the extreme north considerable attention is paid to the pearl fishery. A large number of schooners are engaged in the trade; the work is carried on partly by the employment of the aboriginals as divers (South Sea Islanders, Malays, and a few Lascars and Chinese assisting,) and partly by improved diving apparatus. The localities of the pearl fisheries are Wai Weer, Albany Island, Jervis Island, Somerset, Goode Island, Endeavour Strait, Friday Island, Prince of Wales Island, Possession Island, and Thursday Island. The bêche-de-mer fishery is carried on at the Barrier Reef, Murray Island and Darnley Island. The dugong fishery has for years been carried on; the oil extracted is said to have medicinal virtues not far below those of cod-liver oil. The collection of the bêche-de-mer, a kind of sea-slug used in Chinese cookery, employs a large number of hands, and is a profitable source of revenue. The produce of the fisheries was: pearl shell (live) 418 tons 18 cwt.; pearl shell (dead) 3 tons 14 cwt.; bêche-de-mer 50 tons 16 cwt. 1 qr. 10 lbs. Live shell is valued at £130 per ton; bêche-de-mer at from £40 to £90 according to the quality.

RAILWAYS AND TELEGRAPHS.—There were 428 miles of railway open for traffic in the colony in 1878, and 5718 miles of telegraph line. In 1878 the total length of railway open was increased by 110 miles, and the lines are being rapidly pushed forward. The whole system of roads in the colony has been placed under the charge of local bodies, who have the power of rating property-owners,

and receive grants from the general revenue in the proportion of two pounds for one raised by assessment. The estimated value of rateable property in corporate towns is given in the official statistics for 1878 at £5,124,352.

IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1879 the exports amounted in value to £3,434,034; the imports to £3,080,889. The principal exports in name and value were:—Tin ore, 50,264 cwts.; value, £96,448; smelted tin, 6570 cwts., value, £23,868; tin slag, 35 tons, value, £35; copper ore, 560 cwts., value, £900; copper smelted, 9994 cwts., value, £32,641; cotton, £664; gold, £1,023,237; rum, £9814; sugar, £275,769; wool, £1,238,518; tallow, £72,366; hides, £50,690; preserved meats, £22,391; skins, £20,566; maize, £14,777; green fruit, £3,736; shell fish (oysters), £2729; arrow-root, £2802. The imports comprise every description of manufactured goods, the bulk coming from Great Britain. A large trade in American manufactures, particularly agricultural implements, tools, and articles for domestic use has lately sprung up. Among the exports the pearl shells from the Strait fisheries, and cedar from the Northern district, form no inconsiderable items. The shipping entered inwards included 1261 vessels of all nationalities, with an aggregate tonnage of 637,695; the clearances were 1251 vessels, with an aggregate tonnage of 618,699. There were registered 28 ocean steamers of 14,077 tonnage; and 38 river steamers, with 1314 tonnage.

MILLS AND MANUFACTORIES.—There are seven steam-mills, two water-mills, sixty-eight sugar-mills, thirty-eight steam saw-mills, sixteen soap works, twelve distilleries, five tobacco and cigar manufactories, twenty-three tanneries, nine arrow-root manufactories, two steam biscuit manufactories, one salt works, twenty-two agricultural implement manufactories, six fellmongeries, nine breweries, fifty-seven cordial manufactories, sixty-four brick-yards, thirteen lime-kilns, seven potteries, twenty-two iron and tin works, fifteen foundries, thirty-eight coach manufactories, ten cooperages, fifty printing establishments, three ice works, seven ship and boat-building yards, four smelting works, and numerous other works, for the manufacture of articles of general requirement. At Ipswich an extensive tweed factory has for some little time been in operation.

REVENUE.—The revenue for the year ending 30th June 1880 was £1,483,090 13s. 1d., being an increase on the previous year of £20,955 9s. 1d., or if the balance of Railway Reserve Fund (£129,821 1s. 4d.,) transferred to revenue be included, an increase of £150,776 10s. 5d. The expenditure for the year was £1,673,695 5s. 2d. The estimated revenue for the financial year 1880-1 is £1,722,500, and the estimated expenditure £1,689,982. The public debt is £10,192,086, and the annual interest £476,851; to this will have to be added the loan floated in 1880.

SAVINGS BANKS, &c.—On 31st December 1879 there were eighty-one branches of the Government

Savings Banks in operation, the amount to the credit of 15,922 depositors being £684,444 6s. There are also numerous friendly and benefit societies in operation.

EDUCATION.—The system of education in Queensland has, since January 1876, when the new Education Act came into operation, been placed under a special department called the Department of Public Instruction, under the control of the Minister for Education. Education is free and secular, the children finding the duplicate text books and slates for home use, copy books and exercise books, and such minor requisites as pens and pencils. Under certain conditions religious instruction may be given to the children out of school hours by ministers or others (of this provision very little use is made.) The primary schools are of three kinds—State-schools maintained wholly at the public expense; provisional schools only partially maintained by the public funds, and non-vested schools. The State also assists the formation and maintenance of educational establishments of a more advanced character than the primary schools. Upon the inhabitants of any district raising by subscription a sum of £1000 for the purpose of establishing a grammar school in that district the Government supplements it by double the amount for the erection of the necessary buildings; and if the sum of £250 per annum be guaranteed for three years as school fees by responsible parties the Government gives £500 per annum for the salaries of masters and current expenses. Brisbane, Ipswich and Toowoomba have availed themselves of this grant, and Maryborough and Rockhampton are about doing so. The pupils from the Brisbane Grammar School have greatly distinguished themselves in the competitive examinations for University honours. Scholarships entitling the holders to three years' instruction in any one of the grammar schools are annually competed for by children attending the primary schools. In December 1879 sixty scholarships, fifty for boys and ten for girls, were offered by competitive examination; and 121 candidates presented themselves—96 boys and 25 girls, of whom 24 boys and 8 girls were successful. A girls' grammar school has been established in Brisbane, and is well attended. On 31st December 1878 there were in all 314 primary schools in operation, 210 State or vested schools, 82 provisional schools and 21 non-vested schools. All of the latter save one are in connection with the Church of Rome. The number of teachers employed was 478 males and 446 females; of these 312 were classified, 230 unclassified, and 382 were pupil-teachers. The number of children on the roll during the year was 41,380. The average daily attendance was 21,418. The gross expenditure on primary education during the year was £101,253 14s. 5d., or exclusive of proportionate share of departmental expenditure chargeable to non-vested schools, £100,441 6s. 2d.; the average cost of the education of each child, on the

basis of annual enrolment, was £2 15s. 7½d. The value of the school buildings exclusive of the sites was estimated at £142,170. The private schools numbered 65, with an aggregate attendance of 848 boys and 1569 girls. In the three grammar schools there were 25 teachers, 312 day pupils and 78 boarders. Inclusive of Government aid the total receipts of these institutions were £12,815 7s. 2d., the expenditure being £8882 18s. 9d. There are 27 schools of art, two free libraries and two miners' institutes, having an aggregate of 3684 subscribers at rates averaging £1 per annum, and 41,282 books in the libraries.

RELIGION.—There is no State Church in Q. The voluntary system has prevailed since 1860, in which year an act was passed abolishing State aid to religion. Those ministers who at the time this act was passed were receiving stipends annually from the public treasury continue to receive them so long as they officiate in the colony. The only connection between Church and State is in the annual registration of ministers of religion to enable them to legally celebrate marriages. The voluntary system has hitherto worked satisfactorily, the members of the various denominations as a rule subscribing liberally to the funds for providing salaries for the ministers and church accommodation. In the towns ample means exist for public worship for all denominations. Nearly all the leading religious denominations are represented in the population.

BANKING.—On 30th June 1880 six banking companies were in business, having seventy-eight branches or agencies throughout the colony. Of these one only, the Queensland National Bank, is a local institution. This corporation does now the Government banking business. Their total assets were £5,386,446 7s. 4d., the liabilities being £3,934,816 9s. 2d. The paid-up capital of these companies amounted to £5,200,570; the aggregate of the last dividend to £401,903 10s. The lowest dividend was that of the Queensland National Bank, which was 10 per cent.; the highest was that of the Commercial Bank, which was 25 per cent. The average dividend was 15½ per cent. The deposits not bearing interest amounted to £1,146,359 3s. 6d.; the deposits bearing interest to £2,324,021 7s. 3d. The note circulation amounted to £315,174 0s. 10d. In addition to the dividends declared and paid, the aggregate amount reserved for contingencies was £2,725,388 14s. 10d.

CONSTITUTION.—The form of Government is vested in a Governor (the Queen's representative,) an Executive Council, and a Parliament of two Houses, the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. The Council consists of thirty members, nominated by the Crown for life, presided over by a President elected by themselves. The House of Assembly comprises fifty-five members, elected for five years, representing forty-two electorates. The number of registered electors is 35,197. To exercise the franchise a person must be of the age of twenty-one years; he must also

possess a freehold worth £100, or pay rent for a house or land of not less than £10 per annum, or hold a pastoral license from the Crown, or be in receipt of £100 per annum as a salary, or pay £40 per annum for board and lodging, or £10 for lodging alone. He must also be a natural-born or naturalised subject of the Queen, and have resided in the colony six months before voting. Persons having property, either leasehold or freehold, or a license to depasture land in any electoral district in which they do not reside, have the right of a vote in any district in which such property is situated as well as in the district for which they claim as residents. The administration of justice is carried on by a Supreme Court, composed of a Chief Justice and three puisne Judges, and by District Courts, each presided over by one of three Judges.

HISTORY.—I. *First Discoveries.*—Q. was originally the Moreton Bay District of N.S.W. The bay was discovered by Cook in 1770 and named after the Earl of Moreton. It is supposed that this portion of the continent was visited by Dutch and Portuguese navigators in the early part of the seventeenth century: but there are no accounts available of these voyages, if they ever were made. The history of the settlement begins with Cook's visit. The great navigator made only a cursory survey of the north-eastern coast, naming the several conspicuous features as he sailed along. His journal contains little or no information respecting the character or capabilities of the territory, and is therefore only interesting from a maritime point of view.

II. *Flinders' Expedition.*—In August 1799 Governor Hunter, being an enthusiast in the prosecution of maritime discovery, despatched Flinders from Sydney in the *Norfolk*, a small colonial vessel, to examine Moreton Bay, and also another opening considerably to the northward which Cook had also indicated on the chart and named Hervey's Bay, leaving it uncertain whether either afforded any navigable inlet into the interior. The period allotted to the voyage was six weeks, and Flinders was directed, if he had sufficient time to spare for the purpose, to enter and examine the river Hunter, and observe the coal country there, as well as the general character of the adjacent territory. The vessel was manned with volunteers from the King's ships in port, and the commander was accompanied by Bongaree, an aboriginal from Broken Bay, who had become noted for his ingenuous disposition and manly conduct. To guard against accidents provisions for eleven weeks were put on board. Sailing out of Port Jackson on the 8th August, on the third day after the voyagers found that their ship had unfortunately sprung a leak which admitted as much water as one pump constantly going could keep under. Next day the vessel was opposite a bay which it was resolved to enter, with the two-fold object of examining the place and of stopping the leak. Casting anchor, Flinders and a party

of the crew landed. The first object which met their view were three huts of the Aborigines, superior in construction to those hitherto seen. They were circular in form and about eight feet in diameter. The frame was composed of the stronger tendrils of vine, crossing each other in all directions, and bound together by strong grass. The covering was of bark of a soft texture, so compactly laid on as to keep out the wind and rain. The entrance was by a small avenue, not leading directly into the hut, but turning sufficiently to prevent the rain beating in. The height of the hut inside was about five feet, and the interior of the roof was covered with a coating of soot. One was a double hut, comprising two recesses under one entrance, and was large enough for twelve or fifteen persons. A small basket made of some kind of leaf, and capable of containing five or six pints of water, was found in one of the huts. The leak having been temporarily repaired, the voyage was resumed, and on the 10th the voyagers passed Moreton Bay. They now sailed close to the shore, and observed numerous aboriginals as they proceeded. The blacks made many antic gestures towards the vessel. One would wave to and fro a green branch—among those untutored savages, as well as among civilised people, the symbol of peace; while others would from time to time run into the water and beat the surf with their sticks, as though they would chasten the rolling waves into making a passage for the boat, which they appeared to hope would visit the shore. Sailing along the shore in the day and anchoring at night, on the morning of the 16th the vessel was brought to anchor at the head of Glass-House Bay. Flinders proceeded in a boat towards the shore, accompanied by Bongaree. As they neared the shore several aborigines, each having a fishing-net over his shoulder, came down to the beach. After a parley of some duration, Bongaree jumped ashore unarmed, as the others seemed to be. He quickly made an exchange of the yarn belt from his waist for a fillet made of kangaroo hair. Flinders soon joined his black companion, taking his gun with him. Making friendly signs, laying down his gun, and offering a woollen cap as a present, he was suffered to approach. One of the blacks took the cap, but on Flinders making signs that he intended to get a net in return, the black indicated that he must also have the cabbage-tree hat which the former wore; and the aborigines becoming importunate, Flinders and Bongaree now retreated slowly towards the boat, the blacks pressing closely behind. When the Europeans pushed off from the shore the blacks evinced great displeasure, and tried to persuade their visitors to land again. Failing in this one of them threw a piece of wood at the boat, but the missile fell short, and the matter was treated as a joke, the blacks laughing heartily. Another running up to his middle in the water threw a spear. The dart passed over the centre of the boat a little above the gunwale,

but luckily did no injury. Flinders now rightly judging that further forbearance would be improper snapped his gun at the thrower of the spear, but it missed fire. Another attempt to wound or frighten the more forward of the assailants proved successful, the contents of the gun which was loaded with buckshot, striking the man in the water on the back. The merriment, if indeed mirth longer prevailed, was now transferred from the aborigines to the Europeans, for no sooner had the former heard the report of the gun, to them apparently a new sound, than every man fell flat where he stood. Recovering from their surprise, they rose up, however, almost instantaneously, and proceeded to scramble behind a bank, some crawling on their hands and feet, others running in a stooping attitude, and all presenting a ludicrous spectacle. One of the men in the boat now fired among the group, when they all fell a second time on their faces; but getting up immediately, they fled into the woods beyond the reach of further injury or fright. The man in the water also rose up after the second shot and made off; but his progress was much slower than that of the others, and he stooped considerably, evidently from the effects of his wound, and carried one hand behind him on his back. As he went he frequently looked over his shoulder as if expecting to see the weapon which inflicted his wound standing out like the shaft of a spear. As the bay was to be examined, and the leak which the vessel had sprung was to be more completely repaired in this place, the lesson which the blacks had received on this occasion was not to be regretted, inasmuch as it was likely to have a salutary effect in preventing future hostility. From this place, which was named Point Skirmish, the voyagers proceeded up an opening, which proved to be a river leading to the peaks resembling glass-houses, which gave its name to the bay. In exploring the surrounding country they met with some clusters of huts, which showed that the aborigines hereabout paid considerable regard to comfort. They were shaped like an arch, rounded at the end opposite the opening, and were about fifteen feet long. In one of the houses was found a net or seine, about fourteen fathoms in length, the meshes of which were much larger than those of any English seine, and the twine much stronger. To each end was affixed a pointed stick. Upon a shoal near the house there was more than one enclosure of a semi-circular form, and the sticks and branches of which it was made were set and interwoven so that a fish could not pass between. It was conjectured that the seine was employed in connection with those enclosures. While passing through a group of islands, the voyagers were thrown into some alarm by the appearance of a party of the aborigines in what appeared to be an aggressive attitude. About twenty blacks were counted, who seemed to be standing in their canoes and pulling toward the vessel with all their strength, and in

very regular order. Each seemed to hold a long spear in his hands, which also appeared to be used in paddling; the whole number shifting their hands and striking the water at the same instant. As they seemed to be coming on with great resolution, the people on board prepared to encounter an attack of a formidable character. The sloop was put under easy sail, the decks cleared of every incumbrance, and each man was provided with a musket and pistol. Thus prepared the vessel bore towards the apparently hostile force, but great was the surprise and satisfaction of the Europeans to find that instead of advancing in canoes to attack them the blacks were standing on a large flat that surrounded one of the islands and were engaged in the peaceable work of driving fish into their nets. They were ranged in a line splashing in the water with long sticks first on one side and then on the other. Instead of twenty canoes they had but two among them, and so far were they from evincing a warlike or hostile spirit, that they sank their frail bark on the approach of the vessel, and retreated to the shore, where they kindled a fire to cook the meal which they were previously engaged in providing. Proceeding into the river the sloop was laid ashore and the leak, which was found to have been occasioned by the starting of a plank, was permanently repaired. The depth of the water in the deepest part of the river was from four to six fathoms; but the channel was narrow. Large quantities of pumice-stone were found lying on the shores, and the stream was named the Pumice-stone River. The country was for the most part low and swampy; and beside the trees usually met with, a quantity of pine and some cedar grew in the vicinity of the river and the bay. Numbers of the natives were met with, whose conciliatory and timid demeanour seemed to show that they had heard of the punishment inflicted on their countrymen at the mouth of the river. They constantly invited the Europeans ashore by calls and signs, frequently giving proofs of their goodwill by entertaining their visitors with singing and dancing, in both of which accomplishments they displayed a large amount of rude skill and taste. The strain of their songs was melancholy and soothing. Their singing was accompanied by slow and not ungraceful motions of the body; their hands being held up in a supplicating posture. On one occasion, observing the attention with which they were listened to, each of the singers selected a European, near to whose ear he placed his mouth, either with the view of producing greater musical effect, or of teaching the stranger the song. Nor was their singing confined to one air, for they favoured their visitors with several, more or less pleasing. They appeared not to be so warlike as the aborigines of Port Jackson, their weapons of offence and defence being inferior to those of the latter. They excelled however in the arts of peace. Besides the large and well-made seine before described, they were possessed of scoop nets, which they used with skill

and dexterity in drawing fish from the river. On 31st of the month the sloop was got under weigh, and proceeded to Hervey's Bay. Here Flinders remained till the 7th September. He found the bay deep and extensive, but with very irregular soundings, and in several places the breakers prevented an approach to the shore. The fires of the aborigines were observed in several places, but none of the people themselves were encountered. Flinders now resolved to return, and on the 8th the vessel proceeded on her voyage towards Port Jackson. On the evening of the 20th the voyage was completed and the vessel anchored in Sydney Harbour. The results of this voyage, the first that had been made in this part of the coast since the establishment of the colony, were twofold. In the first place the observations of Cook respecting the currents and the shoals and islands along the coast, were either confirmed or corrected; so that the navigation of those parts was permanently facilitated, to the great advantage of colonisation and commerce. Next, the capabilities and resources of an extensive section of the country were to a great extent ascertained. Harbours and rivers were discovered and explored, which hereafter could be made the centres of those settlements which might either be established by the parent country or emanate from the chief colony, while at the same time the researches of Flinders formed the groundwork on which might be based the investigations of future voyagers and explorers. Lang, narrating this expedition of Flinders, says:—"The result of this voyage must have greatly disappointed the sanguine but not unreasonable hopes of Hunter; but it affords one of the most instructive lessons for the guidance of future Governments, whether imperial or colonial, in the department of geographical discovery, that perhaps the whole annals of British maritime enterprise afford. In running to the northward Flinders discovered and lay at anchor for nearly twenty-four hours in Shoal Bay, into which the Clarence River disembogues, and which he examined in a cursory manner, but without discovering that important river, although he was close to its entrance. In times of flood the rivers of A. bring down vast quantities of earthy matter, which they deposit along the bottom of any bay or other expanse of salt water at their mouth; and these bays or lakes, if at all sheltered from the full sweep of the ocean waves, are gradually filled up, and become at length solid land, leaving a deep water channel for the flow of the river. Had Flinders happened to hit upon the channel in this instance he would doubtless have followed it up through all its windings till he had found the mouth of the river; but he merely found a shoal bay with a fringe of gloomy mangrove trees along its shores, and reported accordingly that all was barren! In like manner, in pursuance of Hunter's instructions, Flinders entered Moreton Bay by what is called the Northern Passage, and passing several of the low islands with which it is studded

got right abreast of the entrance of the Brisbane River, which however being concealed from his view from the vessel's deck by two low flat islands at its mouth, which he named the Fishermen's Islands, he deemed the bay unworthy of any further examination, and reported to the Governor on his return that it afforded no inlet into the land. So confident on this point was Flinders that he summed up his report to Hunter in the following words:—"I must acknowledge myself to have been disappointed in not being able to penetrate into the interior of N.S.W. by either of the openings examined in this expedition; but however mortifying the conviction might be, it was then an ascertained fact that no river of importance intersects the east coast between the 24th and 39th degrees of south latitude." This assertion of so high an authority in all matters relating to maritime discovery was but indifferent encouragement for exploratory expeditions along the coast to the northward; and accordingly the Brisbane and the Boyne Rivers—the latter of which empties itself within a mile of the northern limit of the line of coast indicated by Flinders—were only discovered accidentally by Oxley when searching for something else still farther north in 1823, while the Clarence River was not discovered till 1838, when some sawyers happened to light upon it unexpectedly when searching for cedar for the Sydney market along the rivers to the northward. In explanation however of what might otherwise be regarded as a strange instance (or rather three such instances) of inadvertency on the part of Flinders, it must be observed that it is quite impossible to discover the outlets of many of the Australian rivers or even the entrances of some of the best harbours from the deck of a vessel off the coast. A minute examination must be made—of course in a whale-boat—of every nook and corner along the coast before the navigator can venture upon so sweeping an assertion as that of Flinders in the instance in question." To the northward of Moreton Bay there is a long island called Frazer's Island, parallel to the coastline, about sixty-five miles in length, with an average breadth of ten miles; the northern half of which, being abreast of a bight in the mainland, gave the latter the appearance of a deep bay, and induced Cook to designate it Hervey's Bay, anticipating, doubtless, that a river would be discovered at its head. In this anticipation Governor Hunter concurred; but when it was ascertained that the land forming the east side of the bay was merely an island, the idea of finding a river on that part of the coast was at once abandoned. The southern half of Frazer's Island forms a long narrow sound available for coasting navigation; and Wide Bay, into which the river Mary empties itself, is situated at its southern extremity. Frazer's Island received its name from Captain Frazer, of the ship *Stirling Castle*, a Scotch vessel, which brought to N.S.W. a number of Scotch mechanics (the first free immigrants of this class who had

ever arrived in that colony,) to erect the buildings for an academical institution in Sydney in 1831. On a subsequent voyage to the colony Frazer was unfortunately wrecked on the Barrier Reef on his way to India. He reached the coast however in his boat; but it was only to experience a more awful fate, for he was seized by the natives on his landing and inhumanly murdered with most of his crew. The next inlet to the northward of Frazer's Island is Port Curtis. It was discovered and partially surveyed by Flinders, and the following is the account given of it by him:—"This part of the east coast had been passed in the night by Captain Cook, so that both the openings escaped his notice, and the discovery of the port fell to our lot. In honour of Admiral Sir Roger Curtis, who had commanded at the Cape of Good Hope, and been so attentive to our wants, I gave to it the name of Port Curtis, and the island which protects it from the sea, in fact forms the port, was called Facing Island. It is a slip of rather low land eight miles in length and from two to half a mile in breadth, having Gatcombe Head for its southern extremity. The northern entrance to Port Curtis is accessible only to boats; but ships of any size may enter the port by the southern opening."

IV. *Oxley's Expedition*.—In 1817 Lieutenant King, by order of the Home authorities, examined and charted the eastern shores of Q., and added considerably to the gradually accumulating stock of knowledge of North-Eastern Australia. On 23rd October 1823 the *Mermaid*, the vessel employed by Lieutenant King, having on board Surveyor-General Oxley, left Sydney for the purposes of exploration, and particularly for ascertaining the fitness or otherwise of the new land for a convict settlement. After examining the coast line north of Cape Moreton the expedition returned to Moreton Bay, and on 2nd December the river Brisbane was discovered through the information given by Pamphlet and Finnegan, as narrated under that heading. The suitability of the place as a penal settlement was recognised by the Governor, and in August 1824 a detachment of the 40th Regiment, under the command of Lieutenant Miller, was despatched with a batch of convicts of the most desperate and incorrigible character. They landed at Eagle Farm, near the present site of Brisbane, in the belief that there was but little chance of their returning to the head station in N.S.W. From this unpromising beginning rapid progress in any direction could not be expected. The convicts were principally employed in making roads and improving the communication inland, and in this respect alone their presence was valuable. Oxley, during his expedition, had also discovered the Boyne River, of which discovery the following account is taken from the observations of Mr. Uniacke, a gentleman of great promise, who had accompanied Oxley on his expedition to the northward, but who died shortly after his return

in Sydney. During the examination of Port Curtis, Uniacke observes:—"On our arrival on board, the master reported that he had discovered a fine fresh-water river emptying itself by an outlet which was visible astern of the vessel to the southward. From his account Oxley was induced to defer our departure to Port Bowen for another day, in order to have an opportunity of viewing it himself. Accordingly Stirling and he started early the next day, while I remained behind to collect specimens of minerals on Facing Island for the Governor. Late in the evening they returned, having proceeded up the river to about where the tide reached, and Oxley deemed it of sufficient consequence to remain three or four days more, in order to examine the country more minutely. Accordingly the next morning early we again left the vessel, taking three days provisions, and proceeded with our boat about twelve miles up the river, where we pitched our tent on a bank about forty feet above the level of the water. The soil was of the richest description, and calculated to grow cotton, sugar, indigo, and all other Indian productions. There were, however, marks of the flood having reached at least fifteen feet higher than the level of our encampment, owing to which the whole surface was covered about two inches deep with drift sand. Indeed the floods here in the rainy seasons must be tremendous, as we observed in many of the trees, at least sixty feet above the level of the water, the wrack which had been deposited by successive inundations. On the banks we saw three or four different kinds of timber, but the small quantity rendered them unimportant. The river was covered with multitudes of teals, widgeons and wild ducks, and on the banks I shot two swamp pheasants (a pretty black bird not unlike the English pheasant in shape,) a very beautiful species of small deer not known in Sydney, and a kind of owl that none of us had seen before. Shortly after dinner we proposed to go to rest, with an intention of proceeding farther up the river at a very early hour the next morning. We turned out the moment it was light, dispatched our breakfast, and getting into the boat proceeded about six miles further up the river. The country through which we passed this day was similar to what we had seen the day before. The timber however was becoming larger and more plentiful. In many places the right bank of the river was composed of a remarkably fine slate, while the left was a hard close-grained grey granite, and the soil everywhere rich and fertile. Before we returned we ascended a high hill, on the left from which we had a beautiful and extensive view of the river for many miles, through a rich brush country, the banks in many parts well clothed with timber. To the river which we discovered here Oxley gave the name of the Boyne. It empties itself into Rodd's Bay, Port Curtis, and its mouth is in lat. 23° 59' S., long. 151° 34' 45" E."

V. Lockyer's Expedition in 1825.—The earliest notice of the character of the country on the

Bremer River, at the head of the navigation of which the town of Ipswich is situated, was contained in the "Journal of an Excursion to Moreton Bay and up the River Brisbane in the year 1825," by Edmund Lockyer, Major in the 57th Regiment, and afterwards Usher of the Black Rod in the Upper House of Parliament in N.S.W. It is in the following terms:—"Took one of the boats and went up this branch above three miles; then landed, and on ascending the banks found a large open country, with scarcely any wood of consequence to impede cultivation on it—the trees, chiefly blue-gums, being at least an acre or more apart, and more ornamental than otherwise. The natives had lately set fire to the long grass, and the new grass was just above ground, making this plain appear like a bowling-green; the soil rich beyond any idea, and from its being easily flooded it would be particularly adapted for the cultivation of rice, sugar-cane, cotton and coffee. I saw plenty of kangaroos and wild turkeys. After traversing this fine piece of land, which was at least six or seven thousand acres in extent, I returned to our encampment." The vessel in which this expedition was made by Lockyer was the cutter *Mermaid*, probably the identical vessel used by King and Oxley. She left Sydney on 2nd September 1825, called at and landed a detachment of the Buffs at what is now Newcastle, and on the 6th anchored in Moreton Bay. The exploration of the river was commenced on the following day, the party embarking in a boat and leaving the *Mermaid* at the bar. The first landing took place at what is called in the journal "Den Glassie" (supposed to be Eagle Farm,) where Captain Bishop of the 40th Regiment was commandant. Here the boats were provisioned and further equipped, and the ascent of the river continued. On the 11th a "large branch called the Bremer Creek," joining the main river, was reached. It would appear from the narrative that Oxley had ascended the river about seventeen miles beyond this point. Many natives were met with, who it is stated had never before seen Europeans. From here fallen trees and numerous falls greatly impeded the progress of the party, and finally navigation had to be given up, it being found impossible even to tow the boat against the stream, which was greatly swollen by floods. Some of the party walked to Mount Brisbane, which was the terminal point of the journey. The land on both sides of the river, and particularly the fine timber, frequently calls forth the praises of Lockyer. A rapid journey was made down the river, and the settlement was arrived at on 6th October, the party having been away twenty-seven days. The cutter was joined at Moreton Bay, and on 16th October anchor was again cast in Sydney Cove. Lockyer gives it as his opinion that "Moreton Bay is well calculated to become a place of trade when once settled." Of the aborigines, he writes:—"The attachment of these people to their dogs is worthy of notice; I was very anxious to get one of the wild

native breed of a black colour, a very handsome puppy which one of the men had in his arms. I offered a small axe for it; his companion urged him to take it, and he was about to do so when he looked at his dog, and the animal licked his face, which settled the business; he shook his head, determined to keep it. I tried him afterwards with handkerchiefs of glaring colours and other things, but it would not do—he would not part with his dog. I gave him however the axe and the handkerchief.”—In 1827 Captain Logan, also of the 57th Regiment, Commandant of Moreton Bay, in tracing the Bremer from its junction with the Brisbane, discovered at ten miles through its many windings from that point the calcareous hummocks on its right bank now named the Limestone Hills. Landing, he was much struck with the singular appearance of the lofty grass-tree which abounds on the open flats, low hills and forest grounds at this particular part, and which the Commandant had not inaptly compared to bee-hives elevated on stools. Some months after this discovery a kiln was built, and a party of convicts, consisting of an overseer (acquainted with the operations of sapping and mining) and five men were stationed at these hills to commence lime-burning. It was from this small beginning that the town of Ipswich, which now contains a busy commercial population, of upwards of 7000 inhabitants, has since arisen.—Lieutenant Miller was the first commandant of the penal settlement; after him were successively Captains Bishop, Logan, Clunie, Fyans, Major Cotton and Lieutenants Gravett and Gorman. Partly from the turbulent character of the convicts over whom they ruled, and in part from the almost unlimited power entrusted to the officers in charge, this period of the history of the settlement is not of the most satisfactory character, and will not bear dwelling upon. In August 1837 the first steamer, the *James Watt*, anchored in Moreton Bay. In 1839 the first direct steamer from England, the *Sophia Jane*, ploughed the waters of Q. The first steamship of the Australasian Steam Navigation Company arrived on 27th January 1842.

VI. *Exploration*.—The first exploration of Q. was made by Oxley in 1823. The beautiful tract of country called the Darling Downs, situated to the westward of the coast range of mountains which divides the eastern from the western waters, was discovered in 1827 by Alan Cunningham, botanical collector for the Royal Gardens at Kew, a man of superior ability and indefatigable zeal in the department of geographical discovery. On crossing the parallel of 30° south lat., at an elevation of 1900 feet above the level of the sea, Cunningham descended to “a beautiful and well-watered valley, affording abundance of the richest pasturage, and bounded on either side by a bold and elevated rocky range.” This valley terminated sixteen miles farther north, on the left bank of a stream flowing north-west, in lat. 29° 51' S. at an elevation of 911 feet above the sea. This stream Cunningham named the Gwydir. Proceeding northward, between the meridians of

150° and 151° E., and passing through rather an indifferent country, the scene was found gradually to improve; and in lat. 29° S. long. 150° 40' E. he came upon the Dumaresq River running westward, 80 or 90 yards wide and very deep, at an elevation of 840 feet above the sea and 170 miles from the coast. Travelling from thence northward and eastward 80 miles through an arid country to 151° E. he discovered a beautiful tract of country at an elevation of 900 or 1000 feet above that of the Dumaresq River, which he called the Darling Downs. “These extensive tracts of clear pastoral country,” observes Cunningham, “commence about the parallel of 28° S., and stretch to 150° E. Deep ponds supported by streams from the highlands immediately to the eastward extend along their central lower flats. The lower grounds thus permanently watered present flats which furnish an almost inexhaustible range of cattle pasture at all seasons of the year, the grass and herbage generally exhibiting in the depth of winter an extreme luxuriance of growth. From these central grounds rise downs of a rich black and dry soil, and very ample surface; and as they furnish abundance of grass and are conveniently watered, yet perfectly beyond the reach of those floods which take place on the flats in a season of rain, they constitute a valuable and sound sheep pasture.” In an article on this journey which he communicated to a colonial journal in the year 1828, Cunningham adds the following particulars:—“The elevation of the dividing range above the level of the ocean may be considered about 4100 feet. The forest ridges, which were heavily timbered with stringy-bark of great bulk, were found clothed to their summits with grasses of the most luxuriant growth; and being well watered by numerous trickling rills that appeared to originate between the shoulders of the hills constitute a very spacious range of the richest cattle pasture. The summits and flanks of the ranges produce great abundance of well-grown stringy-bark, whilst their lower ridges furnish stately pine of the species already well known on the Brisbane from sixty to eighty feet in height; and as small saplings of the red cedar were observed on the skirts of the brushes that invest the base of the hills large trees of this valuable wood are doubtless to be met with in their more distant recesses. The base of these mountains is of a compact whinstone; on the higher ridges was observed amygdaloid, or the trap formation, with nodules of quartz, whilst the summit exhibited a porphyritic rock, very porous, and containing numerous minute quartzose crystallisations.” In a private letter addressed to the late Robert Lynd, Sydney, Leichhardt describes this beautiful tract of country as follows:—“German Mission Station, 23rd June 1843.—From the Condamine River (the western limit of the Darling Downs,) the country rises very gently, almost imperceptibly, till the road passes between two hills or ranges, when the basaltic rock reappears again. Very extensive shallow valleys or plains, generally with

a creek, overgrown with reeds, covered with high rich grass, were spread before my eyes when I had passed these hills, the right of which goes under the name of Rubislaw and the left under that of Sugar-loaf. Here and there the grass-tree is seen, either single or in groups and groves. It is one foot and more in diameter and eight to ten feet high. Till then I had never seen the grass-tree in rich soil; on the contrary, it was the sign of the poorest sandstone rock and sand. Here the case is reversed; the grass-tree grows in the finest soil, and generally in plains. The ranges which border the plains are covered with box, with a gum tree called the Moreton Bay ash, with a different species of angaphora, and with another white gum. The trees are generally very scattered, and the forest becomes only denser, the vegetation more powerful, as we approach the range of its eastern slopes. All this country, from the Condamine to the range, is called the Darling Downs. There is no equal to them over all the colony for sheep rearing, for the fatness and tenderness of the mutton, for the excellent qualities of the wool (which however is not generally admitted,) and for the cheap rate for which flocks can be managed. One shepherd can look after 2000 to 3000 sheep, which would require four shepherds in other parts." Leichhardt gave the following additional notices of this very interesting region in commencing his famous overland expedition to Port Essington the following year:—"These stations (the sheep and cattle stations on the Darling Downs) are established on creeks which come down from the western slopes of the coast range—here extending in a N. and S. direction—and meander through plains of more or less extent to join the Condamine River, which also rising in the coast range where the latter expands into the table-land of New England, sweeps round to the northward, and flowing parallel to the coast range, receives the whole drainage from the country to the westward of the range. The Condamine forms for a great distance the separation of the sandstone country to the westward from the rich basaltic plains to the eastward. These plains, so famous for the richness of their pasture, and for the excellence of the sheep and cattle depastured upon them, have become equally remarkable as the depositaries of the remains of extinct species of animals, several of which must have been of a gigantic size, being the Marsupial representatives of the Pachydermal order of other continents. Mr. Isaacs' station is particularly rich in these fossil remains. At Isaacs Creek they occur together with recent freshwater shells of species still living in the neighbouring ponds, and with marly and calcareous concretions; which induces me to suppose that these plains were covered with large sheets of water, fed probably by calcareous springs connected with the basaltic range, and that huge animals, fond of water, were living either on the rich herbage surrounding these ponds or lakes, or browsing upon the leaves and branches of trees

forming thick brushes on the slopes of the neighbouring hills. The rise of the country, which is very generally supposed to have taken place, was probably the cause of the disappearance of the water, and of the animals becoming extinct, when its necessary supply ceased to exist. The elevation of Darling Downs—about 1800 to 2000 feet according to the barometrical observations of Cunningham renders the climate much cooler than its latitude would lead one to suppose; indeed ice has frequently been found during the calm clear nights of winter. The plains as we passed were covered with the most luxuriant grass and herbage." The explorations of Mitchell and Leichhardt are narrated under their proper headings. The process of inland discovery concluded with the simultaneous expeditions of Macdonall Stuart and Burke and Wills. Immediately after the return of Stuart, the three colonies of S.A., V. and Q., alarmed for the safety of Burke and Wills, despatched three independent expeditions in search of them. Walker's party started from Port Curtis, and crossing over the Great Coast Range successfully crossed through to the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria. Landsborough about the same time left the shores of the Gulf, and descending through the whole of the tract, reached its southern boundary in June 1862. McKinlay starting from the north of the Torrens Basin entered it from the south-west, and was equally successful in effecting a northern passage, returning in the following August. Thus, strangely enough, a region which for years had defied the attacks of such persistent and daring explorers as Sturt, Mitchell and Leichhardt, was crossed almost simultaneously, by no less than five separate and wholly independent routes. More strangely and more lamentably, ere any of the searching parties had left their starting-points, Burke and Wills had already solved the great problem of crossing the continent, and had returned to their depôt to find it abandoned by those they had left in charge of it. Kennedy's fatal expedition, and the successful exploration of Cape York Peninsula by the Jardine Brothers must be mentioned here. Minor and more recent expeditions made by adventurous bushmen and gold seekers in various directions have laid bare the most secluded spots of this vast territory.

VII. *Pastoral Settlement.*—In course of time the solitude of the penal settlement was broken by the approach of neighbours; for after the discoveries made by Allan Cunningham in 1825, the squatters of N.S.W. had hastened northwards in order to depasture their flocks on the fine lands of the Darling Downs. They founded many little towns, such as Ipswich, Drayton and Toowoomba; and when in 1829 a pass leading across the Dividing Range from the Darling Downs to Moreton Bay was discovered by Cunningham, the squatters on the west of the mountains began to hold frequent communication with the settlement at Moreton Bay, from which they obtained convicts

to act as shepherds on their runs. In these early years the squatters of the district were scattered at wide intervals throughout a great extent of country, and being in the midst of native tribes who were not only numerous but of a peculiarly hostile disposition, they often found themselves in a very precarious situation. The blacks swarmed on the runs, killing the sheep and stealing the property of the squatters, who had many annoyances to suffer and injuries to guard against. But their retaliation oftentimes exhibited a ferocity and inhumanity almost incredible in civilised men. The Government troopers showed little compunction in destroying scores of natives, and the most inhuman atrocities were committed by the blacks who were employed to act as troopers. On one occasion, after the murder of a white man by two blacks, a band of troopers in the dead of night stealthily surrounded the tribe to which the murderers belonged whilst it was holding a corroboree, and at a given signal fired a volley into the midst of the dancing crowd—a blind and ruthless revenge, from which however the two murderers escaped. When the new land regulations were proclaimed in 1840 by Governor Gipps, who had visited the district, the country around Moreton Bay was entitled the “Northern District of New South Wales,” and land was thrown open for sale at twelve shillings per acre. A considerable number of free immigrants shortly afterwards settled on the banks of the Brisbane River, and as they found the soil well adapted for the cultivation of wheat and maize they made rapid progress, and others soon followed to share their prosperity. In 1841, after transportation to N.S.W. had been discontinued, the remaining convicts were all removed from Moreton Bay, and two years later the free settlers of the district began to send representatives to the Legislative Council at Sydney.

VIII. *The Separation Movement.*—Lang gives the following account of the rise and progress of the movement for the separation of Q. from N.S.W., in which he was unquestionably an able and effective leader:—“I happened to visit the district of Moreton Bay, now the Colony of Queensland, for the first time in the month of November 1845. Struck with the general capabilities of the country I was strongly impressed at the same time with the idea that the great inlet of Moreton Bay was as well fitted to become the head-quarters of a separate and independent colony as either Port Phillip or Port Jackson; and I was strongly of opinion that the welfare and advancement of that important portion of our Australian territory could never otherwise be effectually promoted or secured. Well knowing however that such an idea—which was regarded at the time even at Moreton Bay as utterly hopeless and chimerical—would be still more distasteful to our Sydney Legislature than the separation of Port Phillip, I embraced the opportunity of my being in England during the years 1847, 1848 and 1849 to address

a series of letters on the subject to Earl Grey, Secretary of State for the Colonies; recommending, for various reasons which I stated at length, that in the future Act of Parliament, which was then announced as under consideration for the better government of the Australian Colonies, there should be inserted a clause enabling Her Majesty to separate from N.S.W., and to erect into a distinct and independent colony the territory situated to the northward of the 30th parallel of latitude, which I showed was the only proper point of separation between the two conterminous colonies. And when the Act was finally passed in the year 1850 I found to my great gratification, although to the surprise and mortification of most of our Sydney legislators, that it *did* contain a clause to the effect I had recommended. That clause, I am happy to add, providing as it did for the separation of Moreton Bay, has proved the *Magna Charta* of Q. It is a saying of the great Martin Luther, that wherever God plants a church the devil is sure to have a public-house erected right opposite. In accordance with this principle, no sooner was the boon of separation obtained *in prospectu* for the future colony of Q., than a great effort was made by the principal squatters—gentlemen who considered themselves the veritable aristocracy of the country—to get that colony established as a penal settlement or convict colony, in order to enable them to procure cheap labour for their flocks and herds. I had succeeded however, in the face of much unexpected discouragement during the three years I spent in England, in directing a stream of emigration, consisting of three shiploads of emigrants—about six hundred persons in all—to Moreton Bay. These emigrants, whom I had collected and selected myself, were all persons of reputable character and industrious habits, and almost all members of evangelical churches in the mother-country; and settling as they did in and around the only two towns then in the country—Brisbane and Ipswich—they set themselves vigorously from the first to oppose this movement of the squatters, and to prevent if possible the degradation of their adopted country into a mere convict colony. And I am happy to be enabled to add that through the incessant agitation they kept up on the subject, by public meetings, addresses and petitions, &c., they succeeded at length in defeating the foul conspiracy. It was stated before a Select Committee of the House of Lords on Transportation in the year 1856, by Arthur Hodgson, late member for Newcastle in the Parliament of N.S.W., and one of the two gentlemen who had taken the lead in endeavouring to get the new colony transformed into a penal settlement, that it was owing entirely to the emigrants I had sent out to Moreton Bay that the proposal of the colonial aristocracy of the time, which was well received and would have been strongly supported by influential parties in the mother-country, proved unsuccessful. Opposition however to the best interests of the future

colony, although of a somewhat different character, speedily arose from a different quarter. Finding that they could not prevent the separation of the Moreton Bay district, certain of the leading colonists of N.S.W., backed by majorities in both Houses of the Colonial Parliament, endeavoured to curtail the dimensions of the new colony to the southward, by getting the boundary, which the Act of the Imperial Parliament had fixed at the 30th parallel of latitude, moved to the 28th and 29th parallels, so as to retain the Clarence and Richmond rivers district, which is situated immediately to the northward of the 30th parallel, in the colony of N.S.W. The means that were used to effect this object were sufficiently discreditable. In the first place Mr. Hargrave, member of the Legislative Assembly of N.S.W. for the district of New England, got up and presented to the Assembly a petition, which a few of the residents in the Clarence and Richmond River districts had been unwittingly induced to sign, against the annexation of that district to the new colony. This petition purported to have been signed by upwards of fifteen hundred persons, and there was a great flourish of trumpets on the occasion in both Houses of the Colonial Parliament at the prevention of the dismemberment of the colony which had thus been so happily effected; but by far the greater number of the signatures attached to that petition were notoriously those of persons who had no right whatever to sign it, as they were residing to the southward of the thirtieth parallel and not within the parliamentary limits at all. Undue influence was used at the same time by the Government of the day to induce persons residing in the Clarence district to sign Mr. Hargrave's petition, and thereby to protest against the separation of their district from N.S.W. Mr. E. Deas Thomson, for many years Colonial Secretary of N.S.W., who in a letter addressed to Sir William Molesworth, of date London, 27th September 1855, had expressed himself strongly in favour of the thirtieth parallel as the only proper boundary between the two colonies, was induced by the strong colonial pressure from without to eat his own words on his return to the colony, and to vote as a member of the Legislative Council of N.S.W. for a different boundary from the one he had himself recommended in England. Alluding in his letter to Sir William Molesworth to the efforts of certain parties to have the boundary line struck still farther S. than the thirtieth parallel, Mr. Thomson says:—"I should greatly prefer the thirtieth parallel of S. latitude as the frontier line between the two colonies; first, because it was the most southern boundary line contemplated by the Act of Parliament 13 and 14 Victoria, cap. lix.; and secondly, because any encroachment upon that line would be received with great jealousy and discontent by the colonists of N.S.W. I believe also that it would form an appropriate geographical boundary, having reference to the natural outlet of produce and the reception of supplies,

whilst for this reason its adoption would probably secure to each colony the collection of its appropriate revenue." This was doubtless an honest opinion on the part of Mr. Thomson. It is pitiful however to think that he should afterwards have turned his back upon himself by voting against the thirtieth parallel when he had got out again to N.S.W. Sir William Denison, Governor of N.S.W., who having two brothers holding nearly a quarter of a million of acres of land as squatters on the northern frontier of that colony, at a merely nominal rental of a twentieth of a penny per acre, could scarcely be supposed to be a disinterested referee in such a case, fixed the boundary for the present, when the question was very improperly I conceive referred to him for his decision by Mr. Labouchere, Secretary of State for the Colonies, at the twenty-eighth parallel on the coast and the twenty-ninth in the interior—with what propriety or justice a numerous signed petition to Her Majesty from the resident householders of the Clarence and Richmond Rivers district will sufficiently show. In short, every effort was made in N.S.W., first to prevent separation, which it was kindly alleged by its opponents would be ruinous to the new colony, and afterwards to get the parliamentary boundary changed, so as to leave an extensive and important district of the proposed colony of Q. in N.S.W.; the interests, convenience and wishes of the inhabitants of that district being entirely disregarded. The whole period, indeed, from the passing of the Imperial Act of 1850 till the separation of Q. was finally consummated on 10th December 1859 by the arrival of Sir George Ferguson Bowen as Governor, and the proclamation of the colony amid the rejoicings of the inhabitants was the close of a protracted struggle in all the various forms of agitation for the accomplishment of an object which that Act was supposed to have secured; in this struggle I had the honour to bear no inconsiderable part. This indeed has been fully acknowledged in a very gratifying manner as the following letter from Sir George Bowen transmitting a copy of the unanimous vote of the first Parliament of Q. will show:—"Government House, Brisbane, Queensland, 17th September, 1860. Sir,—At the request of the Legislative Assembly of Queensland I have the honour to transmit herewith a copy of the resolutions unanimously adopted by the House on the 14th inst., thanking you for your able and successful efforts to effect the separation of Moreton Bay from New South Wales, and to found the Colony of Queensland. I beg further to assure you on behalf of myself and of my Government of our full and cordial concurrence in the sentiments of the Assembly as recorded in the enclosed resolutions. I have the honour to be, Sir, your most obedient servant—G. F. BOWEN." The separation of Moreton Bay and its erection into a separate colony occupied the attention of the Legislature at Sydney. A copy of the *London Gazette* of 3rd January containing the official announcement of that event having been received

there, the colonists were led to reflect seriously on the bearing which the separation of a large portion of their territory would have on the parent colony, more especially in reference to the debt which had been contracted on the security of the waste lands, including that portion of the public domain which was about to be taken away. In October the matter was formally brought before the Legislature. Darvall moved a resolution to the effect, "That the proposed separation of Moreton Bay from N.S.W. was premature and inexpedient—(1) Because the power reserved to Her Majesty by the Constitution Act to alter the boundary of N.S.W. to the north in such a manner as to Her Majesty might seem fit had not been generally invoked by the people of the colony nor by their representatives. (2) Because the assent of the Legislature of the colony to the proposed separation had not been obtained, and it was manifestly harsh and inconsistent to split into fragments without their own consent a community possessing responsible government and absolute control over their local affairs. (3) Because the population of the proposed colony of Q. was so small and scattered as to be unable to discharge the duties of self-government economically or efficiently." In the discussion which followed the chief point dwelt on was the public lands. On these was secured a debt of £800,000, and it was contended that the matter should be settled before separation took place, otherwise its adjustment would sow the seeds of dissension between the two colonies. Some even argued that as the Constitution made over all the public lands to the Government of N.S.W., the waste lands of Moreton Bay would still be the property of the parent colony even after separation took place. The affirmatory part of the proposition having been adopted the first reason was withdrawn, and, as an amendment on the second, a proposition moved by Hay was adopted. It was to the effect, "That such arrangements as had been made, either by the Imperial Government or that of N.S.W., seem calculated to establish the metropolitan predominance of the country of Stanley and the town of Brisbane—a predominance which was not justified by natural advantages, and was opposed to the interests of the districts further N." The third of the original reasons was withdrawn. The measure of separation was warmly defended by some even among the representatives of N.S.W. proper. It was contended that to establish a colony to the northward would, by giving the elder colony a central position, enable her to maintain that pre-eminence which by her seniority and her achievements in the sphere of colonisation was her right, at the same time to establish a new colony was a step towards that Australian federation which was now eagerly looked for as an event that would have the effect of consolidating a great Anglo-Saxon nation in the southern hemisphere.

IX. *Responsible Government.*—Sir Geo. Ferguson Bowen, first Governor, arrived on 10th December

1859. For some time previous the colonists had been anticipating his arrival with great eagerness, and his coming was accordingly hailed with general rejoicing. The form of government for the new colony was to be precisely similar to that of the older colony of N.S.W., from which it had just been dis severed—an Elective Assembly and a Nominee Upper House. There was one particular, indeed, in which the constitution of Q. differed from that of N.S.W.; for as the imperial arrangements for the separation of the Moreton Bay country and its erection into a distinct colony had been made previous to the passing of the Electoral Reform Act of N.S.W., it was decided by the judges that the new colony could only be established under the previously existing colonial constitution. This however was merely a question of time; for an Act similar to the Electoral Reform Act of N.S.W. was passed by the Parliament of Q. during its present session. It was earnestly desired by all parties concerned that the first parliament should be constituted and assembled as speedily as possible; but in consequence of some technical difficulties the writs for the election of members to serve in the Legislative Assembly could not be issued till the close of April 1860, and the Parliament did not meet till June. The Assembly consisted of twenty-six members, and the first President of the Legislative Council was Sir Charles Nicholson. "For a whole twelvemonth before the first meeting of the Parliament," writes Lang, "there had been no end to the predictions of certain prophets of evil in the Parliament of N.S.W. that the whole scheme of a separate government for Q. would prove an utter failure and that the unhappy people whose interests had been compromised and sacrificed by certain visionary speculators, in separating them from the parent stock, would themselves very speedily come back to solicit readmission into the parental bosom. I had occasion to visit Q. shortly after the opening of the new parliament; and being somewhat concerned to know whether these predictions were likely to be fulfilled, I embodied the result of my observations on what I saw and heard on the spot in the following letter to the *Empire* one of the Sydney daily papers:—'Two Days in the Queensland Parliament. Sir,—When the prophets of evil in our House of Assembly were predicting night after night, a few months ago, that the fatal experiment of a separate government for this insignificant community would soon prove a miserable failure, and that the people of Q. would shortly be coming back to us weeping and wailing, praying us to govern them from Sydney, I maintained that there was a larger amount both of intelligence and general ability in matters of government in this colony, in proportion to its population, than there is in N.S.W. and that the truth of this statement would soon be exhibited in the result of the experiment that was then about to be made. Let the proceedings of the Q. Parliament for these two days past bear witness to the

soundness of my views in regard to their general ability for the important work of legislation, and the propriety of my anticipations in regard to their noble future. I must premise however by observing that they have managed most adroitly to form the Legislative Chambers out of the old Convict Barracks, which you will bear in mind were erected in the olden time with British money and not with ours; for certainly no part of our three or four millions of debt was incurred in the erection of public buildings or other improvements here. The Chambers are both plainly but neatly fitted up, commodious and in every respect suited to the wants of the country. Without any pretensions to such eminent talents as unquestionably characterised our first Legislative Council, they have certainly, from anything I can either see or hear, got the right men in the right places here. The Premier or Colonial Secretary (R. G. W. Herbert) is a first-class man from one of the English universities, but without the slightest assumption or pretension of any kind. I would not say that he is either eloquent or impressive; but he is remarkably fluent, putting the right words in the right places, saying all that is requisite to elucidate his subject, but nothing more, and saying it in the shortest possible time; exhibiting a perfect acquaintance with anything he speaks about, calm and self-possessed, knowing how and when to yield when he cannot carry his point, and doing it with the best possible grace, so as to deprive an opponent of the vulgar triumph over an imaginary victory, such as is so frequently exhibited on the boards of our own political Theatre Royal in Macquarie Street, Sydney. Without mentioning particularly the other members of the Ministry—the Attorney-General and Treasurer—I would observe that both the Speaker (Mr. Elliott) and the Chairman of Committees (Mr. Macalister)—who were both members of our Legislative Assembly till that untoward event, Separation, sent them over the border—are remarkably well fitted for their respective places and fill their respective chairs uncommonly well. And although there are no Burkes or Sheridans among the members generally, I am happy to say that there is no talking for talking's sake, no opposition for opposition's sake, no such factions bidding for office as to have become perfect nuisances with us, and almost complete obstructions to the business of the country. I have seldom indeed heard so much plain common sense, delivered in plain unassuming and sometimes forcible English, as I have heard these two days, in the same space of time, in any other deliberative body with which I have become acquainted. To the proof therefore:—The House of Assembly meets on the first floor up the broad stair of the old barracks; the Upper House strangely enough meets on the ground floor, as if they meant to enact the comedy of 'High Life Below Stairs.' The hour of meeting for the former is three p.m. and for the latter half-past four. They both commence with prayer, a practice

which even the American Republicans observe, but which our Legislature has uniformly repudiated ever since I first moved in the matter seventeen years ago. After some preliminary business had been gone through in the Assembly (which I am happy to observe—for it is right and proper to take notice of the manners and customs of one's betters just to try to imitate them if one can—meets exactly at the hour) the Colonial Secretary, in a speech remarkably characterised by the qualities I have mentioned, moved the second reading of a bill for the establishment of grammar schools throughout this colony, which I may observe embodies a plan somewhat similar to the one I had sketched out in a series of resolutions which was some time on the Notice Paper of our House of Assembly shortly before the late prorogation of Parliament. A short debate ensued, in which the principle of the bill was assented to most cordially on all sides while a few short but sensible speeches were made suggesting improvements and stating objections to one or two of the details. In the course of his speech the Colonial Secretary observed that the Sydney Grammar School had proved a failure, which he ascribed to the too high pitch and mediæval character of the education it gave. If he had imputed the failure rather to the expenditure of £29,000 on the building, with an endowment of £1500 a-year (which he rightly thought excessive and unnecessary) and £18 a-year from each pupil or student notwithstanding, I should have been more inclined to join with him. At all events the second reading of an admirable bill was agreed to by half-past four yesterday, when the House adjourned for the day and I was in time for the meeting of the Upper House downstairs. How long should we have been with our slow coach about such a job? As long I suppose as a bullock dray would take with a load of flour from Barker's mills to Kiandra with perhaps an overturn, not of the dray but of the Ministry, in the meantime. To-day after several other matters of minor importance, including the passing through committee of the Census Bill the Anti-State-aid Bill was also got safe through committee after a debate of the character I have mentioned of several hours. That matter therefore of transcendent importance is now settled here and settled well. When shall we be able to follow these sensible people in N.S.W.? Not, I fear, till the Greek kalends, which are a long way off. I was examined to-day before Captain O'Connell's Select Committee of the Legislative Council on the propriety of forming a settlement at the head of the Gulf of Carpentaria, as also of establishing an overland telegraphic line from Rockhampton to the head of that gulf, and a steam communication from Sydney and Queensland by Torres' Straits to Singapore. They are strongly in favour of this line here but totally disinclined towards supporting a line to Panama, which they think is impracticable and will prove a failure. In one word, separation has unquestionably

created a soul under the ribs of death here, and I venture to predict that, if it has not the effect of stimulating our colonial Legislature into something like vigorous action in the right direction, the example of our brethren in Q. will very soon lead to other chapters in the great drama of separation, Messrs. Darvall, Piddington and Martin notwithstanding. It is nowhere written in the Fates that there shall be no more separation; let those whom it concerns therefore beware of putting their heavy drag upon the wheels of the State carriage as they have already done so often, so long and so fatally for their adopted country.—I am, sir, yours, &c., John Dunmore Lang. Brisbane, 8th July, 1860.” The following list of the Acts and Ordinances of the first Parliament will show the amount of business transacted by that body during their first session, and their fitness for the work assigned them:—

1. An Act to indemnify the Collector and Officers of Customs in respect to the omitting to collect the Duty payable upon Gold in the Colony of Queensland, and to repeal an Act of the Legislative Council and Legislative Assembly of New South Wales, intituled “An Act for granting a Duty upon Gold.”
2. An Act to limit the Number of Persons holding Office under the Crown, who, under the Constitution Act, 17 Vic., No. 41, may be declared capable of being elected Members of the Legislative Assembly.
3. An Act to discontinue Grants from the Revenue in Aid of Religion.
4. An Act to appoint Commissioners for the Adjustment of Accounts with the Colony of New South Wales.
5. An Act for taking an Account of the Population in 1861.
6. An Act to provide for Primary Education in Queensland.
7. An Act to provide for the Establishment of Grammar Schools in Queensland.
8. An Act to authorise the Appropriation out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Queensland of certain Sums to make good the Supplies granted for the Service of the Year 1860.
9. An Act to abolish the Collection of Electoral Lists.
10. An Act to give a Lien on Wool, and to make Mortgages of Sheep, Cattle and Horses.
11. An Act for regulating the Occupation of Unoccupied Crown Lands in the Unsettled Districts.
12. An Act to regulate the Occupations of Land applied for by Tender.
13. An Act for the Prevention of Scab and other Diseases in Sheep.
14. An Act to regulate the Exportation of Gunpowder and Warlike Stores from the Colony of Queensland.
15. An Act to provide for the Alienation of Crown Lands.
16. An Act to provide for the leasing of Crown Lands previously occupied.
17. An Act to authorise the Appropriation out of the Consolidated Revenue Fund of Queensland of certain Sums to make good the Supplies granted for the Service of the Year 1860-61.

“The first of these Acts and Ordinances that requires to be noticed,” writes Lang, “is the Act to discontinue grants from the revenue in aid of religion. Fortunately this important question presented itself to the

Legislature of Q. in a very simple form. The whole burden on the revenue, under the previously existing system of N.S.W., for the salaries of ministers of the Episcopalian, Presbyterian, Roman Catholic and Wesleyan Methodist communions, did not exceed £750 a year; and while all were willing that the recipients of that amount should retain the salaries they were respectively receiving under the previous system during their lives, the voice of the public strongly demanded the entire discontinuance of State support for religion for the future. A preliminary motion had been made by one of the members who advocated the system of State support, to the effect that the sum appropriated for distribution among the clergy of the different communions should be increased to £4000 a year; but this motion having been lost by a large majority, the Government having thus felt the pulse of the Assembly, made a virtue of necessity and introduced the bill, which was passed almost without opposition as a Government measure. The Government were anxious to retain the power which was still left them in the Act to discontinue grants from the revenue in aid of religion, to give grants of land for ecclesiastical purposes—for the erection of places of worship and ministers’ dwellings; but as it was seen and felt that this power would give rise to the charge, or at least the suspicion, of favouritism and occasion jealousies and heartburnings in the community, it was judiciously taken away. The Anglican bishop (Dr. Tuffnell) arrived in the colony with seven clergymen of the Church of England very shortly after this virtual revolution, at which he was much displeased, had been effected. The Acts to provide for primary education and for the establishment of grammar schools provided that a Board, to be presided over by a minister of the Crown, was to be incorporated, to carry out a system of national education similar to the one established in N.S.W., with a provision however for the assistance of schools under denominational management and of which the property may not be vested in the Board. For the establishment of grammar schools it was enacted that, in the event of not less than £1000 being raised in any locality for the establishment of such a school, the Government should grant for the purpose double that amount; and that when fees for three years should have been pledged to an amount not less than £250 per annum the Government should grant for the general support of the school £500 a year. Under these arrangements there was established a primary school, partially endowed by the State, for the common branches of an English education, in every small centre of population throughout the territory; and in every town with a population of from 2000 to 4000 souls, in due time, a grammar school for superior education, under popular management.” Lang concludes by stating:—“It will be abundantly evident from these notices and statements that popular and responsible government has hitherto been a great success, and

no failure, in Q. Where is there a single instance in the whole history of British colonisation, of any colonial legislature passing so many acts of the highest importance and of such incalculable value to the community, and effecting so many and such sweeping reforms during its first session? The case is altogether unparalleled in the annals of the empire." The Treasurer's Estimates of Ways and Means for the year 1861 show an anticipated revenue of £182,200, with a probable expenditure of £197,663. The amount expected to be realised from Land sales was £55,000; from Customs £70,000; and from Rents and Assessment £30,000. The items of probable expenditure contained a sum for the Department of Public Lands and Works of £73,431, including £39,592 for roads, bridges and public buildings.

X. *The Gold Discoveries.*—In 1858 it was reported that gold had been discovered far to the north, on the banks of the Fitzroy River, and in a short time many vessels arrived in Keppel Bay, their holds and decks crowded with men, who eagerly landed and hastened to Canoona, about sixty or seventy miles up the river. Ere long there were about 15,000 diggers on the scene; but it was soon discovered that the gold was confined to a small area, and by no means plentiful; and those who had spent all their money in getting to the place were in a wretched plight. A large population had been hurriedly gathered in an isolated region, without provisions or the possibility of obtaining them; their expectations of the gold-field had been disappointed, and for some time the Fitzroy River was one great scene of misery and starvation, till the Governments of N.S.W. and V. sent vessels to convey the unfortunate diggers from the place. Some however in the extremity of the famine had selected portions of the fertile land on the banks of the river and had begun to cultivate them as farms. They were pleased with the district, and having settled down on their land they formed the thriving town of Rockhampton. A greater amount of success attended a subsequent effort in 1867. The Government of Q. offered rewards varying from £200 to £1000 for the discovery of payable gold-fields; and during the course of the next two or three years many districts were opened up to the miner. Towards the end of 1867 a man named Nash, who had been wandering in an idle way over the country, found an auriferous region of great extent at Gympie, about 130 miles from Brisbane. He concealed his discovery for a time, and set to work to collect as much of the gold as possible, before attracting others to the spot. In the course of a day or two he gathered several hundred pounds' worth of gold, being however often disturbed in his operations by the approach of travellers on the adjacent road, when he had to crouch among the bushes until the footsteps died away and he could again pursue his solitary task. After some time it seemed impossible to avoid discovery, and lest any one should forestall him in making known the

district he entered Maryborough, announced his discovery, and received the reward. A rush took place to the Gympie, which was found to be exceedingly rich, and it was not long before a nugget worth about four thousand pounds was met with close to the surface. Far to the north, on the Palmer River, a tributary of the Mitchell, there have been discovered rich gold-fields, where in spite of the great heat and dangers from the blacks there are crowds of diggers at work. Many thousands of Chinamen have settled down in the district, and to these the natives seem to have a special antipathy, as they spear them on every possible occasion.

XI. *The Cotton Industry.*—Throughout most of its territory, Q. possesses a climate of tropical warmth, and it is therefore, in its more fertile parts, well suited for the growth of cotton and sugar. About 1861 the cultivation of the cotton-plant was commenced on a small scale; but although the plantations were found to thrive, the high wages of labour, and the low price of cotton in Europe, caused these first attempts to be altogether unprofitable. Matters were changed however in 1863, for then the civil war was raging in America, and as the people of the Southern States were prevented by a long chain of blockading vessels from sending their cotton to Europe, there was a great scarcity of cotton in England and its price rose to be exceedingly high. This was a favourable opportunity for Q.; the plantations were of course still as expensive as ever, but the prices obtained for the cotton not only covered the increased expense but left considerable profits. The cultivation of the sugar-cane was introduced in 1865, and after a few years had passed away great fields of waving cane were to be seen in various parts of the country growing ripe and juicy beneath the tropical sun. The prices of cotton and sugar remained high for some years, but when the war was over they fell to their former rates and the planters of Q. found it necessary to find some cheaper substitute for their white labourers. At first it was proposed to bring over Hindoos from India, but nothing came of this idea, and afterwards when Chinese were introduced they were not found to give the satisfaction expected. But it happened that Robert Towns, one of the planters, was owner of a number of ships which traded to the South Sea Islands, and having persuaded a few of the islanders to cross to Q. he employed them on his sugar plantation. He took some trouble in teaching them the work he wished them to do and found that they soon became expert at it. As the remuneration they required was very small they served admirably to supply the necessary cheap labour. The practice of employing these South Sea Islanders or "Kanakas" as they were called soon became general, and parts of Q. had all the appearance of an American plantation where crowds of dusky figures decked in the brightest of colours plied their labours with laughter and with song, among the tall cane brakes

or the bursting pods of cotton. The Kanakas generally worked for a year or two in the colony, then having received a bundle of goods—consisting of cloth, knives, hatchets, beads, and so forth, to the value of about £10—they were again conveyed to their palm-clad islands. A system of this kind was apt to give rise to abuses; and accordingly it was found that a few of the more unscrupulous planters, not content with the ordinary profits, stooped to the shameful meanness of cheating the poor islander out of his hard-earned reward. They hurried him on board a vessel, and sent after him a parcel containing a few shillings worth of property; then, when he reached his home, he found that all his toil and his years of absence from his friends had procured him only so much trash. Happily this was not of very frequent occurrence; but there was another abuse both common and glaring. As the plantations in Q. increased they required more labourers than were willing to leave their homes; and as the captains of vessels were paid by the planters so much for every Kanaka they brought over, there was a strong temptation to carry off the natives by force, when by other means a sufficient number could not be obtained. There were frequent conflicts between the crews of labour vessels and the inhabitants of the islands. The white men burnt the native villages and carried off crowds of men and women; while in revenge the islanders often surprised a vessel and massacred its crew; and in such cases the innocent suffered for the guilty. The sailors often had the baseness to disguise themselves as missionaries, in order the more easily to effect their purpose; and when the true missionaries, suspecting nothing, approached the natives on their errand of good will, they were speared or clubbed to death by the unfortunate islanders. But as a rule the Kanakas were themselves the sufferers; the English vessels pursued their frail canoes, ran them down and sank them; then, whilst the men were struggling in the sea, they were seized and thrust into the hold, and the hatches were fastened down; and when in this dastardly manner a sufficient number had been gathered, and the dark interior of the ship was filled with a steaming mass of human beings densely huddled together, the captains set sail for Q., where they landed those of their living cargoes who had escaped the deadly pestilence which filth and confinement always engendered in such cases. These were the deeds of a few ruthless and disreputable seamen; but the people of Q. as a whole had no sympathy with such barbarities, and in 1868 they passed a law to regulate the labour traffic. It enacted that no South Sea Islanders were to be brought into the colony, unless the captain of the vessel could show a document signed by a missionary or British consul, stating that they had left the islands of their own free will; Government agents were to accompany every vessel, in order to see that the Kanakas were well treated on the voyage; and on leaving

the colony no labourer was to receive less than six pounds worth of goods for every year he had worked. These regulations were of great use, but they were often evaded; for by giving a present to the king of an island the sailors could bribe him to force his people to express their willingness before the missionary. The trembling men were brought forward, and under the fear of their chief's revenge they declared their perfect readiness to sail. Sometimes the Government agents on board the vessels were bribed not to report the misdeeds of the sailors; and in the case of the *Jason*, on which the agent was too honest to be so bribed, he was chained below by the captain on the pretence that he was mad. When the ship arrived in Q. the unfortunate man was found in a miserable state of filth and starvation. For this offence the captain was arrested, tried and imprisoned. The Imperial authorities have recently given their assistance to the Colonial Government to suppress this traffic and British cruisers now sail among all the islands to prevent the perpetration of such enormities.

XI. *Constitutional Progress.*—When in December 1859 in deference to the repeated petition of the leading settlers the Moreton Bay district was erected into an independent colony, the name of Queensland was given to it in honour of the august lady who has so long presided over the interests of the vast British Empire. From the date of the separation the colony advanced by rapid strides and soon began to take a place among the Australian group. The first Governor was Sir George Ferguson Bowen. In December 1861 the population had increased to 34,367, in the following year to 45,077, and in 1864 the census returns gave 74,036 persons. In 1860 the returns of stock were 23,504 horses, 432,890 horned cattle, 3,166,802 sheep, 7,147 pigs. In 1864 the exports had increased to £1,247,054, of which wool formed the chief item. In 1866 the shadows of adversity fell upon the young colony, and a season of disaster was experienced which is not even yet forgotten. The failure of the local bank, the depression in the pastoral interests, and bankruptcies in all quarters mark this as the black-letter year in the colony's history. In 1869 the population was enumerated at 109,897. In the same year the revenue from all sources was estimated at £772,851 and the expenditure at £784,356. On 31st December 1873 the population had increased to 146,690 and the revenue for the year was £1,120,034 13s. 8d., the expenditure being £154,856 9s. 6d. Sir George Bowen was succeeded in the governorship in August 1868 by Colonel Blackall, who however did not hold office for long, as he was seized with sickness in the latter part of 1870, to which he succumbed on 2nd January 1871. During his term of office he won the respect of all classes. The system of immigration at the expense of the colony now began to exert an influence on its fortunes, and the influx of large bodies of carefully-selected

immigrants has done much to develop the resources of the country. The Marquis of Normanby succeeded Colonel Blackall in August 1871; he was transferred to N.Z. in 1874, and was followed by Sir W. W. Cairns, who was appointed to the Governorship in August 1874, and was sworn in on 23rd January 1875. He did not stay out his full term of office, being transferred to S.A. in the early part of 1877. His successor was Sir Arthur Kennedy, late Governor of Hong Kong, who was sworn in on 10th April 1877. In the intervals between the departures and arrivals of Governors, the Government was ably administered by Colonel Sir Maurice Charles O'Connell. At the end of 1877 the population had increased to 203,084, the land under cultivation to 105,049 acres, sugar-cane covering 15,220 acres—evidences that the industry had established itself; the live stock was enumerated at 140,174 horses, 2,299,582 cattle, 6,272,766 sheep (the last figures showing a decrease owing to the drought and to more attention being paid to the rearing of cattle;) the yield of gold amounted to 234,851 ozs., of the value of £838,544, being the largest amount produced since the discovery; the exports had risen to £4,613,275, and the revenue to £1,436,581. During 1877-78 the colony suffered from a severe drought; a serious falling off in the gold returns from the far northern gold-fields, from which so much was expected; and a great depression in trade arising from the foregoing and other causes. Though both the grain and sugar harvests of 1878 were good, and the seasons for the pastoral interests very favourable, the improvement in the prospects of the colony had not been so great as was anticipated. Owing to the overcrowding of the labour market, free immigration was suspended in the early part of 1878; it is now resumed on a limited scale. The copper industry, for some little time has been in a depressed, if not moribund, state, owing to the low prices ruling in England, but there are some appearances of a revival. The gold returns have fallen off, though the decrease is believed to be attributable in a great measure to the decreased number of gold getters, as in some of the districts the yield shows an advance on the figures of 1878. On every account, from its vast extent, from its fertile soil, from its delicious climate, from its extensive seaboard and abundant watercourses, from its judicious institutions, and from the wise and temperate spirit which has hitherto prevailed in its administration, Q. deserves to be regarded as one of the most interesting and promising of these youthful States with which the maritime and colonial genius of England has studded the globe. It ranks fourth amongst the Australasian Colonies, and already high amongst the freest and most prosperous communities on the face of the earth.

QUIN, MATTHEW (1821—) Roman Catholic Bishop of Bathurst, N.S.W., is a native of Kildare in Ireland, and was educated in Rome at the Propaganda and Irish Colleges, where he studied

from 1837 to 1847. He was ordained a priest in February 1845, and consecrated Bishop in Dublin by Cardinal Cullen in November 1865. There are twenty-nine priests in his diocese, which extends to the borders of S.A. and Q., being divided from the diocese of Maitland by the Macquarie, and from the diocese of Goulburn by the Lachlan, Murrumbidgee and Murray.

QUIROS, PEDRO FERNANDEZ DE, Spanish navigator, was chief pilot to Mendana's expedition in 1595, and took command of it after the death of the leader and his brother-in-law, Lorenzo Berreto. After bringing the expedition back to Peru, Quiros made urgent applications to the Spanish Government to be allowed means "to plough up the waters of the unknown sea, and to seek out the undiscovered lands around the antarctic pole—the centre of that horizon." He expressed his determination to devote the remainder of his life to that object, and brought forward abstruse scientific arguments to prove the truth of the popular belief in the existence of a Great South Land. Phillip III. supplied funds to build three ships for another expedition, of which the chief command was entrusted to Quiros, Luis Vaez de Torres being appointed to the second place. Quiros sailed from Lima in 1605 and steered a course west-by-south. On the 10th of February 1606 he discovered the island now known as Tahiti, and on 26th April, having kept on in the same course, sighted land which he believed to be part of the new continent of which he was in search. He gave it the name of TIERRA AUSTRAL DEL ESPIRITU SANTO (the South Land of the Holy Spirit.) It is now generally believed that the land so named by Quiros was not in reality part of the Australian continent, but one of the islands of the group afterwards named the New Hebrides. The separation of the vessels forming the expedition, disputes with his officers, and the loss by sickness and accidents of many of his companions, prevented Quiros from ascertaining the extent and character of the land he had found, and soon after the officers and crew of his vessel determined to proceed no further. But two of the ships of the expedition under the command of Torres, after being separated from their consort, and not knowing of Quiros' determination to return, continued their course to the westward, and in a few days passed safely through the STRAITS dividing the continent of A. from New Guinea. Torres sighted the mainland at its most northern point, but took it for a group of small islands. Quiros returned to Acapulco nine months after his departure, and soon afterwards presented a memorial to the King of Spain, in which he enumerated twenty-three islands he had discovered, besides certain parts of a country which he believed was portion of the Australian mainland. He attempted with extraordinary perseverance to induce the King to grant him funds for another expedition. For many years he was unsuccessful, but at length in 1614 a commission was granted, and Quiros set out for

Lima to fit out his vessels. He died at Panama on his journey thither. He was the last of the illustrious line of great Spanish navigators.

R.

RAFFLES BAY, an indentation of Coburg Peninsula on the N.W. side of the continent, a little to the E. of Port Essington. It is named after Sir Thomas Stamford Raffles. Here a settlement was attempted, with Captain Barker as Superintendent, in 1823; but after a terrible struggle of three years was abandoned. In June 1827 Captain Sterling arrived in H.M.S. *Locust* and formed a small settlement at Fort Wellington on the N.E. coast of Raffles Bay. The colonists had a visit from one of the Malay vessels having a Dutch commander with a crew of fourteen men. She belonged to a fleet of fifty-two vessels which had left Macassar in company, with the object of fishing for trepang. They annually visit the northern coast of New Holland for that purpose.

RAM HEAD, a headland in Gippsland, V., a few miles to the S.W. of Cape Howe. It was the second point of land on the continent seen by Cook in 1770, and was named by him from its resemblance to Ram Head at the entrance to Plymouth Sound in England.

RANDELL, WILLIAM RICHARD (1824—) explorer, is a native of Devonshire in England. He came to S.A. in 1837, and was for some years engaged in pastoral pursuits. In 1853 he planned and built a steamer, the *Mary Ann*, for the River Murray navigation, and took her up to Maiden's Punt before Cadell, who was assisted by the Government. Randell in the *Mary Ann* pushed on to Maiden's Punt (Moama,) and on returning overtook at Euston the *Lady Augusta* with the Governor on board, and brought her despatches down to Adelaide. Two years after thus opening the Murray trade Randell constructed a more powerful twin steamer, which he named the *Gemini*, and in this he proceeded up the Murrumbidgee as far as where the township of Hay now stands, then known as Lang's Crossing. The following year he took the *Gemini* up the Darling, which had been previously navigated by Cadell as far as Mount Murchison. Randell went about 1000 miles further up the river to where the township of Brewarrina now stands, but the water being low a rapid prevented further progress. The next trip, the river being higher, he was enabled to go about 250 miles further up to Walgett on the Namoi, a tributary of the Darling, and then the farthest post-town in Riverina. Since then Randell has been constantly engaged in the Murray trade and has three steamers and six barges on the river. Great credit is due to him for having, unassisted, displayed so much perseverance in opening up a trade of such importance to S.A. and to the settlers on the river. He worked

with most untiring energy at the building of his steamers, though he had never been on board a steam-vessel in his life until he built the *Mary Ann*. His enterprise deserved substantial public recognition, and he received a bonus of £300 from the Government and a purse of £400 with a testimonial from the public.

RECHERCHE ARCHIPELAGO, a group of islands lying off the S.W. corner of the Continent, was so named from one of the ships in the expedition of D'Entrecasteaux, the French navigator, in 1792.

RECHERCHE ISLAND, in T., was similarly named.

REGENT'S LAKE, (Or CUDJALLAGONG,) in the district of Lachlan, N.S.W., near the Lachlan River, between the Baloon or Taylor's range and Peel's range, was named by Oxley in honour of the Prince Regent, afterwards George the Fourth.

REID, GEORGE HOUSTON (1845—) is a native of Scotland, and came to V. in 1852. In 1864 he received a junior appointment in the Civil Service of N.S.W.; in September 1869 was appointed Clerk of Correspondence in the Treasury department; and in 1878 Secretary to the Attorney-General. He is the author of *Five Free-Trade Essays*, and of a work entitled *New South Wales, the Mother Colony of the Australias*. For his *Essays* Reid was elected an Honorary Member of the Cobden Club in London.

RESTORATION ISLAND, an island of Q., lying off the N.E. coast of the continent a little to the S. of Cape Weymouth, and within the Great Barrier Reef. It is of some interest from having been first visited by Bligh in 1789, during his unparalleled voyage in the *Bounty* from the Society Islands. The name was given to it by Bligh from his having made it on the anniversary of the recall of Charles II. to the throne of England. It is a mass of granite.

RICHARDSON CREEK, in V., was discovered and named after one of Mitchell's party in 1836.

RICHARDSON, SIR JOHN LARKINS CHEESE (1810-1878) was a native of England, but born in Bengal. He was educated for the military profession, and in 1829 went to India as an artillery cadet. He entered the East India Company's Service in 1830, and for twenty-two years was engaged in active military service in India. In the Afghan and Sikh wars he was aide-de-camp to Sir H. Smith, and was wounded at Ferozeshah. He was engaged in Cabul in 1842, and received medals and clasps for these services. In 1851 he retired from the service, and in 1852 visited N.Z. and published an account of it entitled *A Summer's Excursion*, and also a volume in blank verse entitled *The First Christian Martyr in N.Z.* He returned to England the same year, but came to Otago in 1856 and settled in the Molyneux district. He was elected Member and Speaker of the Provincial Council, and in 1861 was chosen Superintendent of the Otago district, but in 1863

was defeated by Harris. He was again elected Member and Speaker of the Council, which post he held till 1865, when he resigned on taking office in the Stafford Government. From 1861 he was a Member of the General Assembly of N.Z. until he was elevated to the Upper House, of which he became Speaker. He was knighted for his public services in 1875.

RICHMOND, a river in N.S.W., falling into the Pacific about 500 miles N. of Sydney, and 12 miles to the southward of Cape Byron, discovered in 1842. For the first 20 miles of its course upward from the ocean, the Richmond runs parallel to the coast at the distance of from three to five miles from it, and the country on both sides is a mangrove swamp worthless for the purposes of man. Higher up the land begins to improve, and there is much brush land on both banks of the first quality for cultivation. Higher up still the river is found to divide itself into two streams—the main river, or South Arm, coming from the westward, and the North Arm, by far the larger of the two, from the northward. The North Arm is navigable a long way above Lismore, and a series of tributary streams or creeks fall into it. On these creeks, as well as on various others that fall into the main river below the junction, there are numerous extensive and rich cedar brushes, which afford constant and remunerative employment to a comparatively numerous population of cedar-cutters, many of whom have wives and large families, as also to various colonial vessels and their crews. It is principally as a field for the collection of cedar and other valuable timber for the colonial market that the North Arm of the Richmond, with its various creeks and tributaries, has hitherto been occupied. The land on the Richmond is too rich for sheep and gives them the foot-rot, and is therefore occupied almost exclusively as cattle stations. The Rev. W. Ridley visited the Richmond district in December 1857, and gives the following description of the scenery along the river:—"The scenery on both sides of the Richmond is truly enchanting. Close to the water's edge rises a complete wall of luxuriant foliage; fig trees, bean trees, pines, and a variety of other trees, stand thickly set and overhung with a rich drapery of creepers, presenting the forms of turrets, buttresses, festoons, and stalactites in endless variety, and bespangled with flowers and fruit. There is a purple convolvulus, wild roses, tulips, and some yellow flowers scattered high and low; and close to the water's edge a pure white lily. Cherries, figs, and mulberries overhang the water. The extensive brush land along the lower part of this river is more suitable for the culture of such produce as is expected at a future day to form the staple export of the district (cotton, sugar, maize, coffee, &c.), than the swamps higher up; and the ease with which any produce can be conveyed down by barges to shipping at the Heads will of course enhance the value of the land for such

purposes. But the vast outlay necessary in the first instance for clearing will probably postpone the occupation of the brush land until the most suitable swamps and plains have been brought into cultivation." The principal townships on this river are Lismore; Wyrallah, where there is a large saw-mill; Coraki, a rising township situated at the junction of the north and south arms of the Richmond, where there is a large ship-building yard; Woodburn, the seat of the sugar trade, where there are two large sugar-mills; and Ballina, the seaport town at the entrance of the river. The population of Lismore and vicinity is about 600, and the district is partly pastoral and agricultural, fine stock being raised, while sugar, maize, potatoes, &c., are grown, the land being well suited for cultivation. The main exports of Lismore are pine and cedar timber—of the former large quantities are exported, while maize and other colonial produce is rapidly increasing. The municipal district of Lismore was proclaimed on 4th March 1879.

RIDLEY, WILLIAM, M.A. (1819-1878) was a native of Hartford End in Essex, England, and was educated at King's College and London University. In 1850 he came with Dr. Lang to Sydney and was ordained a minister of the Presbyterian Church and appointed Professor of Greek, Latin and Hebrew in the Australian College. He then took pastoral charge at Portland Bay, Brisbane, and the Manning River; and afterwards devoted himself to missionary work amongst the aborigines. The care of his family caused him to relinquish this occupation and to come to Sydney, where he became connected with the *Empire* newspaper, and continued on that journal until its discontinuance. For the last five years of his life he was the principal editor of the *Evening News* and wrote for the *Town and Country Journal*. In 1877, at the request of the Presbyterian Synod, he acquired the Chinese language in order to take charge of the Chinese mission in Sydney. He gave much of his time to this task. Ridley was a man of extraordinary attainments as a linguist, and of a singularly pure and upright character. Whilst labouring as a missionary amongst the blacks in N.S.W. he studied their language and customs, and subsequently published a work on the Kamilaroi and other native dialects, which was printed at the expense of the Government, and is accounted of great value by ethnologists and philologists.

RINTEL, MOSES, S.J.M. (1824-1880) the first duly authorised Jewish minister in V., arrived in Sydney in 1844 where he established the Sydney Hebrew Society, of which he became the principal. In 1849 he accepted the office of minister to the newly-established Jewish Congregation of Melbourne. Circumstances compelled him to resign this charge, but he was invited to assist in the formation of a new Synagogue in East Melbourne. In 1864, mainly through his exertions, a duly constituted Beth Din, (Hebrew Court of Justice)—

the only one out of London—was established, of which he acted as chairman; and in 1868 the Chief Rabbi of Great Britain and its dependencies assigned to him the position of Senior Minister of the Melbourne Hebrew community.

RIOU, EDWARD, Lieutenant in the Royal Navy, was despatched from England in November 1790, in H.M.S. *Guardian*, with supplies of two years provision for the settlement at Sydney, together with clothing, bedding, sails and cordage for the ships, implements of agriculture and other stores. The ship arrived safely at the Cape of Good Hope where Riou took on board a quantity of live stock and a number of valuable fruit trees. Resuming her voyage on 23rd December the *Guardian* struck against an iceberg to the S. and E. of the Cape of Good Hope and was so much injured that the greater part of her valuable cargo was thrown overboard; most of the passengers and crew left her in five boats when they thought she was sinking. Riou remained with his ship but gave them despatches for the Admiralty and entreated that the country would protect and provide for his sister. Four of the boats were never heard of; the fifth crew after suffering great privations reached the Mauritius; but meanwhile the *Guardian* was fallen in with by a French frigate, towed into Table Bay, and Riou was saved to perish by a more glorious death, having been afterwards killed at the battle before Copenhagen in 1801. Nelson in his despatches styled Riou "the gallant and the good;" and Campbell has immortalised him in these terms in his famous ode on the "Battle of the Baltic."

RISDON COVE (Or **RESTDOWN**) is situated on the eastern bank of the Derwent River in T., a few miles from its mouth. It was the first settlement fixed on by Lieutenant Bowen in 1803, when sent with a detachment from Sydney to establish a penal settlement in V.D.L. The Cove was first seen and named by Hayes in 1794, and was visited by Flinders and Bass four years afterwards. When Collins arrived with his party from Port Phillip, Risdon Cove was found to be an unsuitable place for the settlement, and Sullivan's Cove, higher up the river—the site of Hobart Town—was selected instead.

RIVERINA. The name commonly given to the extensive region lying between the Murray and Darling rivers in N.S.W. of which Deniliquin is the capital. It is a purely pastoral region, and the description of it falls within the general description of the colony. Discontent with the treatment they receive from the Government at Sydney has sometimes induced the settlers to moot the question of separation from N.S.W. and annexation to V.; but nothing has ever yet come of these discussions. In V. the term "Riverina" is usually held to apply only to the district between the Murray and the Murrumbidgee, which from its geographical position, is more closely connected with that colony than with N.S.W.

ROBERTSON, SIR JOHN (1816—) is a native of Essex in England, and came to N.S.W. in 1820. The family lived for some years in Sydney where Robertson became one of Dr. Lang's first pupils, and this early relationship was by both remembered with pleasant reflections. The family removed to the Hunter River district in 1835. At the age of sixteen Robertson, having a desire to see the world, and having made good use of the opportunities offered for nautical practice on a small scale in Sydney harbour, entered on board the ship *Sovereign* and worked his way to England as one of the ship's company. Whilst in England he received an invitation from Lord Palmerston to accompany him on a visit to his country seat at Broadlands in Hampshire. He had carried home a letter from a young man, an assigned servant of his father's, to his relatives in England, who happened to be neighbours of Lord Palmerston's, and naturally wished information in reference to their banished son. Robertson was received most cordially and was asked about the affairs of the colony. He was absent for two years, and during that time visited different parts of England, Scotland and France, and then proceeded to Brazil and other parts of South America. On his return to N.S.W. he was persuaded to leave the sea, though he was in a fair way to success in that profession, and joined his father in the Northern district. He continued for many years in the management of stations and engaged in squatting and farming enterprises. He was while young called upon to undertake a duty of an important public nature on behalf of the squatters of the north. It had been reported to Governor Gipps that some of the squatters in the west had been destroying the natives by putting poison in the waterholes, and to prevent the repetition of the alleged crime Gipps refused to allow the squatters to take their cattle beyond the then limits. This was felt to be a hardship, and Robertson was deputed to wait on the Governor to represent the matter to him. He called a meeting at the Exchange in Sydney—the first squatters' meeting held in A.—at which he moved the first resolution. He had become a squatter before the commencement of the system of licenses, and held one of the first sets of licenses issued. This meeting was successful; the prohibition was withdrawn so far as the northern squatters were concerned, and on his return he received the thanks of his fellow-squatters. For several years before the introduction of responsible Government he was regarded by the settlers of the Upper Hunter and surrounding districts as the man who was marked out by his public spirit and ability as entitled to receive the expression of their confidence, so soon as the new Constitution should place them in a position to choose their representative. He first became known as a politician in the discussion of Responsible Government, National Education, and the Administration of the Lands. His views on these questions approved themselves to the minds

of his fellow-colonists in that quarter, and when the new Constitution came into operation in 1856 he was the first in the colony who received a requisition to offer himself as a candidate. In his reply—the first published by a candidate under the new Constitution—he set forth the line of action which he would pursue if elected. The chief objects which he pledged himself to pursue were,—Manhood Suffrage, Vote by Ballot, the Division of Electoral Districts on a Population Basis, the Abolition of State-aid to Religion, National Education, and Free Selection over the Public Lands of the Colony. To the attainment of these objects he devoted his best energies, and had the satisfaction of seeing all of them accomplished, having taken a prominent part in carrying all of them into effect. From the time of his first candidature until now he has been remarkable for the consistency with which he has adhered to the principles he announced at the outset of his career. He was elected for the district of Phillip, Brisbane, and Bligh. When the Ministry of the day brought forward their Land Bill, he proposed to insert clauses providing for free selection over the public lands “surveyed or unsurveyed.” This clause met so little favour that only nine Members voted with him. Upon the defeat of his amendment, he moved that the Bill be considered in Committee that day six months. The squatters now joined the advocates of free selection in opposition to the Ministers, and the Bill was thrown out. The Government brought in another Bill, with clauses increasing the rental of runs. This Bill Robertson supported; but the measure was defeated by the squatters, and Parliament was dissolved. Cowper invited Robertson to join his Ministry, and he became Minister for Lands and Works in January 1858. On 22nd February he issued regulations providing that all future pastoral leases should be made subject to whatever conditions Parliament might impose when they came to legislate on the subject; so that when legislation took place in 1861 Parliament dealt with the subject from the previous date. He next gave his assistance in carrying an Electoral Act. But before the second reading of the Bill came on, the Government were defeated on their Education Bill, and resigned in October 1859. A few weeks previously the department of Lands and Works was divided, and Robertson became Minister for Lands. The Forster Ministry succeeded; and Black, Minister for Lands, with Flood, Minister for Works, prepared a Bill the main feature of which was a limited right of selection over proclaimed agricultural areas. This measure however never came to a Parliamentary decision, as the Government was defeated on its Elective Upper House Bill, and compelled to retire by a vote of want of confidence. Cowper having retired from Parliament, Robertson was left at the head of the party in the Assembly, and was therefore called on to form an Administration, which he did in March 1860. His first business was the

introduction of his Land Bill. The main principle of the Crown Lands Alienation Bill was, on a motion by Hay, rejected by a small majority. The result was an appeal to the people on the question of “Free Selection before Survey,” or rather (according to the purport and effect of the Bill itself) “Free Selection over the Public Lands Surveyed and Unsurveyed.” The new Parliament assembled on 10th January 1861, and passed Robertson’s Land Bill; though, in order to secure the result, he himself retired from the Assembly and entered the Council as a nominee, to assist in passing the measure through the Upper House. This Parliament also passed the Act to prohibit future grants for Public Worship. In 1866 Parkes brought in his Public Schools Bill; and notwithstanding the usual opposition between the two leaders and their respective parties, Parkes received the cordial support of Robertson, who has thus taken part in the accomplishment of all the chief measures comprised in the political creed he put forth on his first appeal to the electors in 1856. In October 1868 he again became Premier and Colonial Secretary; but in January 1870 he gave up the Premiership to Cowper, himself taking the Lands department; from December 1870 to May 1872 he was Colonial Secretary in the Martin Ministry. On 9th February 1875 he formed another Ministry, in which he took the Colonial Secretary’s department; this Government lasted until March 1877. After receiving several offers of distinction, which were however declined, he was in 1877 created a K.C.M.G. On 17th August he again became Colonial Secretary; but the Government retired in December. At the general election following the agitation that prevailed in consequence of the frequent changes of government producing so small an amount of legislation, resulted in the defeat of Robertson in West Sydney, (his rival Parkes, being defeated in East Sydney;) but he was immediately chosen afterwards to represent two constituencies—Mudgee and the Bogan. When the House met, Robertson elected to take his seat for Mudgee. On the defeat of the Farnell Ministry Robertson was sent for to form a Government, but being unsuccessful he resigned his seat in the Assembly; and the Farnell Ministry attempting to continue to carry on the Government, was again defeated and Robertson joined Parkes in December 1878, in forming the present Administration (1879,) taking his seat in the Upper House as Vice-President of the Executive Council and Representative of the Government.

ROBE, FREDERICK HOLT, Governor of S.A. from October 1845 to August 1848, in succession to Sir George Grey. He is described as “a military gentleman of what is called the old school, honourable and upright, but inclined to think that everything ought always to be as it has been. He disliked all innovation, and did what he could to prevent it, much to the discontent of the young and thriving colony, which was of

necessity the scene of constant and rapid changes. He passed a very troublous time for three years, and in 1848 was heartily glad to be re-called."

ROBINSON, —, the Protector of the Aborigines in V.D.L., was in 1829 appointed to take charge of Bruné Island, where twelve natives captured in the "Black War" were confined and mixed with others who had attained to some degree of civilisation. Robinson acquired the native language and endeavoured to civilise the blacks by humane treatment and persuasion. They became strongly attached to him and called him their *marmanake* or father. On the failure of the Black War he offered to go alone and on foot to the savage tribes, explain to them that the intentions of the settlers were peaceful and offer them the friendship of the white nation. After many adventures he succeeded. By the aid of interpreters and friendly natives the aboriginal population were made to understand that it was useless for them to contend against the power of the white race, and the tragic story of murder and revenge ended in the founding of a native village at Flinders Island, where the remnant of the conquered race might find an asylum and a grave. West gives a graphic account of the dangers and intrepidity of Robinson. On one occasion he was following a tribe who had fled in the direction of the Peak of Teneriffe:—"He saw them first to the east of the Barn Bluff Mountain, and was not more than two miles distant. He hailed his people and selected a few of his friendly natives who, together with the women present at the murder of Captain Thomas, were sent to meet them. The party of Robinson were concealed by a scrub. In less than half-an-hour he heard the war-whoop and perceived that they were advancing by the rattling of their spears. This was an awful moment to their pacificator. On their approach the chief, Manalanga, leaped on his feet in great alarm, saying that the natives were coming to spear them; he urged Robinson to run, and finding he would not took up his rug and spears and went away. The rest of the allies prepared to follow him but were prevailed on by Robinson to remain. They inferred that the natives sent on the embassy of peace were either killed, or that they had joined the hostile tribe. As these advanced the friendly emissaries were unseen, being hidden by the large number of strangers who still raised their cry and approached in warlike array. At length Robinson saw his own people; he then went up to the chiefs and shook hands with them. He explained the object of his visit; distributed trinkets among them, and sat down and partook of refreshments with them. From that time they placed themselves under his control, and as they advanced towards Hobart Town, he encouraged them to make excursions, which left their own actions free and prevented suspicion and distrust. With their wives and children, this party consisted of thirty-six, and at length they were safely lodged on Swan Island. They were fine muscular men and excited

great sympathy and interest. This incident suggested to the venerable artist Duterreau the idea of a national picture; he depicts the interview, and delineates the various circumstances drawn from life with great energy and effect. Robinson is seen in expostulation with a listening chief; a woman behind him is endeavouring to pour distrust into his ear. Others are looking on in expectation or in doubt. The grouping is skilful and expressive; and this picture which has the great merit of minutely representing the attitudes and customs of the natives, will be an interesting memorial, in another age, of the most honourable passage in Tasmanian history. The results of his enterprise produced a strong impression in favour of Robinson. He had been thought rash and fanatical; his death had been predicted a hundred times; his success was attributed, half in jest and half in earnest, to some species of animal enchantment. The Government, at the suggestion of the committee, acknowledged his exertions, not only with warm eulogy but substantial reward." He received a maximum grant of land, and pensions were provided for his wife and children in case of his death. Robinson had been a carpenter at Hobart Town, and a man of indomitable courage and bravery. He lived to see the last of the Aboriginal race leave the shores of T. "His name (writes West) will be held in everlasting remembrance."

ROBINSON, SIR HERCULES GEORGE ROBERT (1824—) is a native of Ireland, and second son of Admiral Robinson. He was educated at Sandhurst, and entered the 87th regiment; but in 1846 retired from the army, and was employed under the Poor Law Board in Ireland on the public works undertaken during the famine. In 1852 he was made Chief Commissioner to inquire into the fairs and markets of Ireland; in 1854 he was made President of Montserrat, and in 1856 Lieutenant-Governor of St. Christopher in the West Indies. In 1859 he received the honour of knighthood, and was appointed Governor of Hong Kong. In 1865 he was appointed Governor of Ceylon, and in 1872 was transferred to N.S.W. In 1874 he visited Fiji, and obtained the cession of these islands to Great Britain. He was Acting Governor of them until the arrival of Sir Arthur Gordon; and in March 1879 he was appointed Governor of N.Z. Hardly had he assumed the government there than he was appointed by the Imperial Government to take the Government of the Cape of Good Hope. Robinson is an eloquent speaker, and his speeches on a variety of subjects delivered during his term of office as Governor of N.S.W. merit preservation in the annals of oratory. He possesses a powerful intellect added to great determination of character.

ROBINSON, WM. CLEAVER FRANCIS (1834—) brother of the foregoing, is the fourth son of Admiral Robinson and a native of Ireland. In 1856 he accompanied his brother to St. Kitts, and

in 1859 to Hong Kong as his Private Secretary. In 1862 he was appointed President of Montserrat. During 1865 he was Acting-Governor of Dominica. In 1866 he was made Governor of the Falkland Islands, and in 1870 of Prince Edward Island, until its incorporation with the Dominion of Canada in 1873. In November 1874 he was appointed Governor of W.A., and in 1877 Governor of the Straits Settlement.

ROBINSON'S CREEK, a beautiful stream of water in Q., was discovered by Leichhardt during his wanderings overland to Port Essington. It is a branch of the Palmtree Creek, and was named in gratitude towards J. P. Robinson for his support of the expedition.

ROCKHAMPTON, a town in Q., on the south bank of the Fitzroy River, forty-five miles from its mouth, at the head of Navigation, and about 420 miles N.W. of Brisbane. It owes its origin to the "Port Curtis rush." It is the port of shipment for a large extent of back country, and also for some of the produce of the Peak Downs copper and gold mines. It is also the starting point of the Great Northern Railway. The number of inhabitants is about 7000. The town was proclaimed a municipality on 15th December 1860. It is well supplied with water, brought from extensive lagoons some two miles distant, and pumped by steam power into an artificial reservoir at the summit of an intervening range 150 feet in height. The Fitzroy bridge, a fine structure, resting on piers with five spans of 232 feet each, connects with the north side. The gold-fields in the vicinity of Rockhampton give employment to a large number of miners. Minerals are widely diffused; gold, copper and silver deposits being now worked in various places within a radius of forty miles of the town. About four miles from Rockhampton is an establishment for meat-preserving, which employs when in full work 100 hands. Other works or factories near the town are a tannery, two soap factories, a machine boot factory, and two or three boiling-down establishments. Rockhampton is surrounded by land of good quality, especially suitable for grazing purposes. The Barcoo, Thompson, Darr, Diamantina, Hamilton and Herbert Rivers to the westward run through some of the finest pastoral country in Q. It is being rapidly stocked, and adds much to the importance of Rockhampton, the town being its natural outlet.

RODONDO ISLAND lies off the southernmost point of Wilson's Promontory in V., in Bass Straits. It was named by its discoverer, Grant, from its resemblance to a rock bearing that name well known to all seamen in the West Indies.

ROE, J. S., explorer, accompanied King in his expedition to survey the N. and N.W. coasts of the continent in 1818, and again in 1821 in King's fourth expedition. He was subsequently appointed Surveyor General of W.A., and took part in nearly every exploring expedition sent forth in that

colony. He started from York in September 1848 with a party of six persons, eleven horses and provisions for four months. In October they reached the Pallinup, the last water crossed by Eyre, and steering N.E. crossed several good streams. Then succeeded dense scrubs, dry water-courses and salt lakes, till they reached the Bremer Range. No better view could be obtained from the Fitzgerald Peaks at a thousand feet above the level of the plains. "In every direction lay spread out one vast sea of dark scrub and thicket intersected by broad belts of salt lakes and samphire marshes." A retreat to the south towards Mount Ridley showed no better country. Four days and three nights they were without water, and the flashes of the Aurora Australis added to the horrors of the scene. Still struggling to attain the Russell Mountains, cutting their way with axes through thickets fifteen feet high, they at length reached the range in lat. 33° 27' and found further progress impossible. The party returned by Esperance Bay. On the Phillips River they found extensive coal deposits, and on 2nd February returned to Perth after an exploration of 1800 miles. Roe is styled the "Father of Modern Explorers."

ROLLESTON, CHRISTOPHER (1817—) a native of Nottinghamshire in England, came to N.S.W. in 1838, and was for some years engaged in farming on the Hunter River. In 1843 he was appointed Commissioner for Crown Lands for the Darling Downs district. In 1855 he was appointed Private Secretary to Governor Dennison, and in 1856 Registrar-General of N.S.W. In this office he framed and introduced the existing system of registration. The Statistical branch of the Colonial Secretary's Department was transferred to the Registrar-General's Department in 1858, and in that year the *Statistical Register* for N.S.W. was first issued. The Registration of Deeds was transferred to his department at the same time; and in 1863 the Real Property Act was passed, and its introduction devolved upon Rolleston. In November 1864 he was appointed Auditor-General. In 1870 the present Audit Act was passed, under which the finances are now administered, the value of this measure being evidenced by the order and regularity shown in the annual accounts laid before Parliament.

ROPER, JOHN (1824—) explorer, is a native of Norfolk in England and came to N.S.W. in 1843. The following year he joined Leichhardt's expedition overland to Port Essington. On 28th June 1845 the party was attacked by the natives near the Gulf of Carpentaria, and Russell received several dangerous spear wounds, but happily survived. Gilbert the naturalist of the party was killed, and Calvert dangerously wounded. Roper discovered the river which was named after him. In 1847 he was appointed Clerk of Petty Sessions at Albury, a Magistrate in 1854, and Mayor of Albury in 1862. In 1868 he was made Inspector of Stock for the district, which office he still holds.

ROPER RIVER, a beautiful river of Q. It was discovered by Roper of Leichhardt's party during his overland journey to Port Essington. It empties its waters into the Gulf of Carpentaria opposite to Maria Island.

ROSEMARY ISLAND lies off the N.W. coast of the Continent between the Islands of Legendre and Enderby: it is one of Dampier's Archipelago. It was discovered and named by Dampier on 14th August 1699. Having anchored he found on this island a shrub resembling rosemary but without smell.

ROUS, HENRY JOHN (1795-1877) Admiral in the British Navy, was a son of the Earl of Stradbroke. He was educated at Dr. Burney's academy in Gosport, and joined H.M.S. *Repulse* as a midshipman in 1808. From this he went to the *Bacchante* and distinguished himself in several boat actions. In 1823 he obtained his first command, and in 1825 came to Sydney in the *Rainbow* and was stationed in Australian waters for four years. During this period he imported the horse Emigrant, the sire of some of the best Australian horses. In August 1829 he discovered the Richmond and the Clarence Rivers. In 1830 he went on half-pay until 1835, when he brought the *Pique* home from Quebec to Spithead after she had been on the rocks on the Labrador coast. He was for many years of the latter part of his life President of the London Jockey Club, and famous as a patron of field sports. Rous's character as a gentleman of the highest honour and integrity stood very high.

RUATARA, a native of N.Z., and an intelligent traveller. In 1805, when a lad, he shipped on board a whaler, and after many adventures reached London in 1809. He returned to Australia with the Rev. Mr. Marsden, and resided for a year with that gentleman at Parramatta, learning agriculture. From Sydney he proceeded to N.Z., which he reached after a long detention at Norfolk Island. In 1814 he again visited Sydney accompanied by Hongi; and returned with Marsden and the missionaries to N.Z., where he died a few days afterwards. He was the first native who cultivated wheat, and was instrumental in introducing Christianity and letters among his countrymen.

RUFUS RIVER, a river of N.S.W. running into the Murray below its junction with the Murrumbidgee and Darling Rivers; it is distant 240 miles from Adelaide. It was humorously named by Sturt after Mr. Macleay's (one of his party) red hair.

RUSDEN, GEORGE WILLIAM (1819—) came to N.S.W. in 1834. In 1849 he was appointed agent for National Schools, first in Port Phillip, afterwards in Moreton Bay and N.S.W. In 1851 he accepted the post of chief clerk in the Colonial Secretary's Office in V., and in 1856 was appointed Clerk of the Parliaments. In 1860 Rusden originated the fund for the Shakespeare Statue and Scholarship in the University of Melbourne. He

is the author of a work on National Education; *Moyarra*, a poem; a translation of *Les Propos of Labienus*; *The Discovery, Survey, and Settlement of Port Phillip*; *Curiosities of Colonisation*; and various other pamphlets.

RUSSELL, HENRY CHAMBERLAIN, Government Astronomer of N.S.W., is a native of the colony, born at West Maitland in March 1836. He was educated at the Grammar School of West Maitland and the Sydney University, where he graduated B.A. in 1858, took a scholarship for general proficiency and the Deas-Thomson scholarship for chemistry and physics. In January 1859 he was appointed assistant in the Sydney Observatory, and Government Astronomer in August 1870. In 1872 he was elected Fellow of the Royal Astronomical Society of London; in 1874 Fellow of the Meteorological Society of London; and in 1875 Honorary Member of the South Australian Philosophical Society, and Member of the Royal Colonial Institute of London. Under his directions an extensive set of meteorological observations has been collected from all parts of the colony, which throws much light on the climate and rainfall of A. In 1874 he organised four distinct parties for observing the transit of Venus, and obtained more photographs than were taken in any other country. The results were used with great advantage by the Astronomer Royal of England in the determination of the sun's true distance from the earth. He has published numerous papers on subjects connected with astronomy and meteorology. An unsuccessful attempt was made upon his life by means of a kind of infernal machine on the 8th September 1877.

RUSSELL, a township in N.Z., the native name of which is Kororareka. It is the capital of the Bay of Islands County and situated about 140 miles N. of Auckland. It is the principal shipping port in the north and possesses one of the finest harbours in the world, completely sheltered from every storm and wind by the numerous islands—nearly one hundred—that give the bay its appropriate name. The bay is eleven miles across and is all deep water. Vessels of any draught can go in and out in all weathers and at any state of tide. It is a port of entry and a large number of vessels use the port. Russell has been termed, from its coal deposits and exports, the Newcastle of N.Z. The Rev. S. Marsden, father of the mission in N.Z., first landed here in 1814 and found the natives numerous and warlike. His mission was a successful one. Other missionaries came, followed by a goodly number of settlers. Russell rapidly grew in importance, and in 1839 was proclaimed the capital of the colony, having a resident Governor (Hobson) who resided here from January 1840 to March 1841, a garrison, ships of war, Government buildings, a newspaper, bank and other institutions, and numbered over 2000 inhabitants. This peaceful state of things was disturbed by the native war in 1842, when the famous chief Heki

and his numerous followers devastated the district, dispersed the settlers, and caused the removal of the seat of government to Auckland, then only a native village and plantation. On the conclusion of peace the present town rose from the ashes of the previous one. It now numbers about 320 European inhabitants, but this does not give any idea of the district, which is very scattered, and there are numerous other settlements in the county, inland and on the coast. The principal one is Kawakawa, a mining town about fourteen miles up the river of the same name. The coal of the district has good steaming qualities and the shipments are very large. The seam in work at the Coal Company's mine is twelve feet in thickness, employs 120 hands when in full work, and the out-put is estimated at 6000 tons a month. Russell is the chief whaling station in the South Pacific. The American whalers call as a rule twice a year and remain about a month while taking in water and provisions. There are several whaling stations established in and about the bay, which are a source of profit to the enterprising natives and others engaged in the business. Manganese mining is also carried on near the township. The exports are coal, gum, timber, oil, wool, flax, manganese, oysters and fish. Around the town the land is poor and broken. Inland are rich plains mostly in native hands. The principal rivers falling into the bay are the Kawakawa, Waikare and Kerikeri, all of which have deep water some miles up at all times of the tide. The hills are densely wooded with the useful timbers so well known in N.Z. and the Australian Colonies. Salt is also manufactured in limited quantities.

S.

SAAVEDRA, ALVAREZ DE, Portuguese navigator, was the second European navigator who touched New Guinea, on his homeward voyage from the Moluccas in 1528, from New Spain; and from an idea that the country abounded in gold he gave it the name of *Isla del Oro*. He stayed a month and obtained provisions, but some Portuguese deserted with the only boat the ship had and were left behind. They found their way to Gilolo, and reported that Saavedra had been wrecked; but on his subsequent arrival they were tried, condemned and executed. In 1529 he sailed a second time from New Spain, and followed the coast of Papua eastwards above 500 leagues.

SALAMANCA HILL, in the district of Wimmera, V., near Mitre Lake, was ascended by Mitchell on the anniversary of the battle of Salamanca in 1836. Hence the name.

SALVATOR RIVER, in Q., was discovered by Mitchell in July 1846, and named after the celebrated Italian painter, Salvator Rosa. He writes in his journal:—"Travelling along the bank of this stream we found it flowing and full of

sparkling water to the margin. The reeds had disappeared, and we could only account for the supply of such a current in such a country at such a season by the support of many springs. We made sure of water now for the rest of our journey, and that we might say of the river, *Labitur et labetur in omne volubilis ævum*. The hills overhanging it surpassed any I had ever seen in picturesque outline. Some resembled Gothic cathedrals in ruins, others forts; other masses were perforated, and being mixed and contrasted with the flowing outlines of evergreen woods, and having a fine stream in the foreground, gave a charming appearance to the whole country. It was a discovery worthy of the toils of a pilgrimage. These beautiful recesses of unpeopled earth could no longer remain unknown. The better to mark them out on my map I gave to the valley the name of *Salvator Rosa*."

SANDY CAPE, on the east coast of Q., was so named by Cook from his having observed two large patches of white sand on it. The cape is sufficiently high to be seen at the distance of twelve leagues in clear weather.

SALE, the principal town in the Gippsland district, V., is 127 miles E.S.E. from Melbourne, with which it is connected by railway. It stands thirty-two feet above the level of the sea. It possesses a mechanics' institute with free library, an hospital, and churches for all the religious denominations. Three breweries, a flour-mill and a tannery are in operation. The population is about 3000; the district, which is a pastoral, agricultural and mining one, numbering 22,500. The town is under municipal government. Sale is the head of the Gippsland Lakes navigation. A steamer plies regularly on the lakes, and a large trade in fish has recently been opened with Melbourne. There are large tracts of rich agricultural land, much of it densely covered with scrub, and requiring capital for its clearance and preparation for tillage. About fifteen miles from Sale is the Ramahyuck Aboriginal Station, on the River Avon. It consists of thirteen cottages, missionary's house, church, school-house, and boarding-house for children, arranged so as to form three sides of a quadrangle. Arrowroot, hops and vegetables are grown here, and the first-named is a decided success. The school has a high percentage of marks, and at a recent visitation the children answered questions promptly and intelligently, and sang tunes to an harmonium accompaniment played by a native girl.

SAMUEL, SAUL (1820—) a native of London, came to N.S.W. in 1832. In 1854 he was elected to the Legislative Council for Roxburgh and Wellington. With one short interval he represented the same part of the country until 1872, being for several years Member of the Assembly for Orange. He was made Treasurer in Forster's Administration in 1859; he was also Treasurer in Cowper's Ministry in 1865, and in Robertson's

Ministry in 1868, and again in Cowper's Ministry in 1870. In 1872 having been elected for East Sydney he joined the Ministry of Parkes as Vice-President of the Executive Council. He resigned his seat in the Assembly, and was made a Member of the Legislative Council to represent the Government in that chamber. When Piddington was disabled through illness for his duties as Treasurer, Samuel undertook to discharge them. When Piddington retired from office Lloyd was appointed his successor, and Samuel took the office of Postmaster-General. In this position he had the honour of opening the new General Post-office, and on that occasion gave the citizens an entertainment memorable in the history of the country. In 1873 Samuel was specially delegated by the Government to visit Europe and America, to make arrangements for the establishment of the Pacific Mail Service. This he succeeded in doing, and was entertained at a public dinner on his return to the colony in 1874, besides having the distinction of C.M.G. conferred upon him by Her Majesty. He again in 1877 became a Member of the Parkes Ministry, in which he held the office of Postmaster-General. With Charles Cowper he represented N.S.W. at the Conference held in Melbourne in 1870, for the purpose of endeavouring to bring about a settlement of the Border Customs Duties and other matters affecting the interests of the colonies. He was also a member of the Conference held in Sydney in 1873, representing N.S.W. in conjunction with Parkes. During his absence from the colony in 1873 Samuel visited the United States and made a Postal Convention with that Government. He is the author of several measures which have become law; amongst others the Navigation Act and the Government Savings Bank Act; and has been for many years prominently connected with the mining, commercial, manufacturing and pastoral enterprises of the colony, and has contributed largely to the development of its industries.

SANDHURST, a mining township in V., more familiarly known as **BENDIGO** (a corruption and abbreviation of *Bandicoot Creek*.) It is 100 miles N.N.W. of Melbourne, and is on the main line of railway from Melbourne to Echuca. It takes rank among the leading towns—or rather cities, for it has been proclaimed one since 18th June 1871—of V., and is in fact considered to be second only to Melbourne. It is the head-quarters of a rich auriferous country, consisting principally of quartz ranges, which from their most inexhaustible character will doubtless be a source of profitable industry for many years to come. It may fairly be considered to be the premier goldfield, having since the spur given to quartz-reefing enterprise in 1872 greatly extended in every direction, and deep sinking receiving a far greater share of attention than heretofore. The discovery of rich alluvial deposits of gold in 1851 was the first cause of the population of the district, but it was not until the opening up of the quartz reefs that it began to

develop into a town of some dimensions. The main street, named Pall Mall, has on one side handsome brick and stone shops and stores, the opposite side being a reserve known as Rosalind Park. The city is lighted with gas, and supplied with water from the Victoria Water Supply, the principal reservoir being the Crusoe Reservoir, situated about six miles distant south. Besides the Crusoe there are two other large reservoirs—the Big Hill and the Spring Gully—all in connection with what is called the “Coliban scheme.” There are two recreation reserves—the Camp Reserve and the Botanical Gardens; the latter beautifully laid out and planted with choice and rare shrubs, and having a fair collection of foreign animals and birds. The industries of Sandhurst besides that of gold mining are numerous, the most important being several breweries, iron-foundries, coach-building, pottery, stone-cutting, tanning, brick and tile making works, cordial manufacture, and in addition farming and vine-growing. The wines from the Axe Creek district in the vicinity have attracted attention in the foreign markets. The district has been created a bishopric in connection with the Roman Catholic denomination, the Rev. Martin Crane, D.D., having been appointed first Bishop. The mining operations in the entire Sandhurst district give employment to 5560 miners, of whom 780 are Chinese, and to 217 steam engines, of which six are used for alluvial purposes. There are fifty-six horse puddling machines, 1260 stamp-heads, and numerous smaller appliances, the value of the whole being estimated at £454,000. Mining operations extend over 144 square miles of country, and there are 775 distinct auriferous quartz reefs. The yield of gold from the Sandhurst mines for the half-year ending 30th June 1879 was 79,040 ozs. 12 dwt. 24 grs. A company working a chlorination process here has been very successful in its treatment of pyrites tailings and the extraction of gold. Of late the area of land under cultivation has extended; wheat is the principal crop. The total population of the city is about 27,000.

SANDRIDGE, the port of Melbourne, V., is situated on Hobson's Bay, one and a-half miles S. of the city, of which it really forms a suburb. It is connected with Melbourne by the Hobson's Bay Railway, which, originally built by a private company, was bought by the Government in June 1878. The business of the town is almost entirely dependent on the shipping. There are two piers, the railway and the town pier, jutting a long way into the bay, alongside which ships of almost any tonnage can lie and be rapidly loaded or discharged, there being numerous steam cranes for that purpose. The population is about 8000. Sandridge has a sugar-refining works and a biscuit factory.

SAUNDERS, JOHN, the first Baptist minister in A., was a native of London, of which city he was a Liveryman. He was originally articled to an attorney, in which profession he remained for fourteen years. During that period he devoted

himself to the study of the Scriptures and to prepare himself for the ministry of the Gospel. Soon after his ordination as a minister of the Baptist Church he left England for N.S.W. as chaplain to a female convict ship, which arrived in Port Jackson in December 1834. During his stay in the colony Saunders was one of the earliest and most earnest advocates of total abstinence and of the formation of societies for the suppression of the liquor traffic. He returned in 1848 to England, where he died.

SAWYER, WILLIAM COLLINSON (1831-1867) first Bishop of Grafton and Armidale, was consecrated Bishop of that See in February 1867. He had only taken charge of the diocese about three months when on Sunday night, 15th March 1868, he was drowned with his son and servant in the Clarence River. After holding Divine service he had started with five others in a boat for his home. They had proceeded about two miles when a sudden gust of wind capsized the boat, and the whole six were precipitated into the river. His body was recovered on the Tuesday following. His energy, self-denial, ability, and friendly demeanour had secured to him many attached friends besides those connected with his Church. He was a man admirably qualified for the work for which he had been selected, and was universally respected and loved.

SCHANCK, CAPE, OR **DARRINGURK**, is a bold rocky promontory standing out into Bass Straits, between Port Phillip and Western Port Bay, in V. There is a small rock lying off the point of the Cape, called from its shape Pulpit Rock; on the highest portion of the Cape is a lighthouse. The Bay is known as Barker's Watering-place. It was discovered by Grant in 1800, and named by him after Admiral Schanck.

SCHNAPPER ISLAND, in Western Port Bay, V., was discovered by Grant in 1801, and named from its fancied resemblance to a schnapper's head.

SCHOMBURGK, RICHARD VON (1811—) director of the Botanic Gardens of Adelaide, S.A., is a native of Fribault in Saxony. His brother Sir Robert Schomburgk has made himself a name as a traveller, in connection with the discoveries of Alexander von Humboldt, the greatest scientific traveller of his time. Richard Schomburgk after passing through his elementary education studied botany in Berlin, and was for some time in the Royal Gardens at Potsdam. As a young man he gave practical proof of his capability under the supervision of his brother, and was his companion in some of his perilous voyages. After a series of expeditions in the pursuit of science Schomburgk returned to Germany, and being concerned in the political troubles of the day, with some difficulty and by the assistance of his friends Humboldt and Leopold von Buch, he fled with his brother Otto from his native land and embarked for Australia. They arrived at Adelaide, purchased land at Gambier River and cultivated a farm and large

vineyard which they called Buchfeld, in honour of their friend and patron. The wines of Buchfeld soon obtained a splendid reputation. But after they had been in the colony some ten years Otto Schomburgk died. On the death of Francis, Director of the Adelaide Botanic Gardens, the appointment was offered to Schomburgk and accepted in 1866. Nature had done little for the Adelaide Botanic Gardens. The site was nothing but a waste flat. The result of the management of Schomburgk is a magnificent work of art, the admiration of visitors. Since taking the management of the gardens, Schomburgk has devoted a considerable portion of his time to the task of creating a taste for floriculture amongst all classes, and to the introduction of valuable plants and seeds which he deemed likely to prove of value as articles of commerce. He has written many papers on the culture of tobacco, the sugar-cane, sericulture, flax and hemp, beet-root, hops, and many other valuable plants. So valuable in the view of the S. A. Government were the information and instructions thus given that they published several of these papers as supplements to the *Government Gazette* of that colony. Nor was Schomburgk content with giving information by means of his writings. He also gave practical proofs and lessons, and largely distributed seed amongst the farmers of S. A. Honours of all kinds have unsolicited been conferred on him. He is a Knight of the Imperial Order of the Crown; of the Order of Merit of Philippe the Magnanimous, first class; Member of the Imperial Carol. Leopold. Academy; Honorary Member of the Botanical Society, Magdeburg; of the Horticultural Society, Frankfort; of the Horticultural Society of Victoria; of the Agricultural and Horticultural Society of Adelaide; of the Chamber of Manufactures, Adelaide; also Corresponding Member of the Zoological Society, London; of the Royal Botanical Society, London; of the Botanical Society, Edinburgh; of the Geographical Society, Berlin; and of the Horticultural Society, Berlin. He holds an order and medals from the Emperor of Germany, and another order of merit from the Duke of Hesse.

SCOTCH MARTYRS (THE.) In September 1794 four gentlemen, generally known as the Scotch Martyrs—Muir, Palmer, Skirving and Margarot—arrived in the colony of N.S.W. as political prisoners; and a few months afterwards another named Gerrold was sent to bear them company. The British Government had taken alarm at the progress of what were then thought to be revolutionary doctrines, and had put into operation repressive laws which were a disgrace to any country. These five gentlemen were men of peaceable lives and most estimable characters, but were amongst the earliest victims of the terror into which the English governing classes were thrown by the French Revolution. They were transported for the crime of advocating reform. The fate of four out of five of these Scotch Martyrs was very melancholy. Gerrold died within about

a year of his landing in the colony, having never recovered from the shock his constitution had suffered when his sentence was pronounced. Three days after him Skirving also died of a broken heart. Palmer, who was a clergyman, lingered until the expiration of his sentence, but died on his homeward voyage. Muir, who had been an advocate at the Scotch bar, made his escape from the colony in a vessel called the *Otter*, and was wrecked on the west coast of America. He was saved, but suffered great hardships in reaching Mexico, from which country he obtained a passage to Europe in a Spanish frigate, and died in Paris. Margarot was the only one of the five who lived to return to his native country, which he did in 1813, after the expiration of his sentence.

SCOTT, THOMAS (1787—) was a native of Glasgow and came to N.S.W. in 1817. He had some previous experience in sugar-growing in the West Indies, and being convinced that N.S.W. would prove a good sugar country he resolved to give up his prospects in Calcutta (whither he was going) and devote himself to that industry. But not having sufficient means, after an attempt at tobacco culture, he entered the Commissariat as a Clerk. He was then invited to undertake the management of the sugar works in Tahiti. But he found that appliances were not forthcoming, and returned to Sydney. He then went to Roiatea and established sugar works there. On his return he went to Port Macquarie and established a sugar plantation near the coast. At the end of three years he obtained the first crop, but from the inefficiency of the plant supplied to him he could make but seven tons, when it gave way, and it was only after forty years delay that it has again been taken up. Scott's first attempts continued on a small scale demonstrated the capabilities of the colonies for growing the cane, and he deserves the title of "Father of the Sugar Industry in Australia."

SEA-VIEW MOUNTAIN, a mountain of N.S.W., situated between the county of Macquarie and the New England district; it is a very prominent feature in that part of the country being 6000 feet above the level of the sea, and may be considered the highest of the Cordilleras of Eastern Australia.

SEAL ISLANDS, a cluster of islands lying off the east coast of Gipps Land, V., to the westward of Rabbit Island, named by Grant, from their being covered with seals.

SELWYN, GEORGE AUGUSTUS [1809-1878] was a native of England, and educated at Eton and St. John's College, Cambridge, where he graduated Junior Optime in mathematics and Senior Optime in classics. He was tutor at Eton and curate of Windsor in 1841 when he was chosen as first Bishop of N. Z. Here whilst superintending the spiritual wants of the colonists, he sought to impart the blessings of the Gospel to the natives also, and extended his labours to the Melanesian

Islands, himself navigating his own vessel the *Southern Cross* for that purpose. He brought some youths from there, and after instruction took them back to teach their countrymen the civilisation and religion they had acquired. He established a mission school for their instruction near Auckland (afterwards removed to Norfolk Island) and found a kindred spirit to carry on this branch of his work in Bishop Patteson. In 1850 he was one of the six bishops who met in Sydney to initiate Synods in the Church of the colonies; in 1857 he obtained the division of his diocese, and in 1867 he was appointed to the Bishopric of Lichfield. His son succeeded Patteson as Bishop of Melanesia. The Rev. James Buller gives the following graphic description of Selwyn and his labours:—"Another phase of mission-life in N.Z. turned up by the advent of Bishop Selwyn in 1842. In 1838 Bishop Broughton of Sydney visited the Bay of Islands and fulfilled certain episcopal duties. The new Bishop was a young man for that office, yet not too young for the special work that was before him. He was about thirty-three years old. Of an athletic frame, a cultured mind, and apostolic zeal, he was well gifted for his position. He brought with him several clergymen and students, and took up his first abode at the Waimate. He had with him a large and valuable library; for this he fitted up a room in a spacious stone building at the Kerikeri; that was ten miles from his residence, over a rough, hilly pathway, but it was only a 'constitutional' before breakfast for the young Bishop. He was a first-class pedestrian. Few could equal him in threading forests, scaling mountains, or swimming rivers. In his palmy days he did not care to ride, even where there was a road for a horse. It is said that on one occasion when the Bishop of Newcastle was visiting him they took a short journey together. It was over a plain. Selwyn was on foot, the other on horseback. The latter, cantering forward, was brought up at the bank of a broad stream. Not knowing the ford he waited for his companion. 'Follow me,' cried Selwyn, as he dashed through the river, somewhat to the surprise of his right reverend brother. There was, I think, a slight touch of asceticism about Bishop Selwyn which longer experience rubbed off. Certainly he taxed his iron constitution to a severe degree; for a quarter of a century he laboured like an apostle. His published journals, never exceeding the truth, read almost like romance. He was willing to endure hardness. The man must be without judgment, or feeling, or both, that can withhold esteem for his work's sake, however he might differ from his views. He had been scarcely two months in the country before he set out on a visitation tour. After six months of the roughest travel, by land and sea, he returned to Auckland *en route* for the Waimate. His clothes were torn to tatters. 'My last pair of thick shoes were worn out, and my feet much blistered with walking on the stumps, which I was obliged to tie to my insteps with pieces of native flax.' Such

was the record in his journal. He thus describes his arrival at Onehunga:—‘I landed there with my faithful Maori, Rota (Lot,) who had steadily accompanied me from Kapiti, carrying my bag of gown and cassock, the only remaining article in my possession of the least value. The suit which I wore was kept sufficiently decent by much care to enable me to enter Auckland by daylight; and my last remaining pair of shoes (thin ones) were strong enough for the light and sandy walk of six miles which remained from Manukau to Auckland. At two p.m. I reached the Judge’s house by a path, avoiding the town and passing over land which I have bought for the site of the cathedral—a spot which I hope may hereafter be traversed by the feet of many bishops better shod and far less ragged than myself.’ Throughout his whole career he embodied in his own example the sentiments contained in his first charge to his clergy in 1847:—‘You have heard already the definition of the Venerable Bede, that the episcopate is a title, not of honour, but of work; and in that spirit I trust to be enabled to exercise my office. No earthly dignity, either in Church or State, can equal the moral grandeur of the leathern girdle and the raiment of camel’s hair, or the going forth without purse or scrip and yet lacking nothing.’ The Bishop’s diocese reached to latitude 33° S., but by a mistake in his letters patent it was extended to latitude 33° N. instead of S. This took in a portion of Japan. When the mistake was discovered he would not allow it to be rectified, regarding it as being God’s providence that had given him this great extent of diocese. In a little vessel, the *Undine*, less than twenty-two tons, which I believe he navigated himself, he visited many of the South Sea Islands; and so began the Melanesian mission, for the charge of which he afterwards consecrated a man as singularly gifted as he was intensely devoted to his great work—the martyred and lamented Patteson, who is now succeeded by Selwyn’s eldest son. Bishop Selwyn had a versatile genius. He neglected no part of his wide diocese. Both races were alike the objects of his care. If he had any preference it was for those who wanted it most—the natives. The Europeans sometimes complained of this. By many he was said to be imperious, ambitious, designing. I can only say that if he was imperious he was also kind; if he was ambitious it was to do good, and he was ready to divest himself of power as soon as others could be found to share authority with him; if he was designing it was not for himself but for the interests of the Church, on whose altar he laid down his gifts, his fortune and his life. By a judicious foresight he secured by gift or purchase convenient sites and valuable endowments all over the land, before they had acquired a high market price. By dint of great labour, involving more than one voyage to England, he framed and set in motion a constitution for his Church in N.Z. by which his own power was reduced to a fraction.

Moreover there was hardly a settlement however remote, a Maori village however small, or a mission station however distant, that he did not personally visit. He spared not himself. But with all that was excellent he did not escape censure. He made mistakes, for he was fallible. Plans that were somewhat visionary melted into thin air, and in some well-meant efforts to do good he was misunderstood and at times grossly misrepresented. This was especially the case during the unhappy war. He had the misfortune to incur blame from both sides. But there was no room to call in question his stern integrity, his moral courage, or his good intentions. The first outcome of his zeal was to throw the people back upon unprofitable questions. Up to that time, the converts of the two missionary societies looked on each other as belonging to one body, and held intercommunion. But unhappily this was now forbidden. This gave rise to severe strictures, and even more was said than was meet. I think no one regretted the result more than the Bishop himself. In his journal he notes with deep concern that the minds of the natives were distracted with inquiries respecting the *Hahi* and *Wetere* (the Church and Wesley;) and he must have felt that he was responsible for this. I fancy that some feeling of self-reproach was on his mind when he said to his clergy, in 1847, that the divisions of Christian men are a hindrance to the faith at all times. When I asked a N.Z. chief why he refused to become a Christian, he stretched out three fingers and said, ‘I have come to the cross-road, and I see three ways—the English, the Wesleyan, and the Roman. Each teacher says his own way is the best. I am sitting down and doubting which guide I shall follow.’ No one can deny that his exclusive pretensions did harm. But he was often condemned on mere hearsay, and never attempted a reply to his critics. I believe that many of his early mistakes were due to unavoidable inexperience. Personally he was courteous to all, and evidently wished to avoid giving offence to any. When he was leaving for England in 1867 I heard him publicly say that it was to him a matter of great satisfaction, that from the time of his first coming to N.Z. he had had no personal difference with a minister of any denomination. I know that, in one case, he deferred the ceremony of consecrating a church, where there was no resident clergyman, in order that anyone might preach in it, and more than once I had the opportunity of officiating therein. When at last the good Bishop bade farewell to N.Z. to enter on the see of Lichfield in England, all parties united to do him honour. It was to the Pan-Anglican Synod at Lambeth that he went home in 1867. He had no expectation or desire to take office in England. It was only when the Queen pressed it upon his acceptance, that he felt it his duty to yield. On his leaving Auckland for the said Synod, a great demonstration was held in Brunswick Hall. John Williamson, Superintendent of the Auckland Province, and a Wesleyan, was in the chair. The

committee invited the Rev. D. Bruce of the Presbyterian Church, and myself, as representing the Wesleyan, to take part in the proceedings. I did so with great pleasure, and was glad of such an opportunity of giving my testimony to the untiring and self-denying labours of Bishop Selwyn. When the future historian of N.Z. shall recount the names of her early benefactors that of Selwyn will not be the least among them. If Samuel Marsden was the father of the N.Z. Mission, George Augustus Selwyn was the father of the Church of England in N.Z."

SEPARATION CREEK is situated in N.A. It was discovered by Leichhardt, and named by him as it separated the basaltic from the primitive formations.

SERVICE, JAMES (1823—) came to Melbourne in 1853 and commenced business as a merchant. In 1857 he was elected Member of the Legislative Assembly for Melbourne; in 1859 was Minister for Lands and President of the Board of Land and Works, but ten months afterwards he resigned. In 1862 he resigned his seat in order to visit England, whence he returned in 1865. In 1874 he was elected for Maldon, and took office as Treasurer, which post he held until 1875. When the Berry Ministry went out of office as the result of the general election in 1879 Service became Chief Secretary. His Reform Bill being rejected by the Assembly he dissolved Parliament and appealed to the country, but was left in a minority and resigned accordingly.

SEVEN EMU RIVER, a river of N.A., discovered by Leichhardt, and named by him from the numerous flocks of emus seen there, seven of which were hunted down as he travelled eight miles along its banks. It flows into the Gulf of Carpentaria to the eastward of the Roper River.

SEYMOUR, a township in V. situated on the River Goulburn in the north-eastern district sixty-five miles N. of Melbourne by the north-eastern railway. Adjoining the shire of Seymour is the Goulburn shire, the chief town of which is Nagambie, seventeen miles from Seymour, and famed for the richness of its soil and its extensive vineyards; the two districts combined contain some 300 farmers, and promise to become a densely populated portion of the colony. The Goulburn which runs through the township is navigable for steamboats from Echuca. A brewery, two steam flour mills, saw mills, and other works are in full operation. The country along the course of the Goulburn valley is of a fertile character, and well adapted for agriculture.

SHARK'S BAY, in W.A., was discovered by Dampier on 6th August 1699, and so named from the abundance of sharks which his people found there. It is now a pearl-fishing station.

SHAW'S PEAK, is one of the largest islands of Sir James Smith's group, off the N.E. coast of the Continent; it is 1600 feet high.

SHEEHAN, JOHN (1845—) is a native of Auckland, N.Z. In 1862 he entered the legal profession and passed with credit in 1867. In 1863 he was engaged in the Waikato war. After a preliminary training in the Auckland Provincial Council he was elected to Parliament for the Rodney district in 1872. He is at present Native Minister in N.Z.

SHEIL, LAURENCE BONAVENTURE (1817-1873) third Roman Catholic Bishop of Adelaide, was a native of Wexford in Ireland, and received his education in the Franciscan Schools at Enniscorthy and at Rome. He came to the Diocese of Melbourne in 1856 and was for some time President of St. Patrick's College and subsequently Arch-Deacon of Ballarat. He was appointed Bishop of Adelaide in 1865; consecrated in August 1866, and took possession of his diocese on 14th September the same year.

SHILLINGLAW, JOHN JOSEPH (1830—) is a native of London. In 1844 he was with Admiral Washington, Hydrographer to the navy, but resigned his appointment to emigrate to V. in 1852. He was appointed Chief Clerk of the Bench at Williamstown, and in 1854 had charge of the Water Police. In 1856 he was Government Shipping Master, and remained in this office until 1869, when he retired from the Civil Service. In 1853 he first brought forward the project of a Sailors Home in Melbourne. He has contributed largely to various Home and Colonial magazines. He edited *Cast Away on the Aucklands* and a *Shipmaster's Guide*, and was proprietor and editor of the *Colonial Monthly*. He is at present engaged on a *Life of Flinders*, to which work he has devoted years of study and research. His contributions to the early history of the colonies of V. and N.S.W. are numerous and valuable, especially his *Historical Records of Port Phillip*, the documents contained in which work Shillinglaw disintombed from the archives of N.S.W. and T., which was published by the Government of V. in 1879.

SHOALHAVEN is a large agricultural, dairy and mining district in N.S.W., situated on the river of that name 110 miles from Sydney by steam to Greenwell Point, or 126 by road and rail. The sea frontage of the district is about sixty miles. The population of the district is about 9600. The district is very extensively under farms, the Messrs. Berry alone having 120,000 acres, and between 500 and 600 tenants. The haven was named by Bass from its shallowness, on his voyage of discovery through the Straits.

SHOALHAVEN RIVER, in N.S.W., rises in the district of Menaroo, in a swamp under a hill called Corumbwroo, 100 miles from Sydney; and flows into the sea at Cooloomgatta, thirty-five miles below Wollongong, passing through one of the Shoalhaven gullies. These gullies are distant twenty-six miles from Lake Bathurst. They are ravines of great depth, from 500 to 1200 feet, and of tremendous appearance.

SHORT, RYHKEN AUGUSTUS (1803—) Bishop of Adelaide, is a native of Exeter in England, and was educated at Westminster and Christchurch College, Oxford, where he took his degree of B.A. in 1823 and M.A. in 1826. In 1835 he was made Vicar of Ravensthorpe in Northamptonshire. He was appointed Bampton Lecturer in 1846, and next year was consecrated first Bishop of Adelaide. In 1858 when the Governor and others wished that the Rev. Thomas Binney might be allowed to preach in a Church of England church, Bishop Short stated that he felt compelled to refuse his permission.

SHORTLAND, LIEUT. JOHN (1739—) explorer. In 1755 he entered the Navy and saw active service in Newfoundland, the Mediterranean and the West Indies, being present at the reduction of several of the islands. In 1763 he was made a Lieutenant. During the war of American Independence he was actively employed in the Atlantic; in 1782 he commanded the transports with the 97th Regiment for the relief of Gibraltar; in 1786 he was appointed agent to the transports sent to N.S.W., and arrived with the "First Fleet" in January 1788. He left six months afterwards *via* Batavia, with the *Friendship* (abandoned October 28th,) the *Alexander*, *Borrowdale* and the *Prince of Wales*, and reached England on 29th May 1789 after a most adventurous voyage. He returned to the colony in 1792. About the middle of September 1797 the Hawkesbury River in N.S.W. was discovered by Shortland. He had been sent in pursuit of a party of prisoners who had absconded with the best boat in the colony whilst on her passage to the Hawkesbury. He was unsuccessful in his pursuit of the pirates, but more than compensated for that misfortune by the discovery of one of the finest streams of eastern A., which he named the Hunter in honour of Governor Hunter.

SHORTLAND'S BLUFF is a clifly projection situated about two miles within Point Lonsdale in the harbour of Port Phillip, V. It was named by Murray after Lieutenant Shortland.

SINNETT, FREDERICK. (1831—1866) journalist; was a son of Mrs. Percy Sinnett a well-known English authoress, and was educated for the profession of civil engineer. He came to S.A. in 1849 as engineer to the Adelaide and Port Railway Company; but the scheme was never carried out. He contributed regularly to the *Mining Journal*, edited by George Stevenson, at that time the best conducted paper in S.A. At the time of the Victoria gold discoveries in 1851 Sinnett left S.A. for Melbourne, and accepted an engagement as contributor to the *Herald*, of which paper he became eventually editor and part proprietor. About 1855 he severed his connection with that paper and became a contributor to the *Melbourne Argus*, with which journal he remained till 1859, with the exception of a short time spent in editing the *Daily News* at Geelong. About the

same date that he joined the *Argus* was commenced *Melbourne Punch*, of which journal he was one of the founders, and to the success of which his facile pen and humorous fancy contributed in great measure. In 1859 Sinnett again returned to S.A. to take the management of the Adelaide Ice Works. During his sojourn in S.A. from 1859 to 1865 he edited the *Daily Telegraph* and was Parliamentary Reporter for *Hansard*. He returned to Melbourne in 1865, where he resumed his connection with the *Argus* and was retained on the literary staff of that paper as contributor and leader-writer until within a short time of his death on 23rd November 1866. At all times from its foundation and both whilst he was in Adelaide and Melbourne he continued his contributions to *Melbourne Punch*. The *Melbourne Herald* of 24th November wrote:—"His death will be a void in the ranks of Australian journalism not readily to be filled; and his loss will long be keenly felt by a large circle of private friends by whom he was beloved for his kindness of heart and admired for his brilliancy of intellect and conversation."

SIR CHARLES HARDY'S ISLAND. A cluster of Islands, situated off the N.E. coast of the continent. They are high and rocky and may be seen five or six leagues off. They were named by King after Admiral Sir Charles Hardy.

SIR EVERARD HOME'S ISLANDS. A cluster of islands lying off the N.E. coast of the continent, extending about four miles from Cape Grenville. They were named by King after Admiral Sir Everard Home.

SIR JAMES SMITH'S GROUP. A group of ten or twelve islands, situated off the N.E. coast of the continent. The principal island contains Linne Peak. They were named by King after Sir James Smith, an eminent man of science.

SIR JOSEPH BANKS' GROUP. A group of islands in Spencer's Gulf, S.A. They consist of the islands named Winceby, Turnby, Parsney, Kirkley, Lusby, Hareby, Spilsby, Stickney, Sibsey, and Langton; and were named by Flinders after Sir Joseph Banks.

SIR WILLIAM GRANT CAPE (or **SOLICITOR CAPE**), a cape or headland in V. It is not unlike the Dedman in the English Channel; it runs a considerable way into the Straits; when to the west it appears like a large barn arched on the top with a high bluff, and next the sea resembling the gable-end of a house. It was discovered by Grant and named by him after the celebrated lawyer and Judge Advocate General of England.

SKENE, JOHN ALEXANDER (1820—) Surveyor-General of V.; arrived in the colony in 1839. He followed his profession till 1868 when he succeeded C. W. Ligar as Surveyor-General. He has a remarkable knowledge of the physical features of V. and has won distinction for his production of maps of the colony to the construction of which

he has paid special attention. His large map of the continent is by far the best that has yet appeared.

SKIRMISH POINT, the northernmost point of Moreton Bay, Q., so named by Flinders from a skirmish he had there with the natives.

SLADEN, SIR CHARLES (1816—) is an Englishman by birth and was educated at Cambridge, where he graduated in Law in 1837 as S.C.L., in 1840 LL.B., and in 1867 LL.D. (although at the time in Victoria.) He arrived in Port Phillip in 1842, and practiced as an attorney in Geelong until 1854 when he retired from business. In December of the same year he was offered by Sir Charles Hotham the post of acting Colonial Treasurer in the place of Captain Lonsdale, absent on leave. He was Treasurer in the first Ministry under the new Constitution formed by Haines in 1855, when he was elected one of the Members for Geelong. At the first general election under the new Constitution in 1857, he again sought election for Geelong, but was defeated, and was not in Parliament again till 1864 when he was elected to the Legislative Council for the Western Province. In May 1868, during a protracted political crisis, arising out of the tuck of a Customs Duties Bill to the Annual Appropriation Bill in 1865, and at last culminating in the inclusion in the Annual Appropriation Bill for 1867 of a grant of £20,000 to Lady Darling, Sladen accepted office as Chief Secretary, with Fellows as Minister for Justice and Leader in the Legislative Assembly. His Ministry only retained office until 11th July of the same year. In August the term for which he had been elected Member for the Western Province expired, and he did not seek re-election. In 1876 he was again elected without a contest for the same province. He has always taken an active part in the debates and business of the Council, and is regarded by both friends and opponents as a high-minded and able politician.

SMITH, SIR FRANCIS (1819—) is eldest son of the late Francis Smith of Campania, in T., and was educated at University College, London, where he gained the first prize in the class of Jurisprudence and the second prize in that of English Equity; graduated B.A. in 1840, and was called to the Bar at Middle Temple in May 1842. He was admitted a barrister in T. in October 1844. He was appointed Solicitor-General in 1848; nominated by Sir William Denison an *ex officio* member of the Legislative Council 1851; appointed Attorney-General in 1854, and a member of the Executive Council in 1855. On the discussion in the Legislative Council of the proposal to adopt Responsible Government in 1855, Smith declared himself unfavourable to a system which was likely to involve frequent changes of administration, as being unsuitable to a new country in which there did not exist, as in England, a sufficiently numerous class of gentlemen possessing the requisite wealth, leisure, culture and experience; and he thought

that the then existing Constitution might be so modified as to give due weight to the will of the people in the Government of the country, by restricting the nominee element in the Legislative Council to a limited number of *ex officio* members only. He was a member of the first House of Assembly and of the first Administration under the new Constitution, holding office as Attorney-General from November 1856 to February 1857; again appointed Attorney-General in April 1857, and Premier in May following. This office he held until appointed Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court in November 1860. He became Chief Justice in February 1870, and was Administrator of the Government of T. from November 1874 to January 1875.

SMITH, JOHN, is a native of Scotland, and was educated at the University of Aberdeen, where he took the degrees of M.A. and M.D. For five years he conducted the class of chemistry at Marischal College. In 1852, when Sir John Herschel, Professor Airy (Astronomer Royal,) Professor Maldon and Alfred Denison were commissioned by the Sydney University to select Professors, Dr. Smith was chosen Professor of Chemistry and Experimental Physics. He accepted the office, and during the years that have elapsed since the opening of the University he has exercised the duties of the Professorship. Early in 1853 he was appointed by the Government a member of the Board of National Education, and continued to serve on that Board till its dissolution in 1866 by the passing of the Public Schools Act. When that Act came into operation he was appointed a member of the Council of Education. He has ever since continued to fulfil the duties of that position. For twenty-six years he has been a zealous promoter of public elementary education, and for a number of years has been President of the Council of Education. He has served on numerous Government Boards and Royal Commissions, and was President of the Commission on Water Supply. He has been an active member of the Royal Society of N.S.W., and is one of its Vice-Presidents. Smith has travelled over a great part of the Australasian Colonies, and has made himself acquainted with their characteristics and resources. Since his appointment to the Professorship in the University he has twice re-visited England. On his return from these voyages he gave lectures on the scenes through which he had travelled and the historical and antiquarian topics associated with them. He was appointed a Member of the Legislative Council in 1874. He obtained from Aberdeen the honorary degree of LL.D. in 1876. He was made C.M.G. in 1877 (for services in the cause of education,) and he continues to be President of the Council of Education, having been re-elected nine times in succession.

SMITH, JOHN THOMAS (1816—78) was a native of Australia and born in Sydney. In 1837 he went to Melbourne as assistant-teacher at the

Aboriginal Station belonging to the Church of England. Subsequently he became a publican and built the Queen's Theatre, which he held as proprietor for some years. In 1842 Melbourne was incorporated a city and Smith was one of the first councillors—a position he continued to fill without intermission until his death. He held the office of Mayor of Melbourne no less than seven times, but the majority of his elections to that post took place in the earlier years of the City Council when there was not much rivalry for the distinction. During the Ballarat riots the mayoralty of Melbourne was no sinecure owing to the excitement which prevailed and the rumours flying about of intended assaults on the Treasury and banks. Smith did good service in restoring the confidence of the population by organising a system of special constables, and for his energy on the occasion he received the thanks of Governor Sir Charles Hotham. When Mayor in 1858 he was delegated by the City Council to go to England for the purpose of presenting an address of congratulation to the Queen on the occasion of the marriage of the Princess Royal to the Crown Prince of Prussia. From the establishment of constitutional government in the colony he had been a member of the Legislative Assembly. At the time of his death he was entitled to the name of Father of the Assembly, as since his first election for North Bourke in 1851 to the old nominee-elective Assembly he had never been out of Parliament. He had a seat in one Government as Minister of Mines in the Macpherson Administration in 1869. His shrewdness and good humour and knowledge of colonial life made him a useful magistrate, and for many years he was a constant attendant at the City Bench, where his delight was to talk to the persons to the suit in a private room and induce them to settle their disputes out of court. He was an official visitor at the lunatic asylums and paid assiduous attention to his duties as a member of the Central Board of Health. In the establishment of the principal charities such as the Melbourne Hospital, the Benevolent and Orphan Asylums and others, he took an active part. He also took great interest in the initiation and progress of the friendly societies, and was a leading member of several of them besides being a prominent Freemason. For many years he was Provincial Grand Master under the Irish Constitution.

SMOKY CAPE, in N.S.W., lies between Trial Bay and Korogoro Point and was named by Cook from his having there seen fires of the natives which produced a great quantity of smoke.

SMYTH, ROBERT BROUGH (1830—) is a native of England and came to V. in 1852, where he entered the Survey Department as draughtsman. Whilst acting as Director of Observatories he was appointed in 1858 secretary to the Board of Science, which position required him to take charge of the mining surveys of the colony. He was in 1860 appointed Secretary for Mines and held office

until the beginning of 1876, when he resigned his several offices under Government and went to India. He acted for some time as Chief Inspector of Mines and re-organised the Geological Survey of which he was director until his retirement from official life. He is the compiler of two works published by the Government on the *Gold Mines of Victoria* and on the *Aborigines of Victoria*; and the author of a large number of occasional papers and pamphlets on scientific subjects.

SMYTHESDALE, a mining township in V. situated in a valley through which flows Smythe's Creek, 12 miles S.W. from Ballarat and 108 miles W. by N. of Melbourne. The population of the borough numbers 750 exclusive of the miners (Chinese and European) at work in the vicinity. The district is principally a mining one, with a population of about 14,000. The mines consist principally of deep alluvial leads of considerable extent; 1447 miners were at work on 30th June 1880, the steam machinery was forty-two engines. Value of total mining plant £22,000; yearly produce of the mines 40,000 ozs. to 50,000 ozs. More attention is being given than heretofore to quartz-mining. There are eighteen square miles of ground worked and twelve reefs have been found to be auriferous.

SNODGRASS, KENNETH (1784—1853) was a native of Scotland. At an early age he entered the British Army in the 52nd Regiment; and led the "forlorn hope" at the siege of St. Sebastian. He was twice wounded during the Peninsular war, for which he received a pension. When Sir John Franklin left T., Snodgrass administered the Civil Government for a time, as he did also that of N.S.W. previous to the arrival of Sir George Gipps. He died at his residence on the Hunter River in N.S.W. in October 1853.

SOFALA, a mining township in N.S.W. on the Turon River 149 miles N.W. of Sydney and thirty miles from Bathurst N. The district in which it is situated is altogether a mining one, the workings being both alluvial and quartz; the former however are now nearly worked out. The reefs give employment to several crushing machines. The population is 644; a large number of Chinamen dwell in and around the township. Sofala was the scene of a great rush in 1851 and large quantities of gold were found there. It was named after the auriferous country in South Africa which belongs to the Portuguese and which is supposed to have been the Ophir of Scripture.

SOLANDER, DANIEL CHARLES (1736—1782) an eminent naturalist and pupil of Linnæus, was a native of Sweden and took his degree as a doctor of medicine at Upsal, and in 1760 visited England. At the request of Sir Joseph Banks he accompanied that botanist in the voyage round the world with Cook. In 1773 he was appointed under-librarian of the British Museum. He wrote a *Description of the Collection of Petrifications found in Hampshire* which had been given to the

British Museum, and *Observations on Natural History in Cook's Voyage*. He left a mass of valuable manuscripts which are now in the British Museum.

SORELL. COLONEL WILLIAM, (1775-1848) Governor of V.D.L., was a native of England. He was Colonel of the 48th regiment when in April 1817 he was appointed Governor of the settlement. He held the office until May 1824, and retired on a pension in 1825. West says of Sorell:—"His administration was successful in colonial estimation. His habits were familiar without rudeness, and his fine countenance attracted the confidence of the stranger. He was accustomed to linger about the gate of Government House chatting with the passers-by, and a slight excuse entitled the humblest ranks to prefer their solicitations. The admiration expressed by the settlers for his character was partly the result of their relative positions. He was a dispenser of Crown favours, and when compelled to refuse an immoderate suitor he could refer his request to the Governor-in-Chief. The rigour of the King's Commissioner was softened by his official worth; nor is it necessary to search for a censure amidst such concurrence of praise. The settlers to express their regard agreed to offer Sorell a testimonial of £750 value. They deprecated his recall by petition, a rare instance of popular favour; there was but one dissident. A result so unusual might, perhaps, have been successful had it not been too late."

SOUTH AUSTRALIA. I. POSITION.—The colony of S.A. as originally defined comprised that portion of the Continent situated between 132° and 141° of E. longitude, and between the Southern Ocean and 26° S. latitude amounting to nearly 300,000 square miles. Since then the boundaries have been greatly extended. In 1861 a strip of territory known as "No Man's Land," occupying 80,000 square miles and lying between the W. boundary of S.A. and the E. boundary of W.A. was added, the W. boundary of the colony being now 129° E. longitude. In 1863 a still further extent of territory was added, the Government having undertaken the task of founding a new colony in the N.; and the country from 26° S. latitude to the Indian Ocean and from 129° to 138° E. longitude was annexed for the purpose. This tract is known as the Northern Territory. S.A. was erected into a British province by Act 4 and 5 William IV. c. 95; No Man's Land was annexed by Act 24 and 25 Vic. c. 44; and the Northern Territory by Her Majesty's letters patent of 6th June 1863. The original name of the colony was only imperfectly descriptive of its position, since Port Phillip lay still more to the south and W.A. occupied a large extent of the southern portion of the continent. At present the name is positively misleading, and "Central Australia" would be much more appropriate.

II. AREA.—At first the extent of territory possessed by S.A. was about 300,000 square miles including Kangaroo Island, containing 2,500,000

acres. Its present area is 903,690 square miles or 578,361,000 acres. It is about 1850 miles in length from south to north with an extreme width of 650 miles.

III. PHYSICAL FEATURES.—S.A. has no such well-marked and easily described physical features as the eastern colonies. It has no great mountain range dividing up the country into distinct regions, no great system of river valleys, and no great geological contrasts of ancient and recent deposits. Yet it is sufficiently diversified in its outlines, having magnificent plains of fertile land, mountain ranges well wooded with giant Eucalyptus, lovely valleys, and arid plains, timberless, waterless, and desolate, yet often teeming with metallic wealth beneath the surface. The character of the interior has been sufficiently indicated in the article "Australia." A sketch of the more prominent physical features of the settled districts will suffice here. The old colony of S.A. is generally flat as compared with V. or N.S.W. A range of mountains of no great height commences at Cape Jervis on the eastern extremity of St. Vincent's Gulf, and extends northward at the back of Adelaide to the Lake Torrens country. It is called the Lofty Range near Adelaide, farther on the Barossa, the Belvidere, the Bryan, and the Flinders Ranges. The highest point does not much exceed 3000 feet. In the southern portion of the colony are Mount Gambier and other extinct volcanoes, while in the unsettled country of the Eyre Peninsula are the rugged Gawler ranges about 2000 feet high. With the exception of the Murray, which runs across the southern portion of the colony, there are no rivers of importance in S.A.; the Gawler, Torrens and other streams that flow into St. Vincent's Gulf, being very insignificant, and almost or quite dry for a large portion of the year. None of the Australian Colonies have so many large lakes as S.A.; but unfortunately none of these seem calculated to benefit the country, being either salt, or liable to be dried up, or unfitted for navigation. Lake Torrens is often a muddy swamp; Lake Gardiner, to the north of Eyre Peninsula, is an immense salt lake in a desert region, though situated 366 feet above the sea level. Lake Eyre and a cluster of smaller lakes are also salt and liable to become changed into plains of saline mud, as is the still more extensive Lake Amadeus in the centre of the continent. Lake Alexandrina, forming the mouth of the Murray, is fresh, but by dispersing the waters of that large river it renders its entrance from the ocean unnavigable. The only lakes associated with picturesque scenery and fertile country are those of the Mount Gambier region, which are situated in the craters of extinct volcanoes. One of these—the Blue Lake—is of an oval shape, surrounded by precipitous walls covered with verdure and several hundred feet high. It is 240 feet deep, and the water is of a deep blue colour. Although without any very prominent features S.A. contains a great variety of soils and

scenery. Extensive plains, comprising many millions of acres of arable land for the most part free from timber, extend from twenty miles S. of Adelaide to beyond Mount Remarkable, about 170 miles N. of the city. These plains are bounded on the eastern side by the mountain chain already described. Beyond this range to the E. and N.E. the country is broken and hilly, with much timber and a large extent of very rich land. The valley of the Murray, itself from half a mile to a mile wide, bounded by cliffs of recent shell-limestone, is a rich alluvial deposit covered in places with large gum-trees; but between this valley and the eastern boundary of the colony as well as for some distance on the west, extend vast waterless scrubs such as have already been described, till farther south we come to the rich agricultural and pastoral district of Mount Gambier. Much of the scenery is park-like and beautiful, with alternations of hill and valley presenting every variety of landscape; but large areas are sterile and uninviting, and apparently doomed to perpetual aridity and barrenness. Yet much of the scrub land is now found to be well adapted for growing wheat, and considerable tracts, once thought to be wholly unsuited to agriculture, are now returning abundant harvests.

IV. CLIMATE.—Although so far south, and therefore farther from the tropics and geographically more temperate, yet S.A. is very hot, and perhaps suffers more from excessive heat and drought during the summer months than any of the other colonies. This is no doubt largely due to the absence of a lofty mountain range to cut off the hot winds from the interior—the South Australian range having a north and south direction—and also to its coast being concave instead of convex, and therefore less open to the cool sea-breezes from the south and south-east. December, January, and February are very trying months, the thermometer often rising at Adelaide to 110° or 115° in the shade; but the rest of the year is pleasant and the winter is mild and rainy. The usual rainfall is small, only averaging twenty-two inches, but it is often as low as fifteen, and in 1869 was only thirteen and a-half inches. The wettest year was 1851 when there were thirty and a-half inches. The amount of rainfall varies greatly in different parts of the colony. In the wet year 1861, when there were twenty-four inches at Adelaide, there were only seven inches at Port Augusta at the head of Spencer's Gulf, forty-five and a-half at Mount Lofty, and fifty-five and a-half inches at Mount Barker. In the same year the thermometer rose above 90° on forty-five days at Adelaide, but only on five days at Guichen Bay in the Southern part of the colony. The variations of the barometer indicate changes of wind rather than rain. It always falls with a north-east wind and continues to fall as the wind changes to north and north-west; but whenever there is southing in the wind the barometer rises even during steady and copious rains.

V. NATURAL HISTORY.—The natural history of S.A. presents hardly any distinctive features, while in almost every department it is far poorer than the other colonies. In botany this is especially the case. It contains a mixture of eastern, western, and tropical forms—the presence of the latter being due to the proximity of the great central desert; but the eastern types abound. The northern territory has of course a wholly tropical flora, and it has produced many new species both of plants and animals; but these in almost all cases extend to one of the adjoining colonies, W.A. or Q. whose northern portions are equally tropical.

VI. GEOLOGY.—The geological structure of extra-tropical S.A. is comparatively simple. It consists of an immense formation of Tertiary sandstones and limestones extending over the whole country except where interrupted by Palaeozoic or volcanic mountains. The backbone of the colony running from Cape Jervis northwards is Silurian, and consists of sandstones, slates, and limestones, with intruding granites of diversified character. Fine red granites occur at Barossa and Port Lincoln and there are lofty granite mountains in the interior. Basalt occurs at Mount Arden, north of Port Augusta, and also farther north in the central lake country; but it is more common in the south-east near the remarkable group of extinct volcanoes in the Mount Gambier district. A little to the north in the Tertiary limestone country of the Mosquito Plains are some very curious and interesting caves, which have been thus described by the Rev. J. T. Woods in his *Geological Observations in South Australia*:—"In the midst of a swampy, sandy country, plentifully covered with stringy-bark trees, a series of caverns is found whose internal beauty is at strange variance with the wildness of the scenery around. The entrance is merely a round hole on the top of a hill, which leads to a small sloping path under a shelf of rock. Descending this for about twenty-five feet, one gets a first glimpse of the magnificence enshrined below. The observer finds himself at the entrance of a large oblong square chamber, low, but perfectly lighted by an aperture at the opposite end, and all around, above and below, the eye is bewildered by a profusion of ornaments and decorations of nature's own devising. It resembles an immense Gothic cathedral, and the numbers of half-finished stalagmites which rise from the ground, like kneeling or prostrate forms, seem worshippers in that silent and solemn place. At the farther end is an immense stalactite which appears like a support to the whole roof; not the least beautiful part of it being that it is tinted by almost every variety of colour, one side being of a delicate azure, with passages of blue, green, and pink, intermingled; and again it is snowy white, finally merging into a golden yellow. The second cave or chamber is so thickly studded with stalactites that it seems like a carefully arranged scene, which, from the interminable variety of form and magic effect of light and shade, might easily be taken to

represent some fairy palace. Very soon the cavern becomes as dark as night, and further exploration to the numerous chambers and fissures beyond has to be made by the assistance of torches. On leaving the last chamber we returned to the light: a narrow passage richly wreathed with limestone is observed on the right hand going out. Proceeding a little way down a large vaulted chamber is reached, so perfectly dark and obscure that even torches can do but faint justice to its beauty. Here, above all other portions of the caves, has nature been prodigal of the fantastic ornament with which the whole place abounds. There are pillars so finely formed and covered with such delicate trellis-work, there are droppings of lime making such scroll-work, that the eye is bewildered with the extent and variety of the adornment. It is like a palace of ice with frozen cascades and fountains all around." The Palæozoic limestones of S.A. are very rich in copper, and this metal has really determined the success of the colony. It was first discovered in the hills near Adelaide; but the most important mine, the Burra-Burra, is about ninety miles to the north. Another still more extensive deposit of copper ore is at Wollaroo, at the head of Yorke's Peninsula, and there are in all twenty-seven copper mines in the colony. Silver-lead has been found and worked near Cape Jervis, and bismuth in the mountains east of Adelaide. Gold also occurs at Echunga; but the mines are unimportant as compared with those of V. Iron is also known to exist in large quantities; but as there is no coal it has not yet been worked.

VII. POPULATION.—The population on 31st December 1879 was estimated at 136,000 males and 124,000 females—a total of 260,000. The average birth rate of 1878 was 38·22 per thousand of the population; the marriage rate is 9·47 and the death rate 15·44 per thousand. During 1879 there were registered 9902 births—5013 males, 4889 females; 3580 deaths and 2238 marriages; averaging 38·81 births per thousand of the population; 14·04 per thousand deaths and 8·77 per thousand marriages. The foregoing applies to the white population; of the aboriginal race little can be said further than that their ultimate extinction is a matter of a few years only, as whatever their numbers were originally each successive year has seen a rapid diminution and the end is not very far off. Infanticide, disease, and, more than all, strong drink have tended to this result. Some efforts have been made to ameliorate their condition, and in this work the Bishop of Brisbane (Dr. Hale) has taken a prominent part. His labours were not altogether unfruitful. In 1876 the number of natives was computed at 3953 of all ages and both sexes.

VIII. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—In 1838 the value of the exports did not exceed £5000; in 1869 it amounted to £2,993,035; by 1878 it had advanced to £5,355,021 or £22 0s. 3d. per head of the population. The imports which in 1869 were £2,754,770 reached £5,719,611 in 1878, or £23 10s. 3d. per

head of the population. The total value of the import and export trade increased from £5,747,805 in 1869 to £11,074,632 in 1878, the average rate per head having gone up from £32 3s. 2d. to £15 10s. 6d. For 1879 the total imports amounted to £5,014,149; the exports amounted to £4,762,727; the excess of imports over exports being £251,422. Among the staple exports were:—Wheat and flour £1,627,707; other agricultural produce £25,549; horticultural produce £38,799; dairy produce £12,006; wool £1,984,879, other animal productions £129,061; copper ore and regulus £407,587; other minerals £2162; colonial manufactures £23,796. Of the imports there were from Great Britain £2,718,788 consisting of drapery, iron-mongery, and miscellaneous manufactures. From the British possessions the imports amounted to £2,016,083. The Foreign imports amounting to £279,278 comprised tea, coffee, sugar, tobacco, timber, mineral oil, and spices. The total imports per head of the population during 1879 was £19 13s. 2d.; of the exports it was £18 13s. 5d.

IX. SHIPPING.—The shipping returns during the year 1879 were: inward entries 1092 vessels of 467,729 tons; outward entries were 1039 vessels of 465,162 tons. During the proper season several steamers specially constructed navigate the rivers Murray, Murrumbidgee, and Darling, upwards of forty steamers and fifty barges being employed in the trade.

X. INTERCOMMUNICATION.—There are under the jurisdiction of the Central Board of Main Roads 3331 miles of main roads, of which about 1140 miles were thoroughly formed and metalled at the close of 1878. The total expenditure in the construction of these roads since the year 1850 has been over £2,000,000. During the financial year 1878-79 £85,000 were expended in their maintenance. At the close of 1879 there were 559 miles of railway open for traffic constructed at a cost of £4,103,501.

XI. REVENUE.—The revenue for the year ending 30th June 1880 was £1,831,164 with a deficit balance of £61,583 from the previous year deducted made a total of £1,769,581, and the expenditure £1,853,112, leaving a deficit of £83,531. Towards the revenue the Customs contributed £510,796; rents and licences of Crown lands £92,135; postal Telegraph receipts, £130,929; railways and tramways £364,855; land sales £469,330; the remainder being made up of various miscellaneous items. The colonial debt on 30th June 1879 was £7,593,943. The revenue for 1879-80 was estimated at £1,855,587; and the expenditure at £1,854,345. With the deficit from the previous year and the unexpended balances, the total deficit on 30th June 1880 was expected to be £234,722.

XII. MANUFACTORIES.—Among the leading manufactories (according to the census of 1876) are 43 for agricultural implements, at which the majority of the reapers or snippers used in the colony are made, 3 for soap and candles, 20

for coach and carriage building, 6 for jam, 1 for meat-preserving, 4 for ship-building, 1 tweed factory, 13 clothing factories, 24 boot and shoe factories, 1 rope walk, 1 brush manufactory, 3 biscuit bakeries, 4 confectionery manufactories, 9 dried fruits, and 2 olive oil factories. A late return enumerates 25 breweries, 28 distilleries, 8 foundries, 5 gas-works, 5 potteries, 21 saw-mills, 22 tanneries, 102 wine-presses, 20 soda-water factories, 2 dye-works, 1 fuse factory, 25 brick-yards, and 1 ice-works. Flour-mills are very numerous, there being, on 31st March 1880, 117 driven by steam machinery, of the aggregate horse-power of 2291, and employing 875 hands. During 1878 458,183 gallons of wine were manufactured, of which 49,691 gallons were exported, and during 1879, 459,308 gallons were manufactured, and 46,908 exported.

XIII. MATERIAL PROGRESS.—The three sources of wealth—mineral, pastoral, and agricultural—have developed trade and commerce to an extent that appears surprising when set against the population. Remembering that the entire number of inhabitants barely exceeds a quarter of a million, the fact that the total exports and imports for 1879 amounted to nearly £10,000,000 speaks well for the general prosperity. Of the staple exports of the colony, wool, copper, and wheat hold the most prominent position. Notwithstanding the falling-off in copper, the combined value of these exports amounted in 1878 to close on £4,000,000 sterling. Comparing the returns for 1878 with those for 1868 it is found that the exports of wheat and flour have increased more than a million, and of wool more than half a million sterling. Nor is there any ground for apprehension that the limit has been reached. Of late years, through more liberal land legislation, vast areas have been brought under cultivation which a short time ago were believed unfit for the plough. As lines of railway are being constructed the produce of the interior is more quickly and economically conveyed to ports of shipment, and the boundary of agricultural settlement is receding still further from the seaboard. The colony has an extensive coastline, and the land which will ultimately prove available for cultivation is practically unlimited. Some of the foregoing remarks apply to mining pursuits. Rich and valuable mineral properties in the interior have hitherto proved comparatively valueless on account of the cost of conveying the ore to market, but the lines of railway that are being pushed on with vigour will materially lessen this drawback. With regard to pastoral pursuits the opening of the vast interior by the construction of the telegraph line to Port Darwin, the results of the researches of various exploring parties, and the construction of a transcontinental railway—the first link of which is in progress—are destined to facilitate their expansion to an extent which it is at present impossible to estimate. When it is borne in mind that the area of the colony (including the Northern

Territory) is upwards of 900,000 square miles, of which only about 1 per cent. is alienated from the Crown, and less than one-third held under pastoral leases, the undeveloped resources of the colony will be seen to justify sanguine anticipations. When regarding the progress of S.A. the initial difficulties it had to contend with and its slow growth for the first twenty years should not be forgotten. Twenty years ago the interior was comparatively unknown. What were then scattered sheep-runs are now immense stretches of waving corn. The trackless wilderness of those days is occupied by the squatter with his countless flocks and herds; it is traversed by the electric wire, and will soon be startled by the shriek of the locomotive. Then the shipping trade of the colony was confined to vessels of small capacity and for the most part limited to Port Adelaide; but now lines of magnificent ocean steamers take S.A. in their way, while up the Gulf and along the coastline outports are opened to which traffic converges and which are being continually improved. Twenty years ago there were only 264,462 acres of land under cultivation; now there are over two millions. At that time the population was 113,340; now it exceeds a quarter of a million. The revenue of the colony in 1858 was £469,637; in 1878 it was £1,592,635.

XIV. PRODUCTS.—Though nearly all the fruits and vegetables that are produced in England grow in S.A. it is principally remarkable as a wheat and grape-growing country. In some years sufficient grain has been grown to supply not only the wants of the colony and of neighbouring colonies but to export many cargoes to England, where the wheat is held in high estimation and invariably realises high prices, on account of its dryness and weight. The colony has justly been termed the Granary of A. As a wine producing country it already takes high rank and bids fair to take a much higher position. Hop-growing is attracting some attention; the olive is also being systematically cultivated and a comparatively large area is now under planting. The manufacture of preserved fruits is also carried on, as is also the drying of raisins and currants. Some attention has been given to sericulture, both the silkworm and the mulberry trees upon which it feeds have done well, but no very substantial results have been obtained though the silk produced has been pronounced by Marseilles merchants to be equal to any ever wound by them.

XV. AGRICULTURAL STATISTICS.—The extent of land under cultivation for the year ending 31st March 1880 was 2,271,058 acres. 1,458,096 were cropped with wheat, the produce being 14,260,964 bushels; hay 265,067 acres, total produce 296,141 tons; barley 15,107 acres, produce 202,166 bushels; oats 4117 acres, produce 61,818 bushels; peas 3963 acres, produce 58,547 bushels; potatoes 7320 acres, produce 27,832 tons; flax 208 acres; permanent artificial grass 21,121 acres; gardens and orchards 9148 acres; vines 4114 acres. Products: 459,308

gallons of wine, 34,240 cwt. of grapes, 699 cwt. of raisins. Live stock returns were : horses 130,052, horned cattle 266,217, sheep 6,140,396, goats 11,277, pigs 90,540, poultry 698,863. At the same date there were 35,839,818 acres enclosed, of which 33,568,760 acres were not cultivated ; 5,702,387 acres were in the hands of freeholders, and 8,477,820 acres were purchased lands. The average produce per acre of the leading crops was—wheat 7 bushels 49 lbs. per acre, hay 22 cwt., barley 13 bushels 19 lbs., oats 15 bushels 1 lb., peas 14 bushels 46 lbs., potatoes 76 cwt. The extent of land alienated during the year 1879 was 604,246 acres, of which 428,114 acres were selected under the system of deferred payments and 176,132 acres were purchased for cash. The total area of land leased for pastoral purposes in 1879 was 177,200 square miles, the annual rent of which was £47,814.

XVI. ELECTRIC TELEGRAPHS.—An extensive system of electric telegraphs is in operation, communication being had with all the leading places in the other colonies, including W.A. The South Australian portion of the telegraph line to W.A. was completed to Eucla on 16th July 1877, the total cost being £75,214. Great difficulties were experienced in erecting the section between Fowler's Bay and Eucla, owing to the extreme scarcity of feed and water, the country traversed being mostly sandy desert, and the long distances that materials had to be carted, but these obstacles were effectually overcome and the line was completed in a thoroughly substantial manner. The Western Australian line is 800 miles long and the South Australian portion, including the line from Adelaide, about 971 miles long.

XVII. EDUCATION.—Within the last few years educational affairs have been completely revolutionised, and the Public School system, which previously was the worst in the colonies, is now one of the best. The object kept steadily in view is the education up to a certain standard of every child in the colony. The standard is a low one, the only compulsory subjects being reading, writing, and arithmetic, but instruction is also given in other branches. The ages during which children are obliged to attend school are from seven to thirteen, and the rule is made imperative except as regards those who are able to show that they are being otherwise educated or have attained the standard. The Act establishing the present system was passed in 1875. Under it the public schools were placed under the charge of a Council with a permanent President, the Council being subject to the Minister of Education, who however rarely interfered except on matters of policy. This plan of administration had a three years trial, and under it a great impetus was given to the erection of new schools, the appointment and classification of competent teachers, and the weeding-out of those who might have been considered competent under the old *régime*, but were no longer regarded as suitable instructors for the youth of the colony. But the Council did not do as much as had been

expected of it, and the system of divided responsibility was condemned. In 1878 an Act was passed abolishing the Council and entrusting the entire management of the schools to the Minister, who alone is responsible to Parliament. The Secretary of the Council has been made the accountant under the new arrangement. The central department is assisted by Local Boards of Advice, who are appointed in all parts of the colony, and perform their duties without fee or reward. There are five school inspectors, each of whom has a certain district apportioned to him. About a year and a-half ago the compulsory powers of the Act were brought into operation, and school visitors were appointed to wait on the parents and induce them to send their children to school. There are now a superintendent and seven school visitors. Uniform fees of 4d. per week for children under seven years of age and 6d. for older children are charged in all schools ; but in cases where the parents are too poor to pay for the education of their children that duty is taken upon itself by the State. During 1878 the fees paid by parents amounted to £16,717 and by the State to £770. The education given is entirely secular, though the teacher is allowed to read the Bible before school hours if the parents of his scholars wish him to do so. Large grants have been made by the Legislature for school buildings, teachers' salaries, &c., in order to aid in the development of a thorough and comprehensive system. To foster and encourage higher education, there is an annual grant from the public funds of five per cent. on all private contributions, and also an endowment of 50,000 acres of land. In connection with the schools six exhibitions of the annual value of £30, tenable for three years, are offered ; also three University scholarships of the annual value of £50, tenable for three years. The number of schools in operation on 31st December 1878 is stated at 310. Of these 234 were public schools and the remainder provisional. The attendance during the year was 31,230 in the public and 3261 in the provisional schools ; the average daily attendance was 16,755, being a proportion of 72·67 per cent. of the roll attendance. The number of head teachers was 230, and the total number engaged in teaching 699. The total expenditure for 1878, including payment for buildings, was £152,718 10s. 2d. The cost to the State of each child under instruction was £1 10s. 0½d. ; the cost of each child in average attendance, £3 1s. 10d. A University is established, towards the building and endowment of which a well-known colonist, Captain Hughes, contributed £20,000 and Thomas Elder £20,000. It is under the control of a Council, of whom the Bishop is the Chancellor, and is provided with a complete staff of professors. Its degrees rank with those of any other University. The students are lodged in a handsome building which cost £25,000 in its erection. In connection with the Church of England there is the collegiate school of St. Peter's, which is endowed and has

several scholarships and exhibitions attached to it. The curriculum is similar to that of the public schools of Great Britain. In connection with the Wesleyan body is the Prince Alfred College. Five scholarships are annually competed for, the two highest being of the value of £15 15s.

XIX.—GOVERNMENT AND LEGISLATION.—The privilege of Constitutional Government was not conferred on S.A. until many years after the foundation of the colony. Its affairs were originally under the control of a Board of Commissioners resident in London, represented in the colony by a Commissioner of Public Lands. The powers given to the Board by Act of Parliament in 1834 were to borrow money to carry on the Government of the colony, and to defray the cost of transporting emigrants. The Board had but a brief existence. The Act provided that a form of local Government should be granted to the province as soon as its population reached 50,000 persons, but it was some years before this had been effected. The Commissioners did not at first find their task one easy of accomplishment. In order to assist them in their endeavour to found the colony the South Australian Company was formed, mainly through the exertions of George Fife Angas, who relinquished his post of Commissioner and became Chairman of the Company. Under the operations of this Association the work of colonisation proceeded, and from the appointment of Captain John Hindmarsh as Governor in 1836 until the year 1851 the work of local legislation was carried on by the Governor and a Legislative Council, consisting of four non-official members, all appointed by the Governor. In 1851 the first Constitution was granted to the province. A new Legislative Council was authorised, which was to consist of twenty-four members, one-third to be nominated by the Crown, and two-thirds to be elected by the people every five years. Members of this Council were required to possess freehold property of not less than £200 annual or £2000 total value. Voting was based on a small property or household qualification, and persons holding property in more than one district were allowed to vote for members in each district in which their property was situated. This Council however had no control over the land revenue, which was expended by the authority of the Governor alone. The new Council was no sooner formed than the colonists began to agitate for Responsible Government in its entirety, and in 1856 the present Constitution Act was passed, and having received the Royal sanction was proclaimed in the colony in October of that year. By this Act the Government is vested in a Governor and two Houses of Parliament. The Parliament is triennial, and the sessions are generally held annually. The two Houses are called respectively the Legislative Council and the House of Assembly. For electing members to the former the whole province is one electoral district. A member must be thirty years of age, and have resided in the colony for

three years. Electors for the Legislative Council must be twenty-one years of age, and have a freehold estate of £50 value, or a leasehold of £20 annual value with three years unexpired, or must occupy a dwelling-house of £20 annual value. There are eighteen members of the Legislative Council, one-third of whom retire at the end of every fourth year. This House cannot be dissolved by the Governor. The House of Assembly at first consisted of thirty-six members, elected by seventeen districts, two of which returned only one member, while Adelaide returned six. In 1861 a redistribution of seats was made, based on population. The colony was divided into eighteen districts, each electing two members. In the session of 1874 a further alteration was made, by which the colony was divided into twenty-two electoral districts, three returning three members each, one returning one, and the remainder two each, so that the Parliament now consists of forty-six members. Under the present Constitution Act all persons qualified to vote are eligible to become members of the Assembly, which is elected by manhood suffrage, the only requirements being that the voter shall be twenty-one years of age, that his name shall have been on the electoral-roll six months, and that he be untainted with felony. Aliens not naturalised are incapable of voting; but all that is required to become a naturalised subject is to take an oath of allegiance and to pay a small fee. All elections are conducted by ballot. Judges, ministers of religion, and aliens who have not lived five years in the colony are ineligible for election to either House. The Executive Government is, as in England, dependent on Parliamentary majorities. The Governor is the President of the Executive Council. Members accepting office in the Administration are not required to go to their constituencies for re-election. The Government first appointed under the present Constitution Act consisted of five Ministers, who were all required to be members of the Legislature. Recently a sixth Minister has been added, and the Ministry is now composed of the Chief Secretary, Attorney-General, Treasurer, Commissioner of Crown Lands and Immigration, Commissioner of Public Works, and Minister of Education. Any member of the Legislature renders his seat vacant by accepting any office of emolument under the Crown excepting those abovementioned. All the affairs of the colony, including the management of the Crown lands, the proceeds of which have been placed entirely at the disposal of the colonists, are under the control of the two Houses of the Legislature. Each House is vested with equal powers, with the exception that the Legislative Council cannot originate any measure for appropriating any part of the revenue, or for imposing, altering, or repealing any rate, tax, duty or impost. The financial affairs are dealt with by the Assembly, and the only part taken in the matter by the Council is the consideration of such measures as are described above after they have been passed by the

Assembly. Several taxation bills have been vetoed by the Council in the exercise of this power. The public expenditure is entirely regulated by the House of Assembly, in whose hands rests the power of making and unmaking Ministries.

XX. REAL PROPERTY ACT.—This measure, of which S.A. may justly feel proud, inaugurated a new and simple mode of conveyancing which swept away the heavy expenses and evils attendant on the old system of transferring real property. The author of the measure, which came into force in 1858, was R. R. Torrens, afterwards Registrar-General. The principles of the Act are thus set forth by a Commission appointed to enquire into its provisions and working:—"The objects of the Real Property Act are to give security and simplicity to all dealings with land, by providing that the title shall depend upon registration, that all interests shall be capable of appearing or being protected upon the face of the registry, and that a registered title or interest shall never be affected by any claim or charge which is not registered. By this system every one who acquires any estate or interest in land, upon being registered as owner thereof, obtains a title absolutely secure as against every one whose claim does not appear upon the registry; and the two elements of simplicity and security as regards the acquisition of land appear to be effectually attained." All land alienated from the Crown since 1858 is declared to be under the Real Property Act; and land acquired before that date may be brought under its operation on application after certain precautionary public notices have been given. Several amendments, found necessary by experience, have been made in the Act, and a certain amount of protection is now definitely given to equities arising in connection with properties; but the main principle has always been successfully maintained, and the value of property brought under the Act amounts to several millions sterling. The fees on transfers are small, and transactions under the Act are so simple as rarely to call for the intervention of a solicitor. Where a block of land is subdivided separate certificates of title are issued by the department for each allotment, and the greatest care is taken in defining the measurements and boundaries. Thus sources of error or opportunities for fraud seldom occur, and costly "abstracts of title" are unknown. In fact, the title embodied in the certificate issued from the Lands Titles Office is to all intents and purposes indefeasible. The South Australian Act slightly altered has been adopted by all the Australian Colonies.

HISTORY.—I. *Flinders' Discoveries*.—When Flinders returned to England in 1800 the charts of the new discoveries, which Arrowsmith pronounced the most perfect that had come before him, were published, and a plan proposed to Sir Joseph Banks for completing the investigation of the coasts of Terra Australis was approved by him and Earl Spencer, First Lord of the Admiralty. In February 1801 Flinders was promoted to the

rank of commander, and appointed to the *Investigator* sloop. A proof of the popularity of his character and the adventurous spirit of the British sailor was given, when eleven men being required to complete his crew, out of three hundred seamen on board the Vice-Admiral's ship *Zealand*, two hundred and fifty volunteered. On 18th July he sailed from Spithead, furnished with a passport from the French Government, which was granted after precedents of similar protection afforded to La Pérouse and to Cook by the respective authorities in France and England. Among the gentlemen who accompanied the expedition was William Westall the landscape-painter. A passport was also applied for by the French and granted by the English Government to Captain Baudin, who was said to be going round the world on a voyage of discovery. In November 1801 Flinders sighted the coast of A., and proceeded to examine the coast-line hitherto unexplored. In the course of his investigations he discovered and surveyed King George's Sound, on which the settlement of Swan River was planted in 1829. Sailing slowly eastwards along the barren coast which is now traversed by the electric wire connecting South and Western Australia, Flinders in January 1802 reached and duly named the Great Australian Bight, Fowler's Bay, Smoky Bay, Streaky Bay, Anxious Bay, Coffin's Bay, and other physical features, all of which are still beyond the principal settlements of S.A. His first important discovery was the magnificent harbour of Port Lincoln, which, to use the words of one of the French navigators who subsequently visited it, is "worthy to rival Port Jackson and is one of the finest harbours of the world." Owing to the nature of the land around it the founders of S.A. were unable to fix on Port Lincoln as the principal port of the colony. Proceeding northwards up what proved to be Spencer's Gulf, Flinders was extremely disappointed at the appearance of the land forming the western boundary of the inlet at the head of which now stands Port Augusta—the sea terminus of a railway line the first link in an iron road to span the continent from north to south. Coming back towards the ocean along the low-lying coast of Yorke's Peninsula—the site of the famous Wallaroo and Moonta and other rich copper mines, and which besides skirts an important agricultural territory—the appearance of the country was still barren and forbidding. Having got safely out of Spencer's Gulf the corner of Yorke's Peninsula was turned, and being then overtaken by a storm he found Nepean Bay a harbour of refuge, and the island of which it is a prominent feature was named Kangaroo Island after the numerous kangaroos or wallabys discovered in great numbers on it. From this place Mount Lofty, the highest eminence in the range which forms a background to the Adelaide plains, was sighted, and a visit to the mainland disclosed the richness and beauty of the country that surrounds what is now the capital of S.A. Passing

out through Backstairs Passage lying between the main coast line and Kangaroo Island the *Investigator* sailed into Encounter Bay, so named because of the meeting with the French vessel of discovery *Géographe* under Captain Baudin, with whom, notwithstanding the hostile terms on which the English and French nations then stood, Flinders exchanged friendly greetings. Recording this meeting, Flinders notes in his diary:—"The situation of the *Investigator* when I hove to for the purpose of speaking Captain Baudin was 35° 40' S. and 138° 58' E. At the above situation, the discoveries by Captain Baudin upon the S. coast have their termination to the W., as mine in the *Investigator* have to the eastward; yet Monsieur Peron, naturalist to the French expedition, has laid a claim for his nation to the discovery of all parts between Western Port, in Bass Straits and Nuyts Archipelago; and this part of N.S.W. is called Terre Napoléon; my Kangaroo Island which they openly adopted in the expedition, has been converted into L'Isle Decrés; Spencer's Gulf is named Golfe Bonaparte; the Gulf of St. Vincent, Golfe Josephine; and so on along the whole coast to Cape Nuyts, not even the smallest island being without some similar stamp of French discovery." Freycinet, first-lieutenant of the *Géographe*, said, subsequently, at the house of Governor King, to Flinders, "Captain, if we had not been kept so long picking up shells and catching butterflies at V.D.L., you would not have discovered the south coast before us." "I believe (adds Flinders,) M. Peron wrote from overruling authority, and that it smote him to the heart." Proceeding onwards, Flinders noted that remarkable saltwater channel which runs a short distance inland along a large part of the south-eastern coast—the Coorong—and, passing Lacepede Bay, Guichen Bay and other inlets now well known, sighted the mountains already referred to as having been discovered by Grant. Thence he continued his voyage along the coastline that bounds the adjoining colony of V.

II. *Sturt's Explorations*.—Thus far the exploration of the sea boundary was accomplished. The information thus acquired was useful but the examinations made necessarily failed to give any real idea of the value of this part of Australia. So mistaken was the opinion held of it that in 1822 it was stated by a Captain of His Majesty's Navy, who read a paper before the Philosophical Society of N.S.W., that "The south coast of Australia is barren and in every respect useless and unfavourable for colonisation." For Sturt was reserved the discovery that the character of this part of the continent was not by any means so bad as had been made out. Sturt was an ardent believer in the theory held in the early days of N.S.W. that the rivers of Australia terminated in a vast inland lake. Determined to put his theory to the test, and having already discovered the Darling River, he made up his mind to trace it to the point where its waters were emptied. In 1830 with a small

party in two boats Sturt found his way from the Murrumbidgee into the Murray, and traced the latter river to its mouth in Encounter Bay. The journey was made under difficulties that would have appalled men of ordinary mettle; but this brave man and his trusty followers proceeded undaunted, suffering from want of food, in constant danger from natives, and wearied with work until the discovery was complete, and then gradually made their way back up-stream, arriving in Sydney after an absence of six months. There is no doubt that Sturt was disappointed with the country through which he passed, and particularly with the discovery that the mouth of the Murray was not easily navigable. But that he was not altogether unfavourably impressed is shown by these few words which we quote from his own records:—"Hurried as my view of it was my eye never fell on a country of more promising aspect or of more favourable position than that which occupies the space between the Lake (Alexandrina) and the Ranges of St. Vincent's Gulf, and continuing northerly stretches away without any visible boundary." Governor Darling who had dispatched Sturt on his expedition, afterwards sent Captain Barker by sea to St. Vincent's Gulf; and one who accompanied that party writes—"The soil was rich, there was abundance of the finest pasturage, no lack of fresh water;" and then becoming poetical in his enthusiasm he remarks that "it was a spot in whose valleys the exile might hope to build for himself and for his family a peaceful and prosperous retreat."

III. *Colonisation*.—About 1829 Edward Gibbon Wakefield, an advanced political economist for those days, had thought out a system of colonisation which he maintained was the only true one possessing the elements of stability and success. His system was based on two principles—in all cases to sell the land for a fair and reasonable value, and to devote the proceeds to the introduction of labour from the Mother Country. He maintained that the worst thing that could happen to a new country was to give the land away in large blocks; and he found a striking illustration of this in the history of W.A. where grants of land of 20,000 or 50,000 acres had been made to favoured individuals, but they had turned out to be utterly worthless. Wakefield's theory, with its really ingenious theory and really desirable aims—good wages, large profits, and complete civilisation—took the active world by storm; and no sooner was the serious business of carrying the Reform Bill completed than a society was formed for carrying it into practical effect. The extraordinary success with which this theory was received at Home, although opposed by every intelligent colonist, may be traced to the skilful manner in which it combined the interests and conciliated the prejudices of the legislative as well as the executive class. The capitalist for the first time saw himself painted as an injured victim, and

presented with a new field for ample profits; the ratepayer was charmed at the idea of getting rid of an unlimited number of paupers; the educated gentleman hoped to live on his £20,000 with all the state, dignity, and luxury, physical and intellectual, that a landed estate of £100,000 confers in England or Scotland. The adventurous of the middle class dwelt on the charms of distinction which would be open to them in a new colony; while to ardent politicians and essayists, who in 1830 were for the most part deeply dissatisfied with the ancient English institutions, the idea of becoming founders and modellers of a model commonwealth was truly delightful. Even the Government was eventually conciliated by the prospect of additional patronage which a new colony presented. In 1831 Major Bacon, a fellow-soldier in the Spanish Legion with Colonel Wakefield, brother to the theorist, appears to have opened negotiations at the Colonial Office, then under Lord Goderich, for establishing a chartered colony in some part of A.; and in 1832 these negotiations had so far progressed that a provisional committee of the S.A. Land Company had been formed, with Colonel Torrens, one of the proprietors of the *Globe* newspaper, as its chairman, with a proposed capital of £50,000. In a letter dated 9th July 1832 Torrens transmitted a draft of the charter suggested by his committee, and drawn under the instructions of Wakefield. On perusing this draft Lord Goderich curtly closed the negotiation, on the ground that "it would virtually transfer to the company the sovereignty of a vast unexplored territory; that it would encroach upon the limits of the existing colonies of N.S.W. and W.A.; that the charter would invest the company with powers of legislation, of erecting courts, of appointing judges, of raising and commanding militia; that all the powers of the company involving in their practical effects the sovereign dominion of the whole territory would be transferred to a popular assembly which would be to erect within the British monarchy a government purely republican; and that the company would be receivers of large sums of money for the due application of which they do not propose to give any specific security." When the promoters offered to modify their plan they were informed "that the views entertained by the proposed company are not sufficiently precise and determined to lead his lordship to apprehend that any advantage will arise from confining a correspondence that has for some time been going on." In 1833 another association was formed and the chairman, W. W. Whitmore, M.P., opened negotiations with the Earl of Derby, then Under Secretary for the Colonies. He proposed to found a colony on the site where it was eventually planted, to sell land at 5s. an acre ("this will ensure the concentration of settlers in proportion to the price at which land is sold,") and devote the proceeds to the conveyance of young pauper labourers of both

sexes in equal numbers. The company to have a million acres at 5s. an acre. "On this land they will perform such works as they may deem expedient, with a view to attract population thereto, while Government will sell in an entirely unimproved state the land not purchased by the company to any individuals desirous of purchasing it." This association, which contemplated fame and patronage rather than profit, included George Grote, the eminent historian of Greece; William Hutt, afterwards Governor of W.A.; Henry Bulwer, afterwards Ambassador and K.C.B.; Colonel Torrens; H. G. Ward, afterwards Governor of the Ionian Islands and K.C.B.; J. A. Roebuck; Sir William Molesworth; Benjamin Hawes, afterwards Colonial Under-Secretary; and Edward Strutt, Chief Commissioner of Railways. This negotiation also failed. Gibbon Wakefield's charter was not approved. While approving of the plan of colonisation suggested as regarded the disposal of land, Secretary Stanley insisted that the government of the colony should be left in the hands of the Crown until such time as it was able to govern itself. After receiving this communication the S.A. Association decided to continue their operations for the purpose of forming a Crown colony, provided that by Act of Parliament provision were made for the permanent establishment of the mode of disposing of waste land, and of the purchase-money of such land devised by Gibbon Wakefield. Before the negotiation was concluded Secretary Stanley resigned. Spring Rice (afterwards Lord Monteagle) became Secretary for the Colonies. Under his administration an act was passed in the session of 1834 substantially embodying the terms agreed upon with Secretary Stanley by which the province of S.A. was established, the minimum price of land fixed at 12s. an acre, and the business of colonisation was placed in the hands of a body of commissioners. Lord Aberdeen having become Secretary for the Colonies, eight commissioners were selected from the members of the S.A. Association and gazetted in May 1835; Torrens being appointed chairman, because, as he stated in his letter of application, he had "more knowledge of the object and principles of the proposed colony than any of the other gentlemen willing to act." It is important to note that although the Colonial Office refused to permit the foundation of a chartered colony in which the government and responsibility would have been in the hands of the colonisers, from first to last the personal friends and pupils of Wakefield had the sole control of every arrangement and the selection of every officer, and that every step was taken under the advice of Wakefield who was a constant attendant at the rooms of the association. The commissioners first offered the post of Governor to the distinguished General, Charles James Napier; but on being refused a small body of troops as police, and power to draw on the British Government for money in case of need, he

declined the dangerous honour, observing with wise prescience, "While sufficient security exists for the supply of labour in the colony, and even *forces* that supply, there does not appear to be any security that the supply of capital will be sufficient to employ that labour." Thus S.A. lost an active Governor, and India obtained a great General. Of two Governors subsequently appointed, one was compelled to overdraw £400,000, and the next obtained a company of soldiers in lieu of an expensive police. The commissioners then selected as Governor Captain Hindmarsh, R.N., a distinguished naval-officer, Governor of Heligoland, and Colonel Light as chief officer of the survey department; Fisher as resident commissioner; Robert Gouger, editor of the *Letter from Sydney* and secretary of the S.A. Association, as colonial secretary—in all seventeen appointments, including two attorneys, and an unsuccessful merchant, "who had been found useful to the commission in selling land and raising money." The parties selected seem to have been studiously chosen for their innocence of all colonial, official and agricultural experience. While the political steps for founding the model colony were progressing, means for agitating the public mind in favour of emigration on the new principle, to the unknown territory selected by the S.A. Association had not been neglected. The theory propounded in the *Letter from Sydney* had been repeated and enlarged on in a work called *England and America*, and in a multitude of pamphlets, reviews in newspapers, speeches and lectures. The active world began to believe that a political philosopher's stone had been discovered. A newspaper, the *South Australian Gazette*, was published in London, with the view of being transplanted to the new colony as soon as a hut could be found for its reception; while the most influential daily and weekly organs re-echoed the statements and conclusions which received the admiring assent of all parties. Anything in the shape of opposition, or even doubtful criticism, from persons of colonial experience, was greeted with the utmost degree of scorn and contempt. They were hissed down, unheard, as the most stupid or jealously envious of mortals. The friends of Wakefield's theory had from the first taken it for granted that nothing but the basest motives could induce any one to hesitate in accepting their panacea for colonial ills, and they had the same advantage in attacking the Colonial Office that a quack has in ridiculing a practitioner of the old school. A small book, published in 1834, entitled *The New British Province of South Australia* with an account of the Principles, Objects, Plan, and Prospects of the colony, one of scores of the same tendency which appeared about the same time, is a favourable and temperate specimen and the literary agitation which Wakefield perfected, if he did not invent. This work, adorned with maps, a picture of a bay, with palm trees and an emu, commences with an extract from one of

Archbishop Whately's speeches, which was then received with enthusiasm.—"A colony so founded would fairly represent English society; every new comer would have his own class to fall into, and to whatever class he belonged he would find its relation to the others, and the support derived from the others much the same as in the parent country. There would be little more revolting to the feelings of an emigrant than if he had merely shifted his residence from Sussex to Cumberland or Devonshire." And then, after devoting many pages to disparaging all other colonies and systems of colonisation, and promising a supply of labour and a state of refinement equal to that of an old colony, a considerable space is devoted to a description of the proposed country, particularly of Kangaroo Island, and its resources, with a list of probable exports. Seldom have more errors been propagated in so few pages, in so formal, so positive and so pompous a manner. The means of communication promised by the sea-coast remains unused to this hour, and Kangaroo Island is still a solitary waste. A day in Adelaide at any time from the founding of the city downwards would show how absurd were the following premisses:—"The price of land will take out the labourers free of cost to their employer, and will enable him to retain their services. It will be the first colony combining plenty of labour and plenty of land. The large produce of industry, divided in the shape of high profits and high wages, will not only make living high, but will cause the interest of money to be high, and will thus enable persons owning money, without engaging in any work, to obtain much larger and more effective incomes than their property yields in England; and will furnish a demand for such persons as surveyors, architects, engineers, clerks, teachers, lawyers, and clergymen." These were the inducements held out with eminent success to tempt men unfit for the toil of early colonisation to emigrate to a colony which was to be founded, not by slow degrees, but complete. The land was to be sold in England at such a fixed price as would, by preventing labourers from becoming landowners "too soon," preserve a "hired labour price," and secure high profits on good wages. The proceeds of the land sold were to be applied to supplying labourers with free passages, and thus a complete section of all the ranks and classes composing the parent State was to be transplanted, full grown, to the antipodes. In the commencement the commissioners found difficulty in selling the quantity of land, and raising a sufficient amount of the loan of £200,000, at ten per cent. authorised by the Government. But eventually these difficulties were overcome by the active assistance of G. F. Angas and John Wright, banker. Angas resigned his post as commissioner, and formed the S.A. Company, which commenced operations by purchasing a large quantity of land from the commissioners with certain special privileges. A sum of £30,000 completed the preliminary financial operations and

the first part of the colonising career of S.A. commenced. The company, which had obtained special privileges in consideration of their large and early purchase, lost no time in sending out a pioneer expedition with emigrants and officers to make preparations for carrying on every kind of pursuit considered likely to be profitable in a colony—farming, sheep-feeding, banking, building and whaling. After an experience of some years the company found reason to adopt the more profitable position of absentee landholders and land jobbers. Colonel Light was despatched by the commissioners in March 1836 with a surveying staff and a few emigrants; and when he arrived at the appointed rendezvous in Nepean Bay on 19th August he found three vessels of the S.A. Company, which had brought a body of emigrants who were settled on Kangaroo Island; and in November the *Africaine* arrived with the Colonial Secretary, a banking association and a newspaper. In July Captain Hindmarsh, the Governor, sailed from London in the *Buffalo*, a vessel of war, with a number of emigrants. All this was done before the commissioners had received any report as to the suitability of the district selected for supporting emigrants. Kangaroo Island, which had figured largely in prospectuses and speeches, was found to be unfit for colonisation, after time and money had been wasted by emigrants and the company in building and clearing. Colonel Light landed in the Gulf of St. Vincent, and after a survey fixed upon the site of the present city of Adelaide for the capital, and the present Port Adelaide for its harbour. It was then a narrow, rather shallow, creek, leading out of St. Vincent's Gulf. The landing was in a mangrove swamp, seven miles from the intended capital. Wharves, deep dredging, a solid road, and other improvements, have transformed the mangrove creek into a good harbour, not inconveniently distant from the capital, with which it is united by a railway. Governor Hindmarsh arrived on 28th December 1836; read his commission under a gum tree, in presence of about 200 emigrants and officials; and then, looking round, felt extremely dissatisfied with the selection made by the Resident Commissioner and the Surveyor-General. That he should have been dissatisfied with a selection which placed the capital in a picturesque but hot valley far from a port, and without the use of a navigable river, and that he should as a sailor have been forcibly impressed with the fearful cost of landing and conveying cargoes to the interior from such a harbour is not extraordinary; nevertheless experience has proved that the site was as good as any that could have been chosen, and art has corrected the defects of nature. Hindmarsh attempted to change the site of Adelaide. Differences of a serious character arose between him and the Resident Commissioner—the colony became divided into two parties, one of which supported the Governor and the other the Resident Commissioner. Both parties were greatly to blame.

Lord Glenelg settled the question by acceding to the request of the commissioners and recalling Hindmarsh. In the sequel the site of the capital to which Hindmarsh had objected was retained and almost all the officials, from whom he had experienced most vexatious and insolent opposition, were found either incompetent or corrupt and dismissed by his successor. The most serious evils that befel the S.A. colonists arose from the precipitancy with which emigrants were sent out before the Surveyor-General had reported whether the country was fit for settlement and before any preparation had been made, by roads, wharves, barracks, conveyances, surveys and importation of live stock, for employing or feeding emigrants. To replace Hindmarsh the commissioners recommended and secured the appointment of Lieut-Colonel George Gawler. At the same time Gawler was also made resident commissioner—*vice* Fisher dismissed—and thus united in his own person all the administrative powers of the colony. In order to obtain money to commence operations, before the colony had been surveyed or even settled, the commissioners issued "preliminary orders" as a bonus to the first purchasers and colonists at £72 12s. each, which entitled the purchaser to select, in a rotation settled by lottery, 120 acres of country land and one acre in the intended capital of the intended colony. This capital city before discovery or survey was settled by the commissioners to consist of 1200 acres or nearly nine square miles. As soon as the capital, Adelaide, had been selected and mapped the holders of preliminary orders forming the first body of colonists selected their sections, and the whole surplus was put up for auction to the colonists "as a reward for their enterprise," and sold at an average rate of £2 per acre. Thus, more than ten times the space that has ever been required was turned into and perpetually dedicated to building land. From that moment the great object of the first colonists became to magnify and sell to future colonists their building land in Adelaide. No crop was so profitable as land left in a state of nature, but called and sold for a street. The first operation having been performed, by which the future site of what was intended to be a great city had been transferred into the hands of a few persons, chiefly consisting of the friends of the commissioners and the officials of the S.A. Company, the next was to sell as much land as possible in England by giving English purchasers a decided advantage over those who, nevertheless intending to emigrate, declined to buy a pig in a poke. Accordingly land orders were issued at £80 each, which entitled the holder to select eighty acres of country land in the order dictated by the date of payment. Thus, when any particularly desirable plot of land was brought into the market, a speculation arose to discover and purchase the oldest "order" in the colony. A class of Adelaide brokers arose who dealt in and professed to put a value on these "scrip," according to their respective dates,

Sometimes an emigrant who had been months in the colony would be superseded by the holder of the land order of an absentee sent at the latest moment by ship letter. On one occasion the supposed discovery of a lead mine under an eighty-acre section sent up the earliest-dated order to a premium of £500. After all there was no lead mine; but the lucky purchaser being in command of the market made use of a later order, and reserved his £500 prize for future use. After five days of the week had been consumed by those who purchased "land orders" in England in selecting the best sections, on the sixth the colonising emigrant who had preferred seeing before investing, or the frugal labourer who had saved enough to work for himself on his own land, was allowed to take his pick of the refuse. Such parties were required to send in a sealed tender. A person tendering for several adjoining sections had the preference over a person tendering for a single section. Thus, in every way the cultivating colonist was discouraged and land-jobbing speculation invited. That no element of confusion might be wanting in the land arrangements of the model colony the commissioners devised, and Wakefield approved, the "special survey system," which enabled them to raise large sums of money, by offering special privileges to capitalists; and it proved most effective in England. Under this system a capitalist was entitled to have 15,000 acres surveyed in any part of the province on condition that he purchased not less than 4000 acres at £1 an acre. In S.A. there is a great scarcity of water, and good cultivable land lies only in patches surrounded by other land which is at best only fit for pasture. By judicious management the purchaser of a special survey could command all the water, and all the pastoral advantages of 15,000 acres, by purchasing 4000; the remainder, 11,000 acres, being useless to anyone else, fell naturally in his occupation at an average of 5s. 4d. an acre. To increase the mischief, purchasers of special surveys were permitted to establish secondary towns in addition to Adelaide, which was twenty times too large for the population; while the staff of surveyors were continually interrupted in their regular work, to the great injury of cultivating emigrants, in order to make these special surveys, at an expense often exceeding the total value of the purchase-money. In a very short time all the good land in the neighbourhood of Adelaide was monopolised by the absentee capitalists and proprietors of the S.A. Company. In a word, the whole system discouraged the proper pursuits of colonists, and propagated a spirit of land-jobbing which, by its apparent profits, very soon infected the neighbouring colonies and deceived the merchants, the legislature, and the colonial department of Great Britain. At an epoch in the existence of an infant state, when the first settlers ought to consist of a few gardeners, a few shepherds, a few farmers, and a few mechanics, with half-a-dozen men of superior attainments and

energy, and plenty of sheep and cattle, and when a village with a wharf was all the town needed, S.A. had nine square miles of building land, a bank, two newspapers, and a population of speculative gentlemen. In England, paragraphs carefully culled from S.A. land sellers' newspapers were circulated as accompaniments to advertisements in the English press, with the lectures and speeches of well-paid agents of the S.A. interest, combined to raise the colonising speculations and movements to fever pitch about the time that Colonel Gawler anchored in St. Vincent's Gulf.

IV. *Governor Gawler*.—Colonel Gawler arrived in S.A. on 13th October 1838, and was recalled in May 1841. Under his administration the colony attained the highest state of external prosperity; the population quadrupled, the port was filled with ships bringing imports and emigrants; public buildings, shops, mansions, and paved roads were constructed on land which four years previously had been a desert; wharves and warehouses on a swampy creek, which was converted into a convenient port; ornamental gardens were laid out, farms were cultivated, live stock was imported by thousands, the interior was explored, and the whole colony rendered more familiarly and favourably known to the intellectual portion of the British community than any other colony. But on the other hand, the land sales ceased, capital and labour emigrated, insolvency was universal, and the colony loaded with public and private debt, collapsed more rapidly than it had risen. The powerful party whose pecuniary interests as colonising philosophers were concerned in upholding the system on which S.A. was founded attributed the rise of the colony to the merits of their system, and its fall to the extravagance of Gawler. A slight examination shows that it was what is called the extravagance of Gawler which caused those sales of land, that export of emigrants, that speculation in building lots and houses, which was supposed to be prosperity. If a million sterling had been at the disposal of the Governor at the time when, to speak commercially, the Government stopped payment, the mania for land-buying might have been continued some time longer, but it must have stopped sooner or later, because the purchasers and sellers were producing nothing; and no amount of imported population and capital could have made the colony produce enough to pay for its consumption until time had been given to raise some staple article saleable in a foreign market. Wool cannot be produced, like calico or cloth, by steam power; for agricultural produce there was no foreign demand worth mentioning; the existence of mineral wealth was not suspected. When Gawler resigned his office into the hands of his successor, S.A. was in debt about £400,000, on account of the Government; the private debts of the colonists to English merchants were at least as much more. The utmost extent

of excess in Gawler's expenditure was £20,000, or five per cent. on the expenses. It always takes a considerable time to inoculate the English people with new ideas. About the time that Hindmarsh was recalled and Gawler sailed, the fruits of skilful agitation began to be reaped by the S.A. Commissioners. No unfavourable accounts of the new colony were allowed to appear in any organ of influence; flourishing reports of the beauty, the fertility, and the commercial importance of the new city were industriously circulated. Torrens, in lectures he delivered, stated and believed that the situation of the city of Adelaide would give it the same importance with respect to the valley of the Murray that New Orleans holds with respect to the valley of the Mississippi; the Murray, which in 1851 had not yet been navigated by anything beyond a whaleboat, and which a range of lofty mountains divides from Adelaide! An influential agent in the South Australian interest not only produced a magnificently-coloured plan of the new city, divided into streets and squares, but by a further stroke of imagination anchored a 400-ton ship in the Torrens opposite Government House—the River Torrens being a chain of pools in which the most desperate suicide would ordinarily have difficulty in drowning himself, and across which a child may generally step dry-shod! Thus land was sold, and emigrants were shipped off before the commissioners had time to receive further accounts from their new and trusted Governor and commissioner. Gawler being an amiable, enthusiastic, simple-minded, yet ambitious man, was dazzled with the idea of becoming the founder of a great, civilised, self-supporting community. He accepted the theories of Wakefield as immutable truths, and the calculations of the commissioners as the emanations of the highest financial ability. Confiding in the private assurances of the commissioners, he was cruelly deceived. Under the original plan of the colony the commissioners had calculated that an annual sum of £10,000, over and above any revenue to be derived from customs or local taxation, would be sufficient to defray all the governmental expenses of S.A. This calculation was founded on what they hoped to be able to raise, and not on the necessities of the case. In order to make it fit they fixed on an arbitrary number of officials at arbitrary salaries. The statements made in a despatch written by Gawler immediately after his arrival show that if he had been less zealous to carry out the views of the commissioners, and more cautious about his own personal interests, he would have at once brought the progress of colonisation to a stand-still, strictly followed his written instructions, and retired with his private fortune uninjured to his own profession. He found the treasury empty—the accounts in confusion. £12,000, being £2000 more than the whole amount authorised to be drawn for in England in the year, had been drawn in the first six months; a large expense was required for the

support of emigrants sick of fever and dysentery; provisions, wages and house rent were enormously high; custom-houses, police-stations, a gaol, and offices for transaction of public business were urgently required; a police establishment at colonial wages in the absence of a military force was indispensable; the commissioners in their calculations had omitted to provide for a post-master, a sheriff, or a gaoler—for letters, debtors, or criminals; the surveys were seriously in arrear; the head of the staff and all his attendants had resigned; the late Resident Commissioner and Accountant-general, the Colonial Treasurer, and several other officers were found insubordinate, irregular in their accounts, and grossly inefficient; it was necessary to supersede two of them peremptorily—almost immediately; all officials were dissatisfied with low salaries in the face of the high prices of provisions, house rent, &c. The Governor himself, with Mrs. Gawler, his children, private secretary, and servants were compelled to occupy a small hut and expend £1800 a year whilst receiving a salary of £800. With this imperfect machinery, and an empty treasury, a population of some four or five thousand souls, partly encamped on the site of the city of Adelaide and partly dispersed in pastoral pursuits over a tract of country one hundred miles long by forty miles broad, instead of being, according to the theories of the commissioners, concentrated on ten square miles engaged in reproducing English agriculture, had to be governed, customs dues and debts had to be levied, criminals imprisoned, and aborigines repressed. As to the prospects of the colony and the character of pursuits of the colonists, the inspector of the Australasian Bank at Sydney wrote to his directors in October 1848, about the time Gawler landed:—"I venture to express my fears that the price received for the sale of land will be found insufficient to pay for the transplantation and government of emigrants; and unless funds be provided by the British Government it will be impossible to provide for the administration of police and law. There appears also to have been a great want of experience and decision in directing the energies of the colonists to that source from which alone they can hope to rise to wealth or prevent themselves from sinking into poverty until an article of export be produced in considerable quantity; as otherwise the funds of the colonists must be expended in paying for articles of import and luxuries considered as necessities of life. Wool is the only article of export that can be produced, and on this subject the colonists seem as supine as they have been eager to purchase town allotments and build houses, giving the place what seems to me a false appearance of commercial prosperity. Had it been left to me I should have delayed establishing a branch bank until I could be sure there were at least 100,000 sheep in the settlement, and that provision was made for the efficient administration of the law." The new Governor,

full of colonising enthusiasm and innocent of colonial or commercial experience, was dazzled by the building activity which had excited the serious apprehensions of the experienced bank manager. He found a large body of educated and intelligent men, who had encamped on the site of the city of Adelaide, all hopeful, active, speculating, dealing with each other and with each party of newly-arrived emigrants, full of magnificent plans for every sort of investment, in markets, warehouses, arcades, ship-building and whaling. A bit of painted board nailed to a tree created a Wakefield, a Torrens, an Angas, or Whitmore-street. All the notabilities of the S.A. interest were thus immortalised. Each speculator having so large a space to deal with, endeavoured to draw the tide of trade or fashion into his own locality, and thus, instead of one compact village, as near as possible to the port, tents, wooden huts, pisé huts, wooden houses imported from England, shops of slabs, brick, and stone, and elegant cottages, surrounded by iron rails, were scattered over a vast park of 1130 acres. Those who had not been able to secure town lots at prices to their mind proceeded into the suburbs, where at one time, with the aid of surveyors' pegged lines, not less than thirty villages were founded for sale to those who could not afford to give the city price; others were building mansions, laying out pleasure grounds, and even contemplating deer parks. The climate was delightful, the valley of the Torrens fertile; and emigrants of capital poured in, burning to commence realising the golden dreams they had enjoyed during a three months voyage. Gawler was carried away by the stream. The very confusion in which he found public business, the inefficiency of all the officers selected by the commissioners, the backward state of the surveys, were to a certain extent an encouragement, because he sanguinely contemplated that if so much had been done under no system or the worst possible system of administration, when no accounts were kept—when the Governor and the Resident Commissioner held rival public meetings, and the Colonial Secretary and Colonial Treasurer fought in the streets—how much more might be done under an orderly, regular Government such as he lost no time in establishing? He proceeded to supersede the incompetent officials, to bring all the Government business into a regular form, to press on the surveys, and to make proper arrangements for the reception of the emigrants into barracks and the numerous sick of ship-fever and dysentery into an hospital. In order to obtain a revenue from customs dues, to keep down illicit distillation and protect the public from criminals, it was necessary, as Colonel Napier had foreseen, to raise a police. As labourers were worth from 10s. to 15s. a day and indifferent horses cost £50 each this was an expensive affair, but by giving a tasteful uniform and making the appointment rather honourable he succeeded in obtaining a highly respectable body of men,

including some poor gentlemen, at 5s. a day. The port on Gawler's arrival was a narrow swamp, through which for seven miles emigrants dragged their luggage and merchandise. Under his arrangements a road was constructed, and wharves and warehouses erected. He built a Government House of no extravagant pretensions, but which nevertheless cost from the price of labour and materials, £20,000; and he also built custom-houses, police-stations, and other public buildings, which were indispensable for transacting public business. He expended a large sum in protecting and endeavouring to civilise the aborigines. He contributed to two expeditions which were unsuccessfully made by Eyre in search of tracts of fertile country. To every charitable claim his purse was open; while his hospitalities were on a liberal scale. The result of his measures was to give an extraordinary impetus to the apparent prosperity of the colony. The brilliant reports of public and private buildings in progress, building land sold at £500 and even £1000 an acre, of balls, fêtes, pic-nics, horticultural shows, reproduced in England, tempted men of fortune to emigrate, capitalists to invest and merchants and manufacturers to forward goods of all kinds on credit. Port Adelaide was crowded with shipping which discharged living and dead cargoes and departed in ballast. When 14,000 colonists had arrived, in the fourth year after the foundation, scarcely a vestige of an export had been produced. The land sales and the custom-house receipts rose to enormous amounts. In the midst of a career of infatuation by which some money lenders realised fortunes and hundreds were entirely ruined, there were men of considerable fortune who endeavoured to realise the Utopia they had been taught to dream of in England and introduce the comforts and the scientific cultivation of an English country gentleman as sketched in Wakefield's letter from Sydney. These gentlemen purchased what in English eyes appeared considerable tracts of land; loaded ships with furniture, with curious, useless agricultural implements, with live stock of choice breeds; brought domestic servants, labourers, and even tenants, and landed intent on making, according to the cry of the hour, the "desert blossom like the rose." The example of one gentleman will exemplify the case of scores of his class, although less wealthy, who sank and died without notice in other colonies or in England. He possessed an English estate which brought him in about £1000 a year. Fascinated by Gibbon Wakefield's writings he sold his estate, and landed in S.A. with an extensive land order, built a house of no great size or comfort at a vast expense, fenced in a farm, and began to cultivate; but the cheap labour promised in the commissioners' pamphlets was no more forthcoming than the roads. He soon found that he was sowing shillings to reap halfpence. After spending a great deal of capital he gave up farming in disgust, and went to live in Adelaide; there,

thrown constantly among the company of speculators, having a considerable balance at his banker's, he was inclined to do as everybody did, and speculate. He lost everything, at middle age returned home with his family penniless, and, after living a few years dependent on the bounty of his relations, died broken-hearted, a victim of the "sufficient price" delusion. Among the successful there were scarcely any of the head-working, white-handed class, but a number of hard-working, frugal men, who, landing without a penny, accumulated enough by labour to purchase a good eighty-acre section, and there, by growing vegetables and wheat, rearing pigs and poultry, with the help of their wives and families, thrived steadily, and made money, in spite of the system which was intended to retain them for an indefinite time as labourers at some three shillings a day. These people often derived considerable advantage from sections of land adjoining their own being the property of absentees. On these sections they were able to pasture their live stock without expense. Where labourers could not afford to buy a whole section they clubbed together and divided one; for free men will have land whenever agriculture is the only manufacture, and no protective laws can prevent them. It was these cottier farmers and a few sheep squatters who saved the colony from being totally abandoned when the inevitable crisis came. A Scotch gentleman of ancient lineage and no fortune afforded an instance of what may be done in a colony by industrious hard work, with the help of a large family, without that capital which, according to theorists, it is indispensable that a landowner should possess. He arrived in the colony very early, the owner of a single eighty-acre section, with twelve children, one half of whom were stout well-grown lads and lasses: his whole property consisting of a little furniture, a few Highland implements, a gun or two, a very little ready money, and several barrels of oatmeal and biscuit. His section had been selected for him previous to his arrival. It lay on the other side of a steep range of hills, over which no road had then been made, ten miles from the town. He lost no time and spent no money in refreshing or relaxing in Adelaide; he found out a fellow-countryman who lent him a team of oxen, dragged his goods over the hills to his land, and encamped the first night on the ground, under a few blankets and canvass spread on the brush. The next and successive days the family worked at cutting trees; there was timber plenty for building a house. This house, situated on the slope of a hill, consisted of one long, low, wooden room, surrounded by a dry ditch to drain off the rain, and divided into partitions by blankets. The river lay below; any water needed was fetched in a bucket by one of the young ladies. A garden, in which all manner of vegetables, including tobacco and water melons, soon grew, was laid out almost as soon as the house; an early investment was made in poultry, they requiring

no other food than the grasshoppers and grass-seeds on the waste land round. Until the poultry gave a crop of eggs and chickens the guns of the lads supplied plenty of quail, ducks, and parrots. In due time a crop of maize, of wheat, and of oats was got in. Before the barrels of oatmeal were exhausted, eggs, chickens, potatoes, kale, and maize, afforded ample sustenance, and something to send to market. Labour cost nothing, fuel nothing, rent nothing, keeping up appearances nothing; no one dressed on week days in broad-cloth, except the head of the house. First a few goats, and then a cow, eventually a fair herd of stock were accumulated. Butter and vegetables found their way to Adelaide; and while the kid-glove gentry were ruining themselves, the bare-legged boys of the Highland gentleman were independent, if not rich. It is certain that every shilling taken from industrious settlers like this Scotch family under pretence of supplying labour, was money unprofitably invested, as it would have fructified more rapidly in their own hard hands. A lady who landed at Port Adelaide a few months after the Governor, in a letter describes the then "dreary appearance of the shores; the anchoring of the ship in a narrow creek where, as far as the eye could reach, a mangrove swamp extended; disembarking from a small boat into the arms of long shoremen upon a damp mudbank under a persecuting assault of mosquitoes." On this mudbank lay heaps of goods of all descriptions half covered with sand and saturated with salt water, broken chests of tea and barrels of flour, cases of hardware, furniture of all kinds, pianos and empty plate-chests, ploughs and thrashing-machines. A little further at the commencement of the "muddy track which led to Adelaide, bullock-drays stood ready to hire for conveying our baggage. The lowest charge for a load was £10. All along the side of the track were strewn baggage and broken conveyances, abandoned in despair by their owners. We stopped at a small public-house to get a little refreshment. For a cup of tea, with brown sugar, bread, and oily butter full of insects, we paid 4s. 6d. each. The butter seemed spread with a thumb. Our troubles partly vanished when we reached the beautiful site of Adelaide, where it almost seemed as if a large party of ladies and gentlemen playing at gipsying had encamped. This was the third removal of some who had pitched tents on Kangaroo Island, then built huts in Holdfast Bay, and finally took up their abode in the city of Adelaide. Several times, before the small, bright green, highly ornamented wooden summer house which had been engaged for us, our carriage had like to have been upset over stumps and logs. Every one we met seemed in the highest spirits; and it was more like a walk in Kensington Gardens than in a colony scarcely two years old." This contemporary description affords a key to much that is singular and contradictory in the early accounts of the foundation of S.A. There was a charm

about the gipsy encampment of Adelaide, with its wild speculation, perpetual excitement, liberal hospitality and charity, constant succession of new faces, splendid luxuries and curious shifts, to which the survivors look back with the feelings of a mariner to the months he spent with jolly companions on a desert island, the difference being that in the one case the shipwreck preceded, and in the other followed the jollification. Gawler held a little court, which was graced by the uniforms of the officers of the volunteer corps, a corps which consisted of some two dozen officers, from a cornet to a brigade-major, and four or five privates. There were courtiers, too, and ladies in plumes; there were fashionables and exclusives held to be the *crème de la crème*; there was an aristocracy composed of the principal officials; there were balls, to be invited to which great manœuvres were practised. It was a life like that of one of the little courts of Germany with more heartiness, in consequence of the constant arrival of friends from England. The town lots of Adelaide formed the great *rouge-et-noir* table. The climate rendered out-of-door life delightful, the imaginary streets swarmed with well-dressed crowds; so much really good society, so many fashionable men, had never before been found in a colony; everyone fancied himself the hero of a great enterprise, and enjoyed all the pleasures of gambling, while dreaming that he was helping to found an empire. In the morning the men dashed about on horses, in dog-carts, barouches and four-in-hands, which cost fabulous sums, in search of eligible sections and sites for villages. In the evenings grand dinners were given in tents and huts, where champagne and every luxury that could be preserved in a tin case abounded; fashionable dance music and the songs of Rossini and Donizetti resounded from the cottages of the "great world;" and at cock-crow beaux in beards and white waistcoats, "half savage, half soft," might be met picking their way, in the thinnest, shiniest boots, through the dust or mud of a projected crescent or arcade. There was scandal written and spoken; political intrigue; a court party and an opposition, with each a newspaper; and everybody flattered everybody else that building, dining, dancing, drinking, writing and speechifying "was doing the heroic work of colonisation." Young men of spirit were not satisfied to retire into the bush and look after a flock of sheep while it was possible to buy a section of land at £1 an acre, give it a fine name as a village site, sell the same thing at £10 an acre, for a bill the bank would discount, and live in style at the Southern Cross Hotel; for when a man had made such a speculation he could not and did not do less than invite a party of new-made friends to celebrate his good fortune by a dinner, a ball, or a picnic, with a few cases of champagne imported by the merchant on credit. At this period a romantic air was infused into the simplest transactions. For instance, in the old colony exploring expeditions

had been undertaken either by a government surveyor who marched out from some remote station without any special demonstration, or by a squatter who, with a friend or two, a stockman, and perhaps a couple of black boys, all on horseback, set out as quickly as possible to find new pastures for his stock. In S.A. they managed things very differently. Eyre having undertaken to explore the interior of the province, on the day appointed for his setting out a grand entertainment was given, over which the Governor presided. At the close of an affecting speech a band of young ladies clothed in white garments marched up the room and presented, amid the cheers of the men and the sobs of the women, a banner which they worked to be planted on the limits of his proposed discovery. Eyre's journey and a second expedition proved the hopeless barrenness of a great part of the province. He afterwards became Lieutenant-Governor of the settlement of Nelson in N.Z. During the administration of Gawler important assistance was afforded to the colonists by the arrival of the overlanders who, led by love of adventure and hope of gain, found their way from the bush of N.S.W. and Port Phillip across inhospitable deserts, over precipitous hills, through dense forests, rivers, and swamps, and in spite of tribes of fiercely hostile savages, brought flocks of sheep and mobs of cattle and horses to the South Australians at a time when butchers' meat was rising to famine price, when a good pair of bullocks could earn £60 a week in working from the port to the city, and horses which had arrived from V.D.L. after a long voyage of alternate calms and adverse winds, mere skeletons covered with sores, were sold as a favour at £100 each. The overlanders saved the colony from total abandonment during the first crash of insolvency. The strength of Australia is in her pastures; sheep to the Australian, before the discovery of copper and gold, were what the pine-tree was to the Highland laird, who on his death-bed said to his son, "Jock, be aye putting in a tree; it will be growing while ye are sleeping." The natural pastures and the climate grow the wool, and men can be shepherds who have neither strength to fell timber, nor power or skill to plough, to sow or thrash. Besides, a pack of wool is always worth cash, while a bushel of wheat may be worth ten shillings one year and nothing the next; in the worst of times ewes go on breeding and increasing, while a field allowed to go out of cultivation under an Australian climate, after devouring all the capital spent on reclamation, very soon becomes as much waste as before the plough turned the first furrow. The overlanders who brought these invaluable animals were many of them men of education; the enormous profits reaped by the first parties, in spite of the loss of both men and beasts by drought and skirmishes with the blacks, made the overland route a favourite adventure with the young bushmen. They brought with them, as well as live stock,

"old hands," who taught the cockneys how to fell a tree and make a fence, and sometimes gave the Gawler police a good deal of trouble. The gentlemen overlancers affected a banditti style of hair and costume. They rode blood or half-bred Arab horses, wore broad-brimmed sombreros trimmed with fur and eagle plumes, scarlet flannel shirts, broad belts filled with pistols, knives, and tomahawks, tremendous beards and moustachios. They generally encamped and let their stock refresh about 100 miles from Adelaide, and then rode on to strike a bargain with their anxious customers. Before the journey became a matter of course, the arrival of a band of these banditti-looking gentlemen created quite a sensation—something like the arrival of a party of successful buccaneers in a quiet seaport, with a cargo to sell, in old Dampier's time. In a few days the stock was sold; the overland garments were exchanged for the most fashionable costume which the best Hindley-street tailor could supply; and with hair brushed, oiled, and arranged after Raphael or Vandyke, the overlander proceeded to spend freely the money he had so hardly gained, and, as one of the lions of the place, to cast into the shade the smooth political economists and model colonists fresh from London. New arrivals from England, fortunate enough to be admitted to the delightful evening parties given by a lady of the "highest ton," the leader of the Adelaidean fashion, were astonished when, to fill up basso in an Italian piece, she called on a huge man with brown hands, brown face, and a flowing beard, magnificently attired, in whom they recognised the individual they had met the day before in a torn flannel jersey, with a short black pipe in his mouth. The overlancers included every rank, from the emancipist to the first-class Oxford man. By the end of 1840 they had introduced nearly 50,000 sheep into the colony, and taught the wiser colonists the necessity of looking to pastoral pursuits for the safe investment of capital. The trade of turning wild land worth a few shillings an acre into building sections, to be sold at from four or five pounds to one thousand pounds an acre, by the simple expedient of a few pegs and a coloured plan, was too good to be monopolised by S.A. The Government and private speculators followed the ingenious example in N.S.W. and Port Phillip; while in England a dozen schemes were started under the patronage of names as respectable as those who patronised the South American mines of 1824, for colonising N.Z., the Chatham Islands, New Caledonia, the Falkland Islands, and other countries having the advantage of being very distant and almost unknown; all to be divided into "town, suburban and country lots," to be sold in England at a "sufficient price." The competition of these new bubbles, home and colonial, diverted the attention of intending colonists from S.A., where the high price of town lots left but small margin for profits or premiums. Besides, in those epochs of speculative frenzy which periodically

recur in England, unknown schemes have a certain advantage. About the end of the second year of Gawler's administration, the resources of S.A. as an investment for capital were partly known, while, as nothing was known about the resources of N.Z., not even whether there was any available land there at all, it became an excellent and fashionable subject for speculation. Gawler piteously complained in some of his despatches of the misrepresentations of rival colonists, and of parties who, after a very partial inspection of the port and coast, had departed, exclaiming, "All is barren!" But the fact was, that the capitalists who had landed found no advantageous opening for the investment of capital; town lots had been driven up to an enormous premium; the cultivation of land did not pay, and has never paid the employer of labour on a large scale in any new country. Wool-growing and other pastoral pursuits were more profitable in Port Phillip and the new districts of N.S.W.; besides, under the forcing system enough land, supposing it all fertile, had been sold to support a population of 200,000. The population of the colony was 15,000, of whom 8000 were settled in Adelaide gambling with each other. As for the labourers they were partly employed in waiting and working for the white-handed emigrants who had come out under Wakefield's advice "to labour with their heads, not with their hands," and who therefore required more work done for them than old-fashioned colonists who were not ashamed to mend their own tools or carry their own packages, and partly in executing works for the Government and for the S.A. Company. A considerable number were in the hospital and others were working at such sham labour tests as drawing fallen timber from the park to be used for fuel in the Government offices. It had been found impracticable then, as in all subsequent attempts, to carry out the scheme of obtaining recruits for free passages "exclusively of young married couples not exceeding twenty-four years of age." The parties charged with supplying the quota of labourers required for the ships so recklessly despatched to S.A. completed the number by a percentage who from age, feebleness, or unfitness for colonial labour became almost immediately chargeable on the Government. All who were shipped, if able to work, claimed under their shipping order a minimum of five shillings a day. When more houses had been built than could be let—when the capital, of which a large portion was exported for the importation of labour which it was impossible to employ profitably, began to grow scarce—the price of land orders fell, and the rate of wages. Then the frugal labourers began to retire from service, to settle down on purchased sections, and combine to purchase and divide sections of eighty acres, to the disgust of the hired-labour and sufficient-price theorists. In England the large draughts of the Governor, in conjunction with the falling-off in land sales, had driven the commissioners to endeavour without success to negotiate

the remainder of the loan authorised by their two Acts of Parliament, and then to apply for assistance from the Treasury, which was in the first instance granted to a limited extent. In the colony Gawler was travelling down a declivity, and could not arrest his course. When he found the commissioners could no longer meet his bills he drew upon the Treasury for the expenses of government. The first bills were met; but eventually a series of draughts, to the amount of £69,000, were dishonoured. The commissioners, who had been perfectly content with Gawler as long as the public continued to purchase land, fell upon him like a herd upon a stricken deer, repudiated acts to which they had given tacit approval, and tried to throw the failure due to their absurd plan and improvident conduct on "the Governor's extravagance." He was recalled abruptly and left to hear of the dishonour of his bills by a circuitous private source. The commissioners themselves were soon after dismissed. When the news of the dishonour of the Governor's bills reached the colony the bubble burst, land became unsaleable, insolvency all but universal followed, from which the banks, from early private intelligence, were able to protect themselves. The chief sufferers were English merchants, shippers, and manufacturers. The colonial speculators had long been trading on fictitious capital. A certain number of colonists of fortune were reduced to absolute beggary. A rapid re-emigration of capital and labour took place. Many labourers were thrown on the Government for support. The price of food, rent, and wages fell rapidly. Adelaide became almost a deserted village. The only persons busy were officials whom the commissioners had forgotten to appoint, viz. the sheriff and his officers engaged in pursuing beggared debtors, and the Judge of the Insolvent Court, by whom they were rapidly "whitewashed." Gawler retired, after having sacrificed a considerable private fortune to his faith in an impracticable system, and became the scapegoat for the errors of the colonising theorists in London. But his hospitality, his charity, his truthfulness, his genuine kindness of heart, rendered him respected and beloved in S.A., especially among the working classes. He was succeeded by Captain Grey who, happening to be in London at the time Gawler was recalled, and able to afford the Colonial Office some information about the colony, received and accepted the office of Governor. From that day it has been the endeavour of the theorists to charge to the extravagance of Gawler the inevitable result of an attempt to plant a colony without the preparations dictated by common prudence—to regulate the flow of capital and labour—and to raise revenue and profits from the application of capital and labour to unproductive works. The commissioners sent shiploads of colonists, where had they been wise they would have sent sheep.

V. *Governor Grey*.—When Gawler retired land became unsaleable, emigrants ceased to arrive, and of those who were in the colony a large per centage

re-emigrated to colonies where there were more cattle and fewer town lots. The population of Adelaide diminished in twelve months to the extent of 4000 souls. The price of everything fell fifty per cent.; whole streets of Gouger's and Stephens's cottages stood empty; the S.A. merchants who had paid their English creditors in the Insolvent Court ceased to be trusted with speculative shipments; the police horses were turned to graze on the beautiful gardens constructed by Gawler on the banks of the Torrens; Government House, late the scene of the Vice-royal entertainments, was closed; the little world of Adelaide recovered its senses and lost some of its conceit; and the sober and industrious were able to survey and take stock of the true position of the colony. The raw materials of colonisation had been provided, a road had been constructed from the port, others toward the interior had been marked out and made practicable. Land suitable for cultivation had been discovered, surveyed, and handed over to land purchasers, who had now no temptation to stay in town if they meant to remain in the colony; labourers were willing to take reasonable wages, or ready to set to work for themselves with hearty good will; and what was most satisfactory of all, live stock by importation, by overland, and by natural increase, afforded an ample supply of meat at reasonable prices, with a certain and increasing quantity of wool and tallow for exportation. Impoverished gentry were now happy to fall back from imported fresh salmon, or ducks and green peas in tin cases at fifty per cent. above the Piccadilly tariff, upon native poultry, at almost nominal prices. During the land mania geese imported from V.D.L. sold at 12s. 6d. each, fowls 5s. a head, and everything else in proportion. In 1842 country people used to drive a cart filled with live poultry, fowls, ducks, geese, turkeys, in fair condition, covered over with a sheet, and sell the whole lot at from fourteen to sixteen shillings. Under the bountiful, genial climate of S.A. actual want was unknown and industry produced immediate results. Grey's task was easy. The famine or speculative prices of labour and provisions had fallen to reasonable rates, the emigration of paupers had ceased, and with the immigration the cost of maintaining the infirm, the sick, and the lazy. The unhired were set to work at such bare wages as induced them to seek private employers as soon as possible; the surveys were carried on steadily without pressure, and without exorbitant expenses for stores and hire of drays; and the police expenses were partly superseded by the arrival of a company of soldiers granted to Grey, although indignantly refused to Napier. With these reductions of expenditure, and power to draw upon the Home Government for a limited sum, Grey was still unable, in homely phrase, to make both ends meet; but the colony survived and vegetated in a sort of obscurity, which contrasted painfully with the brilliancy of its early, brief, blooming hothouse career. In the meantime

the model colonists were not idle in England. On 7th July 1840 the colonisation commissioners for S.A. brought under the notice of the Colonial Secretary (Lord J. Russell) the embarrassed state of the finances of the colony; and in August they reported that the revenue of the colony did not much exceed £20,000 per annum, and the current expenditure had risen to £140,000. Under these circumstances the Secretary of State, by letter dated 5th November 1840, undertook to guarantee a loan of £120,000 to be raised by the commissioners; but negotiations to raise this loan failed. In the same year the original commissioners were dismissed. In February 1841 a select committee of the House of Commons was appointed to consider the South Australian acts and the actual condition of the colony. The inquiry lasted until 10th June. A long array of witnesses were called on behalf of the Colonial Office and the S.A. interest. Personal and documentary evidence proved in the clearest manner that the Colonial Office had given every reasonable assistance to the commissioners and were in no manner responsible for the blunders of the commissioners or the commissioners' agents. The S.A. interest, including non-resident purchasers of vast tracts of land and Gibbon Wakefield and his disciples, were examined at great length, but not a single representative or settler from any of the colonies whose interests were likely to be affected by the decisions of the committee was called. The case for S.A. was "got up and worked," in railway phrase, by Wakefield and Torrens, and all the colonial evidence was made to fit their peculiar views. The committee made two reports. In the first, on 9th March 1840, they stated "that at the present moment the sales by the colonisation commissioners of land in the colony are suspended, emigration has ceased since the month of August, the bills drawn by the Governor have been protested, the estimated amount of such bills already due and in progress is £97,000, the amount due to parties in England for services performed is £56,000; the debt from the revenue to the emigration fund is £56,000; making a total deficiency of about £210,000." In the second report they entered into the history of the colony in detail, in the course of which they said—"With regard to Colonel Gawler, it is impossible to doubt that when he entered on the duties of his office, they were in a state of the greatest confusion, and that the difficulties he had to contend with were most embarrassing; that shortly after his arrival in the colony he represented these circumstances, and gave the commissioners reason to expect a considerable excess of expenditure above what had been provided; that among those witnesses who have most decidedly pronounced his expenditure excessive, none have been able to point out any specific items which could have been reduced without great public inconvenience, while the chief item of expenditure, incurred on account of the government house and public offices, was one that the late board

had authorised. The commissioners had originally set apart a sum of £10,000 annually over and above the revenue, out of which they intended that all the ordinary expenditure should be defrayed. It is now calculated that after spending the whole local revenue and providing otherwise for the charge of surveys, which has hitherto been defrayed by drafts upon the commissioners, and without making any allowance for public works there will still remain to be provided for an annual deficit of about £40,000." But the committee, as experience proved, were more correct in their statement of facts than fortunate and sagacious in proposing a remedy. Having unsuspectingly received all Gibbon Wakefield's assumptions and assertions as incontrovertible economical truths they proceeded to recommend by resolutions, amongst other things, that all land be sold by auction at a minimum upset price, except special surveys of 20,000 acres; that "the minimum price of land in S.A. may safely be raised above the present amount of £1 an acre; and that in fixing such amount it is desirable to keep in view the principle of maintaining such an amount as may tend to remedy the evils arising out of a too great facility of obtaining landed property, and a consequently disproportionate supply of labour and exorbitant rate of wages." At that time the committee were firmly convinced that they could regulate the rate of wages by the price of land; and Lord Howick (afterward Colonial Secretary as Earl Grey) then a pupil of Wakefield's, moved as an amendment to the above-quoted resolution, "That one minimum price for land in all the Australian Colonies ought to be established, and that this price ought not to be lower than £2 per acre, and that it ought to be progressively increased until it is found that the great scarcity of labour now complained of in these colonies no longer exists." The fallacy of these assumptions has been rendered as patent as another favourite assumption of the same period—that the price of corn in England regulated the rate of wages. Ten years' experience proved that the highest rate of wages may exist in the face of a price of land so high as to exclude all but a very small number of purchasers; and in that ten years the Home Government, in the face of a ruinous rate of wages, were unable, although willing, to raise the price of land in Australia. The sale of land ceased, except in the immediate neighbourhood of towns, in choice situations, and where mines were supposed to exist. But in 1841 colonial opinions were treated with contempt. Lord Stanley and Lord Grey, dazzled by the land purchases of speculators in N.S.W., Port Phillip and S.A. fancied that the Government had an inexhaustible treasure for emigration and patronage in the waste lands of every colony in the British dominions, from the Sugar Loaf Hills of N.Z. to the wild wintry moors of the Falkland Islands. Two acts brought in and carried by Lord Stanley, Colonial Secretary in the session of

1842, embodied the recommendations of the committee and arranged for the future government of S.A. By one a minimum price of £1 an acre, with sale by auction, except in the case of special surveys of 20,000 acres, was imposed on all the Australian Colonies, including V.D.L. Against this act the colonists, who were never consulted, never ceased to protest. By the other act S.A. was transferred from the management of commissioners to the Colonial Office, and its debts were arranged in the following manner:—The whole debt amounted to £405,433; of this, £155,000, which had been granted by Parliament in 1841 for passing exigencies was made a free gift; £45,936, of which £17,646 had been incurred by Governor Grey in maintaining unemployed emigrants was to be paid by the Treasury; and the remainder was converted into debentures, partly guaranteed by the Government and partly charged on the colonial revenues. It may be convenient to state here that renewed sales of land, after the discovery of copper mines, paid off the greater part of these debts, with interest, between 1845 and 1849, with the exception of the £155,000. On the passing of this Act S.A. sank into obscurity, and in spite of the vigorous efforts of the company, which found itself in possession of large tracts of land that could neither be sold nor let to rent-paying tenants, ceased to attract the attention of emigrants. Great bankers and capitalists who had been induced to purchase lots of land wrote them out in their books as value *nil*. So late as 1850 there were parties in the city of London who had forgotten that they held some thousand acres in S.A. until reminded by an application to purchase from returned colonists. In very rare cases had the investment in rural land at £1 an acre turned out profitable. Dover, the quietest and least enterprising of towns, contributed by public subscription, in 1837-8, one emigrant to S.A. The fortunate man no sooner arrived, with nothing to lose than, carried away by enthusiasm and the persuasions of the Colonial Secretary, he became the purchaser of a thousand acres of land, and boldly drew upon two of the gentlemen who had charitably sent him out, advising them of the favour he had done them and promising to remit in due course the title-deeds. The good Doverians on the arrival of the tremendous bill, held a consultation, learned the total ruin that would fall on the drawer if it were returned protested, wishing too not to have the one Dover emigrant disgraced, and perhaps a little dazzled by the brilliant reports of fortunes daily realised in Australian land, made a round robin of £100 apiece, met the bill, in due course received the grant, and from that time forward never heard a word of the emigrant or the land. The following figures will show the results of the self-supporting, sufficient-price colony:—

REVENUE AND EXPENDITURE.

Government Expenditure.		Revenue.	
In 1840	... £169,966	...	£30,199 11 1

Government Expenditure.		Revenue.	
In 1841	... £104,471	...	£26,720 15 11
1842	... 54,444	...	22,074 4 6
1843	... 29,842	...	24,142 1 2

STATISTICAL SUMMARY OF SEVEN YEARS OF THE SOUTH AUSTRALIAN COMMISSION.

South Australian Act, 4 and 5 Wm. IV., cap.			
95, Royal Assent	1834
Commissioners Gazetted	...	5th May,	1835
Colonel Light & Surveying Staff	...	March,	1836
Governor Hindmarsh and first party of Emigrants sailed	...	30th July,	1836
Governor Gawler	1838
Area of Adelaide, $\frac{1}{2}$ miles N.E. to S.W., 4 miles N.W. to S.E., 700 acres, 432 acres.			
Population 8000	1839
Port opened	...	17th May,	1840
Governor Gawler recalled	1841

	Acres.	£	s.	d.	Emigrants Landed.
1835 Land sold	58,995	at 35,417	5	0	...
1836 "	1,680	" 1,378	0	0	941
1837 "	3,120	" 3,140	0	0	1,279
1838 "	37,960	" 37,960	0	0	1,938
1839 "	48,336	" 48,336	0	0	5,797
1840 "	7,040	" 7,040	0	0	5,025
1841 "	160	" 160	0	0	...
	157,291	£133,431	5	0	15,030
Shipping, 1839—190; Ships tonnage, 40,000.					

ACRES IN CULTIVATION.			
Year.	No. of Proprietors.	Acres.	
1840	2503
1841	6722
1842	...	873	19,790
1843	...	1300	28,690
In 1844 the sheep in S.A. were about 400,000			
" Cattle	30,000
" Horses	2000
In 1840, writs from S.A. sheriff's office			
1844, only	10
1842, fiats of insolvency	37
1844	10

Thus it appears that between 1837 and 1840, 15,000 inhabitants who were importing provisions at the rate of £200,000 per annum only cultivated 2000 acres; but in three years after they had abandoned land-gambling, and lost all credit in the English market, they had 28,000 acres in cultivation, of which 23,000 were in wheat, and the number of landed proprietors had nearly doubled. But the result of this industry proved that, although much misery would have been saved the colony had agriculture occupied the colonists instead of land-gambling, still agriculture could not be carried on with profit with hired labour in the colony, for in 1843-4 wheat fell to 3s. 6d. and even 2s. 6d. a bushel, with wages at least 3s. a day; while V.D.L. with better soil and climate for wheat growing, and cheaper labour, could not afford to grow wheat for less than 4s. or 5s. a bushel. In fact the South Australians found

themselves in possession of 200,000 bushels of wheat which was absolutely unsaleable although of admirable quality ; and in June 1845, after exporting 200,000 bushels, chiefly sold at a loss, a surplus of 156,000 bushels remained. Of wool there were only 5000 bales to export in 1843. Port Phillip, colonised with sheep and shepherds at the time that model colonists were forwarded to Port Adelaide in thousands, exported 9000 bales in 1841 ; and in 1843 enjoyed exports to the amount of £307,000 without a shilling of debt, against S.A. exports of £46,000 and £400,000 debt. In 1843 the results of the erroneous system on which S.A. was colonised began to disappear. The ruined capitalists were forgotten, so too were the debts due to the Home Government and home creditors. Those who had been able to weather the storm of insolvency and keep a few sheep had retired towards the interior : there dispersed, they were able to live cheaply, to carry on their business with little hired labour, and to look forward with confidence to an annual income from the clip of wool, and annual increase of wealth by the natural increase of their flocks. Thus in 1843 S.A., formed with so much preparation, the subject of so much printing, colonised by a superior class, forced forward by an enormous expenditure of public and private capital, instead of presenting a picture of a contented population, divided into capitalists and labourers engaged in scientific agriculture, owed all its exports to dispersion after the manner of neighbouring colonies, whose "barbarous manners" had been so much contemned, and presented a picture of cottier farmers, vegetating in obscurity, content to live with few comforts, without rent or taxes. Some squatted on land the property of absentees, many more as tenants not paying any rent, whom the landlords were glad to retain in order to keep their land in condition. The tenants of the company were in this state. Looking back at the condition of S.A. after it had ceased to attract the importation of capital, there can be no doubt that if it had been as far from the old ports of the colonies as Swan River, and out of the reach of expeditions of overlanders, it would have sunk even to a lower ebb than W.A. When land-jobbing had been exhausted, and all the schemes hatched in England for employing capital had been tried and found wanting, an accident revealed to the colonists the existence of a treasure which even the sanguine promoters of the colony had never suspected or suggested. They had placed coals, marble, slate, and precious stones among the probable exports ; but copper and lead had not entered into their calculations. In 1841 a little lead ore was discovered and sent to England. In 1843 Mr. Dutton, the brother of a gentleman of some means, but who had himself been compelled by the general depression to accept the situation of sheep overseer, accidentally discovered, and in partnership with Captain Bagot became the purchaser of the eighty-acre

section which included the Kapunda mine. Other mines were subsequently discovered but the great event, the turning-point of the fortunes of S.A., was the discovery of the Burra Burra mine, which alone furnished for five years more than four-fifths of the S.A. exports. The discovery of the Kapunda Mine set all the colony hunting for mineral outcrops ; the residue of the land jobbers took up the geologist's hammer ; but by a singular fortune the investigations of Mengs, a practised geologist, were fruitless, while a mine of wealth was turned up by the wheel of a bullock-dray. In 1845 the existence of a remarkable and promising outcrop on the Burra Hills became well known in the colony—rumours on the subject had been afloat in 1840. In order to secure the whole district without the unlimited competition, application was made to the Governor for a special survey of 20,000 acres. At the same time a party of speculators arrived from Sydney intent on securing the great prize if possible. The survey was ordered, a day and hour was fixed for the payment of the £20,000, the Governor decided not to accept bills of the local bank or anything but cash. Cash in 1845 was a scarce commodity in Adelaide although corn was plentiful. The retailers and all not within a certain indescribable line were dubbed the "snobs," the officials and self-elected aristocracy the "nobs." To raise the £20,000 a union between the nob and snobs became indispensable, but even that was not enough, for there was scarcely so much gold in the possession of all the colonists, and the Sydney speculators were waiting ready to bear off the prize. On the last day of payment a hunt for gold was commenced by half-a-dozen men of good credit. Cash-boxes in hand they traversed the streets and suburbs of Adelaide, offering with ample security a handsome premium for sovereigns. On that day many secret hoards were dug out ; husbands learned that prudent wives had unknown stores, and old women were tempted to draw their £1 and £2 from old stockings. Almost at the last minute the money was collected, counted, and paid, and the richest copper-mine in the world rewarded the long-sufferings of the South Australians, and awakened all their old spirit. The purchase effected, the class spirit, which forms so absurd an element in the English character, broke out, and a division of the 20,000 acres was decided on. The toss-up of a coin gave the "snobs" the first choice ; they took 10,000 acres, to which they gave a native name, the Burra Burra. The nob named their 10,000 acres the Princess Royal. The outcroppings on the hills of the Princess Royal were magnificent ; nevertheless in 1850 their £50 scrip was not saleable at £12. The history of this mine is the history of the commercial progress of S.A. Farms, land sales, emigration, wharves, warehouses, projected railways, imports, rents, wages, have all rested on the yield of the Burra Burra. The Government was vested in the Governor and Commander-in-Chief, assisted by an Executive

and Legislative Council composed of the Governor, the Colonial Secretary, the Advocate-General, the Surveyor-General and the Assistant Commissioner, to whom were subsequently added four nominees from among the non-official colonists. Of the progress of S.A. subsequent to the discovery of the mines and the dissolution of the commission the following figures will afford some idea:—The exports of the year ending April 1850 amounted to £453,668 12s. Of this sum £11,212 was in wheat, £20,279 in flour, £63,729 in copper in ingots, £211,361 in copper ore, £8188 in tallow, and £113,259 in wool. The imports for the same period were £887,423, part of the excess arising from imports of railway and mining machinery and other productive investments. In the same year 64,728 acres were in cultivation—wheat 41,807 acres, potatoes 1780, gardens 1370, vineyards 282, hay 13,000. The population was 63,900 of which 7000 were Germans. Live stock—Cattle 100,000, sheep 1,200,000, horses 6000. The total failure of the Wakefield theory of colonisation, and the beneficial effects of Grey's vigorous policy in repairing the effect of that failure, are thus described by a resident colonist of that time:—"To the colony this reduction in the expenditure was for a time necessarily full of trial. It may well be likened to a young fruit tree, which had been allowed to shoot up with straggling branches of luxuriant growth, but barren of fruit. The careful gardener saw that to make it produce fruit, it was absolutely necessary to apply the pruning knife with an unsparing though kindly hand. Stripped of its gaudy and unprofitable branches, the spectator looked with pity and contempt upon the bare stump that was left; he, not knowing the power left in the roots, thought the poor tree ruined by such treatment, and was inclined to think ill of the gardener for his reckless destruction of the leafy branches. But behold that self-same tree once more, the resources concentrated in its healthy roots, in time throw forth branches as luxuriant as ever, covered with smiling blossoms and golden fruit, whilst the gardener, to whom this result appeared as a matter of course, now received praise for his foresight from him who at first felt inclined to censure him." Even so it was when Grey was leaving S.A. to conduct the still more difficult administration of N.Z., which was also a colony based on the Wakefield system, and the history of whose settlement had been no less disastrous. On the occasion of his departure, a deputation of the colonists waited on him and gratefully thanked him for inaugurating a new and prosperous era, by his able, zealous, and diligent administration, not forgetting the cares, anxieties, and responsibilities, in his conscientious discharge of the functions of a Governor and a worthy delegate of sovereign power. Of Grey's administration Marcus says:—"Grey began his administration by the display of those high qualities of prudence, firmness, and decision which he subsequently exhibited at the Cape and

in N.Z. He commenced a policy of retrenchment, which, as a matter of course, exposed him to a great deal of obloquy and misrepresentation. The wages of those employed by the Government were cut down to the lowest point; and this forced the labour, which was far too much concentrated in the city, into the hands of private employers. The effect of this wholesome action was soon seen. Working men who had been hanging about the city went into the country, and the land was brought under cultivation. One important improvement in the government of the colony was made at the time Grey became Governor. The commissioners were dispensed with, and the Home Government undertook the direct management of the colony. A new direction was given to the industry of the colonists; and when they became convinced that their success lay in subduing the earth, in cultivating the soil, and in pastoral pursuits, a new impulse was given to their energies. The necessaries of life became cheap; and although money was not too plentiful, beef, mutton, and flour were cheap, and there was neither want nor complaining amongst the people. Grey's administration will always be remembered with satisfaction and gratitude. He first inspired the people with a feeling of self-reliance, and taught them to live within their means." He held office from May 1841 till October 1845, and was succeeded by Governor Robe.

VI. *The Copper Discoveries.*—The discovery of copper in S.A. was but the precursor of the still more important gold discovery in N.S.W., which led to a complete revolution in the destinies of Australia, forming a new and permanent era in the annals of her history. From a sparse population scattered over the pasture lands, shunning the rocky regions in their selection of spots for farms and agricultural pursuits the colonists were changed into a mining community, concentrating round the metalliferous strata they had discovered and forming centres of population on localities hitherto neglected because barren. To this cause must be ascribed in a great measure the length of time that elapsed before the mineral wealth of the country was discovered. Those who had come to settle on the lands looked for fertile soil and good pasture; moreover, few if any of the English immigrants and capitalists knew much about mineral ores. They followed their flocks over plains and valleys from sunrise to sunset, avoiding the rocky places, and if perchance a shepherd saw a stone more curious than usual he would probably pick it up and throw it away as only a plaything, although it might have led to the discovery of the metallic riches of this inexhaustible region of mines. The first discovery of its metalliferous resources may be attributed to the German immigrants who form an important section of the inhabitants. The first body of these people were religious refugees from Prussia, belonging to the Evangelical Lutheran persuasion, who had expatriated themselves from their beloved Fatherland

on account of persecution. They arrived at the end of 1838 in two ships, one of which, the *Zebra*, was commanded by Captain Hahn, who behaved with so much kindness to his passengers on the voyage that the settlement formed by them was named Hahndorf, now one of the prettiest and most flourishing towns in the country, about fourteen miles S.E. from Adelaide across the Mount Lofty range. In the lap of those mountains these persecuted believers worshipped God in the wilderness under the care of their spiritual pastor, the Rev. Mr. Kavel; thankful to their Maker for the religious liberty they possessed in that free though far-off land. To those who visited that simple industrious community in the early days of S.A. nothing was more striking than the condition of this noble-hearted pastor and his God-fearing, law-abiding flock. While the people in Adelaide were rebelling against the authorities or living in riot and dissipation, those in Hahndorf obeyed their minister as children their father, without the interference of any legal authority in their few disputes, and the greatest punishment was a rebuke from the pulpit after divine service. And while the improvident immigrants were wasting their substance in buying imported provisions and strong drinks, these abstemious people grew their own food and supplied the Adelaide market with garden and dairy produce. Hahndorf, with its little primitive church and the trim gardens of the inhabitants, appeared then an oasis of industry and piety to the traveller coming from the desert plain and riot of Adelaide. Among these German immigrants were some men who had worked in the mines of their native country, and consequently had a knowledge of minerals and metalliferous rocks. As they frequently crossed the rocky mountains on their way to and from Adelaide with their produce they naturally cast inquisitive glances at them. In this way some were led to explore the sides of Mount Lofty, which slopes up from the plain to a height of 2334 feet, and the result was that near its base pieces of lead ore (*galena*) were found. Whether these indications of the metalliferous nature of the rocks induced one of their number to devote his time to the pursuit, or whether the accounts transmitted by these people to their friends in Germany prompted an experienced mineralogist to emigrate is not certain, but the fact that a German named Mengs was engaged in mineralogical explorations as early as the latter part of 1839 shows that they were alive to something of the kind, and he even publicly affirmed his conviction that there was abundance of mineral wealth in the colony. His opinions were pooh-poohed by the land-jobbers and speculators, who were too busy with their bubble paper-system to heed the substantial indications of metallic treasure. However, some more acute than their neighbours purchased a section where these specimens of lead ore were most abundant, and sent to England in 1841 a quantity for analysis. The returns were most favourable as

some of the ore (*Argentiferous Galena*) was found to contain silver. They raised two or three tons, but the times were so bad, and they being without means to prosecute the working of this mine it was left in abeyance for better days. No doubt this discovery of lead caused many of the people living in the interior to look about them in hopes that some more valuable metal might be found. Many brilliant specimens of iron pyrites were picked up in this way, in expectation that the nobler metals might be part of the ore, but these only proved the great extent of iron ore in the country. This could not be profitably worked without coal, capital, and cheap labour; none of which they had. Other discoveries of silver-lead have since been made, but none have proved of a permanently remunerative character. The ores have yielded as much as from fifty-five to seventy-five per cent. of lead, and from fifty-five to sixty-five ounces of silver to the ton, but have not been found profitable to smelt, and the industry has been abandoned for many years. In 1842 the first discovery of copper was made at the Kapunda Station, about forty miles north-west of Adelaide, occupied by Captain Bagot. One day he sent his overseer, Dutton, to search for a number of sheep which had strayed into the bush. After spending some time in fruitless efforts, Dutton ascended a small hill in order to have a more extensive view of the country, but still he saw nothing of the lost sheep. On turning to descend, his attention was attracted by a bright green rock jutting from the earth. It seemed to him peculiar, so he broke a small piece off and carried it down to Bagot's house, where he and the Captain examined the specimen, and came to the conclusion that it consisted of the mineral malachite, containing copper in combination with water and carbonic dioxide. They let no one know of the discovery, but proceeded to apply for the land in the usual manner, without breathing a word as to their purpose. The section of eighty acres was advertised for a month, and then put up to auction; but as no one was anxious for this barren piece of ground, they had no competitors, and the land fell to them for the price of eighty pounds. As soon as they became possessed of it they threw off all appearance of mystery, and commenced operations. During the first year the mines yielded £4000; during the next £10,000; and for several years they continued to enrich the two proprietors, until each had realised a handsome fortune, when the land was bought by an English company. When it was fully ascertained beyond a doubt that the despised stony ridges contained so much wealth, there was a general search for copper and lead mines, and those who had previously laughed at the suggestion, were the most zealous with their hammers among the rocks. Toiling up hill and down dale with heavy bags of stones, in their anxiety to hit upon malachite or green carbonate, they heeded neither the scorching sun, the hot blast, nor the cold rains. Some were lucky, but the mass of explorers were unsuccessful,

Others less honest strewed specimens of good ore in places where none was to be found, and claimed the rewards offered by a mining association. Of course the land where these were found rose to fabulous prices. The Kapunda proprietors had bought their lot at the upset price of £1 per acre, although it was kept open for one month after selection, and might have been pounced on by the holder of a land order of previous date. At length a report was spread that a rich lode of copper had been discovered by the accidental turning up of a specimen by the wheel of a bullock dray at a place called Burra Burra, about 100 miles north of Adelaide. The land on which these were discovered had not yet been sold by the Government, and in great haste a company was formed to purchase it. This company consisted of the merchants, professional men and officials of Adelaide; but a rival company was immediately started, consisting of shopkeepers and tradesmen, together with the farmers of the country districts. The former always maintained a haughty air, and soon came to be known throughout the colony as the "nobs;" while they, in their turn, fixed on their rivals the nick-name of the "snobs." For a week or two the jealousies of the companies ran high, but they were soon forced to make a temporary union; for according to the land-laws of the colony, if any one wished to buy a piece of land, he had to apply for it and have it advertised for a month; it was then put up for auction, and he who offered the highest price became the purchaser. But a month was a long time to wait, and it was rumoured that a number of speculators were on their way from Sydney to offer a large sum for the land, as soon as it should be put up at auction. It was therefore necessary to take immediate action. There was another regulation in the land-laws, according to which, if a person applied for 20,000 acres, and paid down £20,000 in cash, he became at once the proprietor of the land. The "nobs" determined to avail themselves of this arrangement; but when they put their money together, they found they had not enough to pay so large a sum. They therefore asked the "snobs" to join them, on the understanding that after the land had been purchased the two companies would make a fair division. By uniting their funds they raised the required amount and proceeded with great exultation to lodge the money. But part of it was in the form of bills on the Adelaide banks, and as the Governor refused to accept anything but cash the companies were almost in despair, until a few active members hunted up their friends in Adelaide and succeeded in borrowing the number of sovereigns required to make up the deficiency. The money was paid into the Treasury, the two companies were the possessors of the land, and the Sydney speculators arrived a few days too late. Now came the division of the 20,000 acres. A line was drawn across the middle, a coin was tossed up to decide which of the two should have the first choice, and fortune

favoured the "snobs," who selected the northern half, called by the natives Burra Burra. To the southern part the "nobs" gave the name of "Princess Royal." The companies soon began operations; but though the two districts appeared on the surface to be of almost equal riches, yet on being laid open the Princess Royal was soon found to be in reality poor, while the Burra Burra mines provided fortunes for each of the fortunate "snobs." During the three years after their discovery they yielded copper to the value of £700,000. Miners were brought from England and a town of about 5000 inhabitants rapidly sprang into existence. The houses of the Cornish miners were of a peculiar kind. A creek runs through the district, with high and precipitous banks of solid rock; and into the face of these cliffs the miners cut large chambers to serve for dwellings; holes bored through the rock, and emerging upon the surface of the ground above, formed the chimneys, which were capped by small beer barrels instead of chimney-pots. The fronts of the houses were of weatherboard, in which doors were left; and for two miles along each side these primitive dwellings looked out upon the almost dry bed of the creek, which formed the main street of the village. Here the miners dwelt for years, until the waters rose one night into a foaming flood, which destroyed the houses and swept away several of their inhabitants. In 1845 Burra Burra was a lonely moor; in 1850 it was bustling with men, and noisy with the sounds of engines and pumps, and forges. Acres of land were covered with the company's warehouses and offices, and the handsome residences of its officers; behind these there rose great mounds of blue, green, and dark-red ores of copper, worth enormous sums of money. Along the roads 800 teams, each consisting of eight bullocks, passed constantly to and fro, while scores of ships were employed in conveying the ore to England. From this great activity the whole community could not but derive the utmost benefit, and for a time S.A. had every prospect of taking the foremost place among the colonies. The discovery of the Burra Burra gave a vivid impulse to mineral exploration, and in 1850 not less than thirty-nine mining adventures were before the colonial and British public, in various stages of progress, most of which depended on English capital for their working. Nearly all, according to the reports of the promoters, "only needed the expenditure of a little more capital to become most flourishing investments." Not one, with the exception of the Burra Burra, had ever paid a public dividend; and when the gold discoveries brought them all to a stand-still by the abstraction of labour, several new schemes were being urged on the attention of English capitalists. At that time the following mines, in addition to nearly sixty other schemes which had never gone beyond a prospectus, were in the market at a discount:—The Wheal Gawler silver lead was the first mine discovered in the province; opened in 1841;

abandoned, and re-opened by a company without success; nevertheless the directors in 1850 boasted their good prospects. The Adelaide Mining Company, near Montacute, "with a capital of £1000; the Australian Mining Company with an English capital of £400,000, and a special survey of Reedy Creek, forty-six miles from Adelaide, other lots at Tungkillo and at Kapunda," founded in 1845—the outlay had been enormous—no dividends; the Barossa Mining Company with a capital of £30,000, formed in England, with a view of prosecuting mineral explorations on the property of G. F. T. Angas; the Glen Osmond, another English Company, with a capital of £30,000, founded in 1845; the Port Lincoln, with a capital of £10,000; the Mount Remarkable, with a capital of £25,000 in 1846; the North Kapunda, a capital of £22,200 in 1846; the Paringa, capital £20,000 in 1845; the Port Lincoln capital £4000 in 1848; the Princess Royal, capital £20,000 in 1845; this was the unlucky half of the Burra Burra. By March 1848 the original £5 shares in the Burra Burra mine had advanced to £150; a sixth and seventh dividend of £10 each in June and September raised the prices to £200 and £210 for cash. A fall afterwards took place in consequence of the depreciation of the value of copper in Europe. But an important discovery was made of a valuable lode in the thirty-fathom level leading from Kingston to Graham's shaft. The lode was cut four fathoms below the water level, was solid, and from ten to eleven feet wide, composed of a compact green carbonate or malachite, producing upwards of 40 per cent. of copper. The lode was described as clearly defined, in easy working order, and dipping well into the mine. In the half-year ending 30th September 1848, 10,163 tons were raised, making a sum total for the ore raised during the first three years' working of the mine of 33,386 tons, equal to upwards of 10,000 tons of fine copper ore (at £70 per ton) £700,000. In the latter part of 1848 the miners struck for higher wages. The workings of the mine were suspended from November until February 1849. In March the miners resumed work. Further important discoveries were made—one of a lode in the thirty-fathom level southwest from Graham's shaft, consisting of red oxide and malachite in great abundance; and the other of a lode two fathoms wide, yielding malachite of high produce. Only two pitches were set on these lodes, and twelve men produced in the first week eighty tons of the richest ores. In 1850 the £10 quarterly dividends were regularly paid. Up till 1876 the total amount paid in dividends was £782,320; the total yield of copper was about £4,000,000 sterling. An English and Australian Copper Company, which has been long associated with this mine, owns fine smelting works at Port Adelaide. Of late the yield of the Burra Burra has diminished, and although some four or five years ago an attempt was made to utilise the low-class ores that had formerly been rejected, and expensive machinery was procured for the purpose,

the mine succumbed to the blow struck at the copper trade by the depreciation of prices and at present it exists only in name. The Burra Burra discovery, great as it was, falls into the shade when compared with the more marvellous discovery of the Wallaroo Mines, on Yorke's Peninsula, in 1860. A shepherd employed at W. W. Hughes's station found a specimen on the run some time about the beginning of that year. At once a private company was established, and within a year the mine was being worked. For two years success seemed doubtful, but the proprietors were amply rewarded at the end of that period for their enterprise. For the first five years the average output was somewhat under 8000 tons, but it increased rapidly, and in 1869 had risen to 26,000 tons per annum, at which it remained for over five years. During the last year or two the low price of copper has rendered it necessary to reduce the output, and in 1878 the proprietors desisted from bringing ore to the surface, and contented themselves with merely developing the mine. Ultimately they found it expedient to leave this work off partially, and the operations are now principally confined to keeping the levels free of water. In the neighbourhood of this mine is a flourishing township, which it has called into existence, but which is not entirely dependent on the mining industry, as it is in close proximity to a rich agricultural district. Some seven miles from the property, and connected with it by tramway at Port Wallaroo, are the smelting works established by the proprietors of the Wallaroo Mines, which are the largest and most complete in A. In 1861 a still more valuable discovery than even the Wallaroo Mines was made by another shepherd at a spot distant eleven miles from them. This property is situated about two miles from the coast, and is known all over the world as the Moonta. At the expiration of twenty months from its opening 8000 tons of ore had been raised, and dividends paid amounting to £64,000. The average yearly return of the mine until the depreciation of the copper market checked the output was 18,200 tons of ore, of the average value of £197,270. The total quantity of ore raised to March 1879 was 328,123 tons; and there was paid in dividends £1,024,000. The mine gave employment for many years to over 1500 persons. The Moonta continues to be worked, although operations have been discontinued at nearly all the other mines; but the production of ore has been very much reduced, and as a consequence comparatively few men are now employed. The latest reports on the condition of the property are favourable, and there is little doubt that when copper mining revives the Moonta will yield as large profits to its shareholders as it has done in the past. Since the first mine was discovered the total value of the copper, copper ore and regulus exported from the colony up to the end of 1878 was £15,754,680, and of other minerals £293,185.

VII. *Governor Robe*.—In October 1845 Grey was succeeded by Lieutenant-Colonel F. H. Robe, who held office till August 1848. Of Robe's personal character and administration Marcus states :—"He was a man of very different stamp from his predecessor. He was a respectable, honourable, upright English Tory. All his prepossessions and traditions were on the side of authority, which his military training had deepened and intensified. He looked with something of contempt, which he took no pains to disguise, at the Liberal tendencies of the handful of people he had been sent to govern in the Queen's name. He tried to govern by a small clique of men who had but little sympathy with the bulk of the colonists. The poor Governor lived in hot water during the whole of his administration. The colonists refused to be treated as children; and as he did not respect their rights, they paid no attention to his feelings. He was very weary of his office before he was relieved by the Home Government."

VIII. *Governor Young*.—Sir H. E. F. Young succeeded Robe in August 1848. His personal character and policy were in all respects the reverse of those of his predecessor. Young sought by every means in his power to encourage the ceaseless activity of the people. His failing was an injudicious zeal for too rapid progress. In his desire to open up the Murray to navigation he wasted large sums of money in schemes that proved altogether useless. He made an effort to remove the bar at the mouth of the river, but fresh deposits of sand were constantly being brought down by the current and lashed up into a new bar by the waves that rolled ceaselessly in from the Southern Ocean. He spent about £20,000 in trying to construct a harbour called Port Elliot, near the entrance to the Murray; but there are now only a few surf-beaten stones to indicate the scene of this fruitless attempt. He offered a bonus of £4000 to the first person who should ascend the Murray in an iron steamer as far as the River Darling. Cadell made the effort and succeeded. He obtained the reward, but it was not enough to pay his heavy expenses; and when he endeavoured afterwards to carry on a trade by transporting wool to the sea in flat-bottomed steamers, he found that the traffic on the river was not sufficiently great to repay his heavy outlay, and in a short time he was almost ruined. The attempt was premature; and though in after years the navigation of the Murray was successfully carried on, yet at this time it led to nothing but loss. The gold discoveries in N.S.W. and V. in 1851 gave a serious check to the prosperity of the colony. A large proportion of the adult population abandoned their occupations in town, at the mines, and on the farms and pastures, for the goldfields of Ballarat, Mount Alexander and Bendigo, within six months. The majority were married men with families; they considered that it was only a temporary removal and that they should return soon to spend their earnings

in their own colony. A large proportion being practical miners they considered that they were best able to work the gold diggings. The result was just as they calculated. The Cornish and German miners were quite at home in their new operations, and it was in a great measure to their superior skill and knowledge of mining that the deep-sinking and quartz-crushing at Ballarat came to such perfection. While others were wasting their time and means upon barren ground these men were rarely mistaken, and struck the richest lodes in the mines. When they were successful in "making their pile" they returned to S.A. and spent their rich gains liberally. The Government with a judgment that does them credit never attempted to throw any obstacle in the way of this migration. On the contrary, they appointed an efficient officer to strike through the country by the shortest route to the goldfields, making wells and bridges by the way, so that an easy communication could be kept up to and fro. This had the desired effect, many returned who otherwise would have remained away. Meanwhile the copper-mines were with difficulty worked for want of men; the fields were uncultivated, the sheep untended, and the colony experienced a short period of rapid decline. However the results obtained on the goldfields by most of these fortune-seekers were hardly to be compared with the steady yield of the fertile cornfields and rich copper-mines of S.A., and most of those who had thus abandoned the colony returned in a short time to their families and their former employments. Governor Young adroitly turned the discovery of gold to the advantage of his own colony by establishing an escort between Ballarat and Adelaide; and as this was remarkably well equipped, many of the diggers preferred to send their gold by this route rather than to Melbourne, thus giving to S.A. some of the advantages of a gold-producing country. The crowds of people rushing to the goldfields had carried with them nearly all the coin of the colony; and the banks, although they had plenty of rough gold, were yet unable, from scarcity of coined money, to meet the demands upon them. In this emergency Young took the extreme step of instituting a new currency, consisting of gold cast into small bars or ingots; and although afterwards mildly censured by the Home Government for exceeding his powers, yet he could justly assert that this measure had saved the colony from serious disaster. By this time the colony had a Legislative Council, preparatory to the constitution of an elected parliament on the same basis as those in the neighbouring colonies. That body promptly aided the Government in their measures to maintain the prosperity of the country during this emergency, by passing resolutions offering a reward of £1000 to the first discoverer of gold within the territory of S.A. in sufficient quantity to become a valuable export: in the event of success the auriferous ground was to be rented at the rate of ten shillings per acre in

advance in leases not exceeding fourteen years. These resolutions were assented to by Governor Young and immediately carried into effect, which partially assisted in checking the migration. In hopes of securing the reward numbers roamed through the country "prospecting" for gold, and there were scientific grounds for success, as the Mount Lofty range trends in a general north and south direction over five or six degrees of latitude, bearing out the principle laid down by geologists that all gold-bearing mountains trend along the meridian lines. Several alleged discoveries were soon reported; but when the officers appointed to examine them reached the places they pronounced the reports to be attempts to mislead the Government and public, and that the particles of gold first produced were not the natural deposits of the soil. The government explorers however succeeded in January 1852 in finding some genuine specks of gold near the Onkaparinga River, at its embouchure some twenty miles south of Adelaide, but the discovery was considered not of sufficient importance to render necessary the issuing of licences to dig. Six months after this a spot was found sufficiently promising for the issue of these at Echunga, a pastoral station about twenty miles south-east from Adelaide. For several months a number of diggers ventured their time and means in digging for the precious metal, but their labours were so poorly rewarded that most of them soon left for the V. goldfields, while the Government, seeing that it was not found in paying quantities, did not consider themselves warranted in giving the reward, as the resolution had a proviso that there should be "*bonâ fide* raised and produced from the said tract or field within two months of the date of the issue of the same licences an amount in gold equal in value to not less than £10,000." From time to time further explorations were made by the government officers and private individuals, who succeeded in discovering indications of auriferous ground, but on close examination and a large expenditure of time and means none proved sufficiently remunerative to attract either people from their ordinary industrial pursuits, or the practised miners from the rich eastern goldfields. This went on for twelve years without any spot being found richer than Echunga. At last the Government invited Hargreaves in 1864 to survey the northern as well as the southern parts of the colony, hoping that the first discoverer of gold in N.S.W. might be as fortunate in S.A. After a careful examination of many promising localities during half a year, for which he was handsomely remunerated, he brought his abortive labours to a close in June 1864. From that time the search for gold has been abandoned. The want of a remunerative gold-field, although in one sense retarding the expansion of the colony, benefited the colonists in another way by fixing their attention on the productions and fertility of the soil. While every branch of agriculture progressed satisfactorily from year to year, the new

source of profit derived from the vintage at once exhibited the numerous resources of the colony and the enterprise of the South Australian colonists. The attention of the farmers was first drawn to planting vineyards by the splendid grapes grown on the few vines brought from Germany by the Hahndorf colonists. Their size and flavour were fully appreciated in the Adelaide market, where they brought a good price for the consumption of the table. Some of these Germans had been acquainted with wine production in their own country, and it was natural for them to try and produce some of their favourite beverage, if only to remind themselves of the famous Rhine wines. So many of these industrious settlers began to extend their little vineyards and to press the grape in the simplest manner; they found that they produced a wine not much inferior to the light wines of Germany and France. Their English fellow-colonists soon followed their example, prompted by the fact that the best ground for a vineyard was the least suitable for growing cereals, consequently they profited by what was otherwise waste land. At first the kinds of grape they cultivated were chiefly for the table, but the supply increased so far beyond the demand that their value was reduced below the cost of production; they therefore turned their attention to the growth of the choicest wine-grapes. Already the colonists of N.S.W. had shown that good wine could be produced in localities corresponding to those in S.A., and James Macarthur had produced a wine at the Great Exhibition of 1851 nearly equal in strength and flavour to the rich Hungarian Tokay. With these facts before them the planting of vineyards was prosecuted with great energy, until there was scarcely a farm in the colony without its vineyard and wine-press, and when flour and wheat barely remunerated the farmer for his outlay he supplemented his income by a few hogsheads of wine sold in Adelaide. In that city merchants conversant with the quality of these growths pronounced them to be superior to the best Catawba wines in Sydney, and to compare favourably with Sauterne, Chablis, Maçon and other favourite wines of Europe. Indeed they surpassed these white and red light wines, as they possessed greater body from being the pure juice of the grape, unadulterated and unsophisticated by any artificial means. Some soils and localities were found to produce better wines than others. These were selected by the wine merchants, some of whom went into the vating of wines extensively, classifying the growths according to the grape from which they were produced, or the locality of the vineyard; one merchant called several sorts after his own name. Other branches of agriculture progressed steadily during the period subsequent to the gold discovery. As the cultivation of wheat was almost abandoned in V. that colony proved the best market for flour and grain, enriching the farmers beyond their most sanguine expectations. As the Government found that without a continuous stream of

well-selected emigrants from the mother country the working power of the population could not be maintained, a large portion of the revenue was voted to pay for their passages. During the five years 1853-7, 38,457 persons were added to the population by immigration, of whom 33,420 were introduced at the public expense. In 1862 the population numbered 135,329, composed of 69,608 males and 65,721 females. In this respect S.A. showed the least disproportion of the sexes among the whole Australian Colonies. Governor Young was transferred to T. in December 1854. A short interregnum took place, and in June 1855 Sir R. G. Macdonnell arrived to take the reins of Government.

IX. *Governor Macdonnell.*—Macdonnell was a man of considerable ability and great energy of character. More than any Governor who had preceded him he came into close contact with the colonists as a whole. He had a pleasant manner, tact, and warm sympathy with all the interests of the colony, public and private. He was exceedingly popular during the whole of his administration, and left the colony amidst the regrets of those who knew him. During his rule Constitutional Government was established, with two branches of Legislature, both elective. The colony made rapid progress materially; railways were formed and roads were improved, so as quite to change the character of inland travelling for hundreds of miles; the coast was lighted; numerous buildings were erected, amongst which were a new hospital, Parliament House, a new Government House, Government offices, mounted police barracks, town hall, literary institute and free library, and post-office; telegraphic communication was opened with all the leading towns and neighbouring colonies; a large extent of country was surveyed, river navigation was opened up, the city of Adelaide was supplied with water, and the Far North was explored by Stuart, Goyder, Freeling, Babbage, Macdonnell (the Governor himself,) Warburton and others. The proclamation of the Constitution was made on 24th October 1856, the elections for the two Houses of Legislature taking place in March of the following year; the session of the first Parliament began on 22nd April, the first responsible Ministry having Finnis for Chief Secretary. In 1858 S.A. took the lead in a reform which is now being adopted by nearly all the civilised nations of the world. According to English law, each time an estate was transferred from one person to another, a deed had to be made out for the purpose; and if changes in its ownership had been frequent, it would be held by the last purchaser in virtue of a long series of documents. Now if any one wished to buy a piece of land, he was obliged for safety to examine all the preceding deeds in order to be quite certain that they were valid; even then if he bought the land, and another person, for any reason whatever, laid claim to it, the owner had to prove the validity of

each of a long series of documents, going back perhaps for centuries. A flaw in any one of these would give rise to a contest which could be settled only after a very tedious investigation; and thus arose the long and ruinous chancery suits which were the disgrace of English law. When a man's title to his estate was disputed, it often happened that he had to spend a fortune and waste half a lifetime in protracted litigation before all the antecedent deeds could be proved correct. Torrens had his attention drawn to this unsatisfactory state of things by the ruin of one of his relatives in a Chancery suit. He thought long and carefully over a scheme to prevent the occurrence of such injustice, and drafted a bill for a new method of transferring property. He proposed to lay this before the S.A. Parliament, but his friends discouraged him by declaring it was impossible to make so sweeping a change; and the lawyers actively opposed any innovation. But Torrens brought forward the bill; its simplicity and justice commended themselves to the people and to the House of Assembly, and it was carried by a large majority. According to the new scheme all transferences of land were to be registered in a public office called the Lands Titles Office, the purchaser's name was to be recorded and a certificate of title given to him; after this his right to the property was indisputable. If his possession was challenged he had simply to go to the Lands Titles Office and produce his certificate to the officer in charge, who could turn to the register and at once decide the question of ownership. After this no dispute was possible. Torrens was appointed first registrar of the office, and soon made the new system a great success; it is now adopted in all the other colonies of Australia. It was recently introduced into Ireland, and a system of a somewhat similar nature is now at work in Great Britain. Sinnett thus sums up the material progress made by the colony during Macdonnell's administration:—"The history of the last six years in S.A. has been the history of steady industrial and political progress. The introduction of the new constitution has been the most remarkable event of this epoch, and the change thus produced will elsewhere be found described in detail. It is over the whole face of the country that the history of this period has been written. Roads have been improved and bridges formed, so as quite to change the character of inland travelling for hundreds of miles from Adelaide; surveys for railways have been carried on to a large extent; the railway of eight and a quarter miles to the port in one direction, and the N. line to Kapunda (fifty-two miles) in another direction, has been opened; telegraphic lines throughout the country have been established, as well as telegraphic communication with Sydney and Melbourne; the city of Adelaide has been supplied with water; a large extent of country has been surveyed for purchase in sections; the coast has been lighted where

necessary; numerous buildings for public purposes have been constructed by the Executive, including a new hospital, Parliament house, Government house, Government offices, mounted police barracks, and the Institute with its free library; the Murray has been navigated as far as Albury, and the first steamer taken a considerable distance up the Darling by Captain Cadell, with whom were Sir Richard Macdonnell and four others. Nearer home the new mining district of Wallaroo on Yorke's Peninsula has been discovered and fairly tested, so that what was two years ago a sheep run now exhibits townships, mines, and all the customary adjuncts, including the commencement of a railway and a system of drainage. Further from Adelaide, the far north has been explored by Stuart, Goyder, Major Freeling, Babbage, Sir Richard Macdonnell, Major Warburton and others."

X. *Land Legislation*.—Sir Charles Wentworth Dilke, in his *Greater Britain*, describes S.A. as "The widest of all British colonies, and nearly as large as English Hindostan." Very early in the history of the colony land was taken up in what were then considered very remote districts for pastoral pursuits, including the breeding of sheep and cattle. The settlement of the country in this way was closely connected with that daring exploration for which the colony has obtained a high and deserved reputation. The beginning of this industry was simple and unpretentious. Young men with just capital sufficient to purchase a few hundreds or thousands of sheep, a dozen horses, a year or two's rations, and to hire a shepherd or two, sallied out into what was then a *terra incognita* to seek their fortune. They settled on suitable country, erected a rude hut, and thus laid the foundation of their fortunes. The life at first was a hard and rough one, involving many privations; but it was not altogether without its compensating pleasures. There was plenty of work, and that of itself keeps life from stagnating. There was the pleasure of seeing the flocks and herds increase. The lambing season brings a pressure of work which requires the best energies of all hands on the station. Shearing too is always a scene of busy activity, and getting the wool to the market before roads were known taxed the ingenuity of the cleverest of the "squatters." The squatter's life in the beginning was not without a spice of danger, which required continual vigilance and activity to guard against, and a brave heart and a strong arm to meet when it actually came. In those days the natives were enemies not to be despised, and before they learnt to fear or trust the white man they were not slow to resent his intrusion upon their hunting grounds. They plundered his huts, killed his sheep and cattle, and sometimes attacked himself or his shepherds. He had therefore to be always on the watch to protect himself and his property. The aborigines had been accustomed to kill for food all the indigenous animals found in their country, and it

was hard to teach them that they had no right to touch the sheep and cattle of the squatter. They learned this in the end by a rough and bitter kind of experience; but in the early days of squatting they were a constant dread and annoyance to the settler. As the flocks increased the squatter had to push out into new country, and runs were extended farther and farther inland. Leases of wide stretches of country comprehending in some cases hundreds of square miles were granted on a mere nominal payment, and many of the squatters grew rich rapidly. All pastoral leases are held with the condition that whenever the land is required for agricultural purposes the squatter must turn out on receiving six months notice—he being paid for the substantial improvements made on his run. The squatter is therefore the pioneer of the agriculturist. When the land is wanted for agriculture he has to retire farther into the interior. Many of the wealthiest men in the colony at the present time, and several who have returned to spend their fortunes and to end their days in the old country, began thus in a very humble way. Some of them went out with a few hundreds or thousands of sheep and lived far from the abodes of men for years, only occasionally visiting Adelaide to purchase rations or dispose of their wool: and some did not even do that but trusted all to agents in town. Others were only shepherds, and by saving their earnings—there were neither temptations nor means of spending them at first—they got a few sheep together and were eventually enabled to take up a small run for themselves; and the first start made, in many cases success came rapidly. Shepherds who knew all about the management of sheep made good squatters; they went on increasing their flocks and taking up new country, and their wealth increased in geometrical ratio. They lived in the quietest possible way—spending but a mere fraction of their income. Many of them made large fortunes—handed over the hard work of the station to their sons and retired to enjoy their well-earned leisure. A few years ago the leases which the squatters had held on exceedingly low terms were subjected to a new valuation on their renewal. The Surveyor-General, G. W. Goyder, a highly competent man, was appointed valuator, and he performed this onerous and unpleasant duty with great impartiality. His increased valuations astonished some of the squatters and made them indignant; but he was supported by public opinion throughout the colony and the result showed that the oppressed squatters, as they represented themselves, were very well able to pay the increased assessment. Unfortunately for the squatters, the valuations were succeeded by two years of drought which tried the lessees severely, and under which some of them fell poor and almost hopeless. Some of them fell from the drought, but those who were able to live over the bad times became wealthier than ever. At present the pastoral interest is in a highly prosperous state. When the first colonists

arrived the country was parched up, the ground hard baked and apparently unworkable. For some time the early settlers were content to sit down with the conviction that agriculture on such a soil and with such a climate was impossible. A great deal of suffering resulted from this false inference. The most important of all the necessities of life had to be imported at a ruinous cost from T., and flour was actually sold in Adelaide at £100 per ton. Some daring colonists however thought they would try whether wheat could not be produced on the Adelaide plains. The land was tilled, the seed deposited, and the result anxiously looked for. Happily wheat-growing became a success from the beginning. For a long time agriculture was confined within a radius of about twenty miles round Adelaide, and some persons asserted that beyond that radius agriculture was impossible. These persons however proved to be false prophets. During the harvest of 1875, country 150 miles and more to the north of the metropolis, without the cultivation necessary in England, produced splendid wheat averaging from fifteen to eighteen bushels to the acre. Along the whole distance from Adelaide to these northern areas the land is covered with industrious and prosperous farmers. One principle on which the colony was started was the sale of Crown lands at a price not under one pound per acre, the proceeds from the sale to be devoted to the introduction of immigrants. This principle however was soon modified, and a large portion of the money obtained for the lands was devoted to the construction of roads and other public works, and subsequently to meeting the claims of the National Debt. The minimum price of one pound per acre has been strenuously adhered to. Waste lands, as the unsold Government lands are called, divided into hundreds, and subdivided into sections of about eighty acres each, were offered at auction at the upset price of one pound. Competition often ran up the price much beyond this amount, and hard-working farmers had but little chance in competition with mere speculators, who bought the land at a price which the farmer could not afford to give in cash, and subsequently let it to him at a good rental, with a right of purchase at twice or three times the amount of what it had originally cost. On the fall of the hammer, twenty per cent. of the purchase-money had to be paid down, and the remainder in one month from the sale. Lands that had been offered at auction and passed the hammer could be taken up at any time at one pound per acre. Several attempts were made to alter the whole system of the land laws, which had been worked so as to benefit only a very small class of speculators at the expense of the agriculturists. The average price per acre which the Government had received for the large territory alienated from the Crown was under 25s., but the price to the farmer, who had in many instances to purchase second-hand, was 50s. or 60s., or more—the difference between the two prices going into

the hands of the speculators, for the accommodation they gave to the agriculturists who had no money. Objectionable as the system was many farmers grew under it, and several speculators have done both themselves and the farmers good by rendering assistance to poor men who wanted to get on the land. It was felt however that the Government might do for moneyless farmers what the speculators had been doing, and might do it on much more reasonable terms. Instead of demanding cash, it was resolved to sell the lands on credit, with deferred payments, taking sufficient precautions of course that the land so disposed of should be occupied and cultivated. After great consideration a measure was at last carried through the Legislature for this purpose, and became law. It is known as "Strangways' Act," but has been set aside for one more liberal and better adapted to the requirements of the smaller capitalists. Under the Land Act of 1872 (amended in 1874) the whole of the waste lands of the colony south of the 26th parallel of S. latitude forms one area, from which, as fast as it is surveyed and declared open to the public, intending purchasers can make their selections. There is no selection before survey, but an efficient staff of survey officers is always at work surveying the land as fast as it is required. Hundreds of thousands of acres are always open for selection, and the work of the surveyors is still going forward. All waste lands other than township and suburban have a fixed value put on them by the Commissioner of Crown Lands, not less than £1 per acre. In improved or reclaimed lands the cost per acre of the improvements and reclamation is added to the upset price of £1 per acre. Those lands which have been open for selection, or which have been offered at auction and neither selected nor sold, may at the end of five years be offered for sale in blocks of not more than 3000 acres, on lease for ten years at an annual rental of not less than 6d. per acre, with a right of purchase at any time during the currency of the lease at £1 per acre.

XI. *Governor Daly*.—In March 1862 Sir Richard Macdonnell was succeeded by Sir Dominic Daly, a man of great official experience, an excellent administrator, and a very popular Governor. He was accessible to all classes of the community, and identified himself with everything likely to promote the welfare of the colonists. He died in the colony on 19th February 1868, and was deeply mourned by all classes, whose esteem he had won by his urbanity and hospitality. During his administration the colony was visited by H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh. In the interregnum between Sir Dominic's death and the arrival of his successor, the Government was administered by Lieutenant-Colonel Hamley, senior officer in command of Her Majesty's forces in the colony at the time. In 1864 the Northern Territory was added to the colony, and from Adelaide an expedition was despatched by sea to the shores of Van Diemen's Gulf, in order to form a new settlement.

After many difficulties, caused chiefly by the disputes between the first Government Resident or Superintendent, and the officers under him, a branch colony was successfully founded at Port Darwin, opposite to Melville Island. In 1869 the representations of Charles Todd led to the formation of the British-Australian Telegraph Company, which engaged to lay a submarine cable from Singapore to Van Diemen's Gulf, and the S.A. Government pledged itself to connect Port Darwin with Adelaide by an overland line, and undertook to have the work finished by the 1st of January 1872. Todd was appointed superintendent, and divided the whole length into three sections, reserving the central portion for his own immediate direction, and entrusting the sections at the two ends to contractors. It was a daring undertaking for so young a colony. For thirteen hundred miles the line would have to be carried through country which had never been before traversed by any white man but Stuart's party. Great tracts of this land were utterly destitute of trees, and all the posts required for the line had to be carted through rocky deserts and over treacherous sand hills. Todd had, with wonderful skill and energy, completed his difficult portion of the task, and the part nearest to Adelaide had also been finished before the time agreed upon; but it fared differently with those who had undertaken to construct the northern section. Their horses died, their provisions failed, and the whole attempt proved a miserable collapse. The Government sent a party to the north in order to make a fresh effort. Wells were dug at intervals along the route, and great teams of bullocks were employed to carry the necessary provisions and materials to the stations; and yet in spite of every precaution the result was a failure. Meanwhile the cable had been laid, and the first message sent from Port Darwin to England announced that the overland telegraph was not nearly finished. The 1st January 1872 being now close at hand, Mr. Todd was hastily sent to complete the work. But the time agreed upon had expired before he had even made a commencement, and the company threatened to sue the Government for damages, on account of the losses sustained by its failure to perform its share of the contract. For the next eight months the work was energetically carried forward; Todd rode all along the line to see that its construction was satisfactory throughout. He was at Central Mount Stuart in the month of August, when the two ends of the wire were joined, and the first telegraphic message flashed across the Australian Continent. But meantime a flaw had occurred in the submarine cable, and it was not until October that communication was established with England. On the second day of that month, the Lord Mayor of London, standing at one end of the line, sent his hearty congratulations through 12,500 miles of wire to the Mayor of Adelaide, who conversed with him at the other extremity. The whole work was undertaken

and accomplished within two years; and all the colonies are now reaping the greatest benefits from this enterprising effort. Another undertaking of a similar character has been completed by the efforts of both S. and W.A.; along the barren coast on which Eyre so nearly perished there stretches a long line of posts, which carry a telegraph line from Perth to Adelaide.

XII. *From 1869 till 1880.*—Sir James Fergusson was appointed Governor in February 1869. He had held office as Under-Secretary for India and the Home Department, and for several years represented Ayrshire in the House of Commons. He was liberal in all his personal dealings with the colony, a man of ability, a clear thinker and an effective speaker. He was regarded as an intelligent and high-minded gentleman, who maintained the dignity of his responsible position and creditably represented Her Majesty by his liberal administration. The establishment of telegraphic communication between Australia and Europe was carried out during his term of office; his efforts to aid in the accomplishment of this work were fully recognised; and shortly after its completion he was promoted to the governorship of N.Z. in 1873. In the interval between his departure and the arrival of his successor the administration was in the hands of the Chief Justice, Sir R. D. Hanson, whose long residence in the colony and thorough acquaintance with its public affairs and history eminently qualified him for the position he temporarily occupied. Sir Anthony Musgrave, K.C.M.G., late of Natal, was sworn in as Governor on 9th June 1873. He was succeeded in March 1877 by Sir William Cairns; his tenure of office was very brief, as ill-health necessitated his resignation a few weeks after being sworn in. The present Governor, Sir William Francis Drummond Jervois, took the oaths of office on 2nd October 1877. He is one of the ablest and most useful rulers the colony has had, and has made himself very popular with the colonists. The condition of S.A. is still of a satisfactory character, though the continued depression of the copper industry and the cessation of work at most of the mines is having a detrimental effect on some parts. As the granary of the Australias, the colony can always command to some extent the elements of prosperity.

SOUTHLAND, a former province of N.Z. When Otago was settled, the advantage of opening up the southern portion of the province, in which there were large tracts of splendid land both clear and timbered, was early recognised, and sites for the towns of Campbelltown and Invercargill being fixed, the country was surveyed, and very soon a large number of sections were bought and settlers located thereon. Complaints were made by the inhabitants that this outlying district was not receiving its due share of attention from the authorities; and a memorial, in terms of "The New Provinces Act 1858," was presented to the central Government, requesting that the district might be detached from Otago and erected into

a new province. This was granted, and in 1861 the Province of Southland was created, with an area of 2,300,000 acres. Embarrassments however so accumulated on the little province, that in 1870 it was found advisable to reunite it to Otago.

SPECTACLE ISLAND, an island lying adjacent to Frederick Hendrik Bay in T., so named because of its resembling a pair of spectacles in shape, with an archway through the centre.

SPENCER'S GULF, in S.A., is a wide inlet of the sea running in a N. direction into the main land from the sea at about the middle of the coast of the colony. Its W. shore is the Port Lincoln District and its E. is the W. coast of Yorke's Peninsula. The N. part of the gulf is shallow, and has many sandy flats dry at low water. At the head of the gulf is the township and harbour of Port Augusta and on its E. side are Ports Wallaroo, Peri and Ferguson. On its S.W. coast is Port Lincoln. The entrance to this gulf is from forty-five to forty-eight miles wide between Cape Spencer and Cape Catastrophe, its E. and W. heads, but this space is partly occupied by clusters of islands, of which Thistle Island, near the W. shore, is the largest. Another cluster lying near to the W. is called the Gambier Isles. With respect to the tides in the gulf, it has been remarked as somewhat singular that at Port Lincoln there is only one tidal flood in twenty-four hours, whereas in all other parts of the gulf there are two. It was named by Flinders after Earl Spencer.

SQUATTER. The word is formed from the verb "to squat," and is used both in England and the United States of America to designate a person who settles on land—whether belonging to another person or to the State—to which he has no title. Webster adds to the definition, "without pretence of title." The term was applied in England to the gipsies and other wandering tribes who roamed over the country, taking temporary possession of commons and waste lands whereon to pitch their tents. In the United States its application was always obvious. As respects Australian pastoral settlers, the name is a self-assumed one. In the early days of N.S.W. the pioneers of settlement, as they took possession of their runs by rule of thumb and without the leave of any authority, they called themselves "squatters," and their homesteads "stations." Afterwards when the government staff of officials was strong enough to carry out the regulations these runs were defined, and their occupants received licenses to depasture live stock, by paying ten pounds for 4000 sheep or 400 head of cattle, so that they were "grazier" tenants of the Crown and "stockholders." But they preferred their own cognomen and have retained it to the present day; and the most aristocratic title an Australian colonist aspires to is that of "squatter." A writer in the *Edinburgh Review* for October 1863, in an article on Queensland, states that the term was "originally applied to a class of men—Donald Beans of the antipodes—who, chiefly

escaped convicts and outlaws, dwelt on the outskirts of the runs of the more legitimate pastoral tenants of the Crown, and committed depredations on their sheep and cattle, thus accumulating flocks and herds of their own. When these tenants of the Crown lost their early popularity, the term was transferred to themselves, and gradually crept into the phraseology of colonial legislative enactments." The writer proceeds to give a brief historical account of the rise and progress of pastoral settlement in Australia. Referring to the old penal system he says:—"Each Governor generally succeeded in bringing out in his own ship a few of his family adherents or more humble fellow townsmen. Yet though a free passage and various other encouragements were offered to all such persons, and though those who availed themselves of them rapidly rose to affluence, still the distance, then immense—a ship seldom making the voyage in less than six months—and above all, the black pall of crime which hung over the new settlement in European eyes, made the number of these free settlers exceedingly limited. About the year 1821, however, Australian society began to be supplied from a widely different source. Unexpected discoveries in exploration were then opening large tracts in the more inland districts, scantily supplied with trees, but bearing natural crops of luxuriant and most nutritious grasses. On these sheep were found to thrive wonderfully, and even to improve in their wool. The great salubrity of the climate, with perhaps the Arcadian beauty of the scenery—the failure in inducing agricultural labourers to emigrate to Australia—and the little prospect there was of a near market for perishable agricultural produce, pointed out these plains as naturally suitable for sheepwalks; and into sheepwalks the Colonial Executive, under the guidance of Governor Brisbane, made an effort to turn them. A statement of their advantages was drawn up and sent home, free use of lands proportioned in extent to the amounts of real and available capital to be used in stocking them, being offered to all intending sheep-farmers. The minimum sum was fixed at £500, sufficient proof of the possession of which was to be the sole condition of the transfer of 'a run,' or sheep-station. Small as the sum was, it fixed, at an early period, the respectability of the class which availed itself of the offer. Officers retiring from the army and navy, younger sons of wealthy and even titled families, university graduates who had not yet selected professions, with a sprinkling of those already dissatisfied with the professions they had selected, flocked into Sydney, and began to compose chiefly the new pastoral tenants of the Crown—the term squatter being then wholly unknown. The Colonial Government made no deduction from their capital for the use of the lands, nor was any rent charged until a later period; but the lands were still to be Crown lands, merely placed in the temporary possession of the tenant, until needed for other public purposes.

In other words, the Colonial Executive 'let the grass,' and made no charge for the use of it. A few years afterwards, this movement received a great and somewhat novel accession of strength. Among the plentiful crop of joint-stock companies which distinguished the first quarter of the present century, there was one started in 1825, under the name of the Australian Agricultural and Wool-growing Company, which received a grant of a million of acres, in the immediate neighbourhood of Sydney, from the Imperial Government, and commenced operations under other and very attractive circumstances. These operations necessitated, in the first instance, the purchase of a large quantity of stock; and the demand arising unexpectedly among a small community forced up the price of cattle and sheep to a most preposterous amount. Sheep which in ordinary years—such was the rapidity of their multiplication—were worth little more than the couple of pounds of wool on their backs, suddenly rose to five guineas a head, and the prices of horses and working bullocks received a proportional increase. Nevertheless the manager and his agents, undaunted by such difficulties, purchased all that came in their way. Though settlement in the interior was still slow, the seaport of Sydney had already risen to the proportions of a large and flourishing city, and the calculations put forward by the new company were now more minutely examined by its inhabitants. If shareholders residing at the other side of the globe could find profit from an outlay at first appearance so extravagant, it was not unreasonable to suppose that a private capitalist superintending his own affairs might obtain equally favourable returns. A sheep and cattle mania seized the whole population of N.S.W. The citizens of Sydney walked about with their pockets stuffed with samples of colonial wools. Barristers, doctors, and even clergymen, fought in the cattle markets for the possession of a tottering calf or a broken-kneed horse. Sheep became as valuable as Dutch tulips, and sheep-farming took the position of Roman usury. To possess 'a run' became the essential qualification of every one aspiring to the rank of an Australian gentleman. Nor, owing to the overwhelming pressure upon him, was the Governor long able to maintain the proposed condition of £500. From £500 it gradually dwindled to the more vague condition of 'sufficient capital;' from sufficient capital it fell to the still more vague condition of 'respectability.' It was loudly complained that Government officers and the personal friends of the Governor each possessed several runs in various separate districts; while the Governor himself was subjected to insult and even violence in the public streets, from rejected claimants for land. The gambling too quickly extended from the sheep and cattle to the runs. Every available territory was soon appropriated, and the scene of each new discovery in exploration was overrun as quickly as it became known. With occasional interruptions from drought,

disease, overtrading in paper currency, &c., the new sheep-farmers met with a success scarcely to be expected from the early rashness of their speculations. Sheep multiplied wonderfully; their wool was eagerly sought in Europe, and fetched the highest price in the market; and the nature of the country rendered necessary no preliminary, and very little current, expense. Indeed we may learn somewhat of the profits of this pursuit from one of the earliest debates in the Parliament of Q. On a motion to raise the Governor's salary from £2500, as originally proposed by the Secretary of State, to £4000, a member observed that '£2500 a-year was only equal to the income of a second-rate squatter.' The new class too which thus so rapidly overran the Australian Colonies was composed of men of considerable energy and intelligence, untiring in their efforts to forward their interests, and ever ready and willing to fight their own battles against the landless classes which were now beginning to grow on Australian soil. But, above all, their education naturally brought them to form an overwhelming portion, if not the whole, of each of the various 'nominee' councils and legislative assemblies which assisted the Colonial Governors up to the formation of Australian representative constitutions in later years. The rapid growth of so powerful a class, practically holding every known territory, necessitated the issue of various 'squattling regulations' from time to time. By these the squatter was to hold his run under a yearly licence; he was to be limited to the possession of one single run proportioned in extent to the number of his stock—a regulation however which was notoriously set at nought, many persons holding several runs in various districts, and all runs being vastly larger than the amount of stock on them absolutely required. He was also to pay a yearly license-fee of £10—a merely nominal sum, as in many instances it did not amount to the title of a farthing per acre. Indeed the liberality with which the public domain was appropriated to this, the only landholding class, was extravagant in the extreme. It was asserted that ten acres were necessary to the support of each sheep; and though it has since been abundantly demonstrated that sheep can thrive on less than one acre per head, yet instances were rare indeed in which the squatter had not a very ample margin for the future multiplication of his flocks. When it is borne in mind that the squatter numbers his sheep by fifties and even hundreds of thousands, some idea may be formed of the vast principalities passing under the humble appellation of 'runs.' Yet the squatters were by no means satisfied with their many advantages, and their efforts with the Imperial Government to obtain more firm possession of the public domain were unceasing. They complained that their tenure was insecure; that they were denied the ordinary advantages of traders and capitalists in pledging their holdings as security in the purchase of stock, the raising of loans, and other means of improving the

position of themselves and the Australian Colonies—that they had no inducement to execute various desirable improvements on their runs—and that they were even debarred from developing the agricultural and mineral resources of the land. These arguments, skilfully and persistently urged, were not without their effect on the Home Government, and at length, in 1846, resulted, to the astonishment of the Australian Colonies and somewhat to the surprise of the squatters themselves, in the famous Orders in Council. These Orders may be summed up in two most important concessions to the squatters. Their tenure from year to year was to be changed into Crown leases of fourteen years duration, renewable at the option of the Colonial Governors—which meant, of course, their own option; and they were to possess a pre-emptive right entitling them to purchase the fee-simple of the whole or any portion of their runs at the fixed price of £1 per acre. It is almost unnecessary to draw attention to the immense importance of these changes. Virtually they handed over the Australian Colonies to a mere handful of gentlemen farmers. Yet the Home Government was not without its show of argument against the charge of a too ready compliance. Wool had become the staple commodity of the Australian Colonies, and wool-growers were, beyond dispute, the leading and most successful class of colonists. Commissions (unfortunately for the argument, appointed by squatters and composed of squatters) had pronounced the Australian lands unfit for any other purpose, ‘and not worth the smallest coin in the realm per acre.’ It was, too, carefully kept from the knowledge of the British Ministers that the claims of the squatters had already begun to excite strong indignation among their fellow-colonists, whom they hemmed in within a few towns, and whose want of success they turned into a very plausible argument in their own favour. But, above all, the gold, which was to mark a new era in the world’s settlement, still lay undisturbed in the Californian millstream. Yet we cannot but think that even then the Australian Colonies promised a brighter future than the Home Government thus marked out for them. So certainly it appeared to the Australian Governors, who received these Orders in Council with dismay, and hesitated from month to month ere they issued the fourteen years leases which their tenure imposed upon them. Indeed these leases have never been issued up to the present day (1863,) though the terms of the orders leave no doubt but that the squatters were legally entitled to them. More mature reflection and personal inquiry convinced the Governors that their issue, without any sufficient provision for the growing wants of the agricultural and small-farmer class, would raise a storm of opposition, if not an actual rebellion, throughout their vice-royalties; and while they temporised with the squatters, and expostulated, in a necessarily tedious correspondence, with the Home Government, the Californian discoveries of

1849 took place, and were followed by Hargreaves’ announcement of gold on Bathurst Plains. Of the thousands who daily poured into the ports of Sydney and Melbourne—most indeed to dig for gold, but all with some ulterior hope of obtaining that desire of the human breast, a freehold home—few were prepared for the astounding discovery that the whole of the Australian Colonies were held in firm possession by the squatters and their flocks. The discovery, when it was made, was not without imminent danger to the peace and order of that portion of the British Empire; though it is no small proof of the fitness of the Australian colonists for their most liberal powers of self-government, that the long and tedious struggle on which they then entered has been conducted on strictly constitutional principles. Gold-digging, though not unprofitable during its earlier years, was soon found to be a laborious and peculiarly comfortless employment. Thousands of diggers, who had saved some two or three hundred pounds apiece at the mines, sought to purchase farms and to become permanent colonists. But there was no land to be had. Many left the shores of Australia, and obtained what they sought under the more fortunate land laws of the United States of America. Many drank themselves to death. Many listened to the windy orators who harangued them from every stump and market place, and overlooked bad grammar and worse logic in a keen sense of their own injury. The efforts of the various new representative Colonial Parliaments were incessant to remedy so unsatisfactory a state of things. Land bill after land bill was introduced, discussed and quashed. Ministry after Ministry took the helm, and abandoned it in despair. The ‘squattening members’ in the House (whose constituencies consisted of little more than themselves and their shepherds) insisted on the fulfilment of ‘their rights;’ the anti-squatters insisted that hanging was too good for them. It is almost incredible that the fourteen years originally named in the Orders in Council dragged their slow length along without one single land bill for the sale and settlement of the waste lands of the colonies making its way successfully through any one of the new Colonial Parliaments. In the meantime the various Executives did almost nothing, hoping that each proposed measure would confer on them more ample powers. The original land regulations did indeed enable the Governor to enter on a squatter’s run *for public purposes*; and this provision was made use of in the construction of roads and townships, and, though to a much more limited extent, in the proclamation of building and suburban allotments opened for public sale. Miserable as was the dribble of land which this occasionally brought into the market, its benefits were much restricted. The squatter could always avail himself of his pre-emptive right if he had the money. And where the land came into the market the Government were strictly obliged to sell by auction at an upset price not lower than £1 per acre. Practically

therefore pre-emptive right, competition, and the extreme hesitation with which Government availed itself of a provision by no means clearly worded (and indeed pressing most unequally on individual squatters,) raised the price of building and suburban allotments to extravagant amounts, and all but excluded small farms and country homesteads from the soil. The position of the Australian colonists during those years, more especially as regards the great centres of population assembled on the various gold-fields of N.S.W. and V., was most unsatisfactory. In a country practically boundless in its supply of excellent land, the gold-fields digger, shopkeeper or mechanic could not obtain the smallest patch to cultivate a few vegetables for himself or his family, and if his horse strayed a few yards from his tent it was impounded by the neighbouring squatter. But indeed these evils were not by any means restricted to more crowded localities, but spread themselves throughout the whole of the Australian Colonies. And to confine ourselves more particularly to the Colony of Q., we extract the following remarks of Dr. Lang, suggested during a visit made to some of its districts most favoured by nature no longer ago than 1856. They will serve to show that these evils had already extended themselves to territories whose vast extent would seem to set all land difficulties at defiance:—'One should have thought that, with so numerous a population as there has been for so many years past on the Lower Richmond and North Arm, some interest would have been taken by a paternal Government (that of N.S.W., Q. being then its Moreton Bay dependency) in their welfare and some efforts made for their social advancement. Here were hundreds of people, many of them earning for years together from £5 to £7 a week, and not a few of them with wives and children, leading a sort of vagabond life, like gipsies, in this naturally rich district. Surely in such circumstances the first duty of a government would have been to provide these people with the first requisite of civilisation—a home—by laying off townships for them in suitable localities, and holding out to them the opportunity of purchasing town and suburban allotments, and of thereby settling themselves as reputable and industrious citizens, bringing up their families like a civilised Christian people. A surveyor might have done all this in a few months, and his surveys of particular towns and villages might easily have been wrought into a more general survey at any time thereafter. What then will be thought of the absentee Government of the Richmond River district when I state it as a positive fact that up to the period of my visit to the Richmond River, in the month of August 1856, there had never been one town or suburban allotment sold on the river? Land for purchase had been applied for, both by squatters under their pre-emptive rights and by the better class of cedar-cutters for many years past; but to no purpose. Not one town

allotment was sold, not one acre of land was measured for years and years in succession! And what has been the consequence? Why hundreds of people who would gladly have purchased town allotments and built good houses for their families if they could, and hundreds of others who would have purchased small portions of land to rear a few head of cattle or a horse or two for their households, were denied every opportunity of doing so, and as their only resource in the circumstances, were driven perforce to the public-house to expend their earnings there in riotous dissipation and to reduce their wives and families to misery and ruin. Cases of this kind—of cedar-cutters who had saved up one, two, three, and even five hundred pounds, and who in a fit of desperation had spent the whole of it in the public-house—were mentioned to me as having been of frequent occurrence; and a respectable inhabitant of the district mentioned to me the case of a person who had saved up eight hundred pounds in this way and had spent the whole of it at one bout of frenzied dissipation simply because he could get no opportunity of purchasing even a town allotment in the district, and because the squatter on whose run he had erected his hut had been threatening to dispossess him as a trespasser.' We are happy to state that owing to more improved land regulations, to which we shall presently revert, no less than four townships have been thrown open within this district on the Lower Richmond, and under a more healthy system we may naturally expect it to assume those evidences of progress so favourably described by Sir George Bowen in his late visit to the Darling Downs. Indeed, more generally, our task in thus sketching this curious episode in the history of Australian colonisation would be but an ungracious one were we not also able to add the steps which are now being taken to bring the squatterelement within more moderate bounds, and to facilitate the more permanent settlement of all classes on the lands. To the Parliament of Q. is due the merit of having first carried a Land Bill successfully through its several stages. The Land Act or rather Acts (for the whole subject affecting the occupation and purchase of Crown Lands is dealt with in four separate measures,) received the royal assent in September 1860. And as the example of Q. was soon followed by similar measures of the other Australian Parliaments, it may not be uninteresting to examine the position of 'the Land Question,' at the present moment throughout the Australian continent. It will be borne in mind that all Acts of the parent Colony of N.S.W. are in force throughout each Australian Colony until repealed by its own Parliament; and also that under the Constitution granted to each of these colonies, the Crown transferred all ownership in the soil to the colonists themselves. In using the term 'Crown Lands,' therefore, we apply the shortest as hitherto the more general name to all Australian soil undiscovered, lying absolutely waste, or

occupied by squatters, in contradistinction to all portions of the public domain already sold or otherwise alienated to private individuals. We may also state that while the extreme squatter party demanded the complete fulfilment of the Orders in Council, the extreme opposite party of anti-squatters insisted on the right of all colonists to free selection from Crown lands prior to their actual survey by the Government at a fixed price per acre. These remarks may enable the reader to see with what success the several colonies have now endeavoured to steer a mean course between two parties which for some years comprehended almost every Australian colonist. The chief features of the Queensland Acts may be thus summed up:—The Orders in Council are repealed. All land open for purchase must be previously surveyed and delineated on the public maps of the colony. The auction system, with its upset price of £1 per acre, is still allowed to be in force. But—and here is the distinguishing feature of these regulations—from the auction system are excluded certain agricultural reserves which the Government is to proclaim in all suitable places at its discretion, with a guarantee however that half the extent of each reserve shall be continuously kept in excess of the demand; such reserves being of course proclaimed over runs, waste lands, and generally wheresoever population may show a tendency to extend itself. On these reserves the intending settler may purchase farms of from forty to 320 acres at a fixed price of £1 per acre; the purchaser of each farm being allowed to rent a contiguous allotment of three times its extent at 6d. per acre, with right to purchase such allotment at £1 per acre within five years. In general therefore the agricultural farmer can rent land at something equivalent to 5s. per acre, and purchase it at £1 per acre. Subject to these chances of dispossession, the squatters are thus dealt with. Squatters actually in occupation shall obtain leases of five years duration, at a yearly rent to be fixed by valuation. Where such valuation is objected to, the vacated run is to be let to the highest bidder at public auction, the new lessee paying over (through the medium of the treasury) to the out-going occupant the value of all actual and real improvements, under Government appraisal. Squatters taking up new runs in outlying or unexplored districts, are to be allowed leases of fourteen years duration. These new runs are not to be less than twenty-five square miles, nor greater than 100 square miles in extent, and they are to be subjected to the yearly rent of 10s. per square mile (640 acres) for the first four years, with a slight increase during the succeeding years. As a strong counterbalance however the squatters lose all power of pre-emptive right, which is now wholly abolished within the colony of Queensland. Besides these provisions for the agricultural classes, each immigrant, unless arriving at the expense of the colony, receives a land order entitling him

to a free grant of thirty acres. British soldiers and sailors are also entitled to land orders of fifty acres apiece; and commissioned officers of the British army and navy continue to receive the same remission (one-third) of purchase-money originally established under the old colony of N.S.W., but since abolished in it and its other offshoots. The neighbouring colonies of N.S.W. and V. succeeded in passing nearly similar Acts shortly afterwards. The colony of S.A. had, with her foundation, introduced a somewhat more liberal land system; while the exodus which took place from her territories during the earlier period of the gold discoveries relieved her from all pressure for some years. More lately, the large tracts thrown open within her boundaries by recent explorations have given a very considerable impetus to squatting pursuits; and the S.A. squatter still continues, to a great extent, to enjoy—with the free consent of his fellow-colonists—the easy regulations of the old colony of N.S.W. ere “Free Selection before Survey” came to be agitated by its landless classes. The colony of W.A. however stands alone for its rigid maintenance of the squatting system in all its early arrogance, and this huge wilderness, with an area of a million square miles, and its handful of squatters and their convict stockmen, still continues to be locked up to all intending purchasers. To sum up then the present position of the land question throughout the whole of these colonies:—The upset price of land has been maintained at £1 per acre throughout the whole continent. The auction system has been abolished throughout N.S.W., V., and practically in Q.; and the intending purchaser is subject to no competition. In these colonies a supply of agricultural land, probably sufficient for several years to come, is now placed in the market. The tendency of legislation has been (1) to exact from the squatters a return in the shape of rent or assessment on stock more commensurate with the value of their runs; and (2) to confer on them a security of tenure increasing with their distance from the chief centres of population. Both these elements are conducing to the occupancy of large tracts of more distant and unexplored country by this class of settlers; and generally the termination of this long strife appears to have given a very considerable stimulus to squatting pursuits, while relieving the more crowded districts of their pressure.”

ST. ARNAUD, a mining township in V., 158 miles N.W. of Melbourne, with which it is connected by railway. The district is a mining, pastoral and agricultural one, the workings being principally quartz. The alluvial ground is estimated to cover an area of seven square miles, and the reefs to number seventy. Silver has also been found in the locality, and considerable quantities have been raised. To the N.W. of the town large tracts of some of the finest agricultural lands in the colony are to be met with, immense areas of

which have been selected and occupied, and a favourable report is given of farming operations and the appearance of the district generally. Wheat has been largely grown, but droughts seriously affected the crops. St. Arnaud came into note as a goldfield during the Crimean war, and was named after the celebrated French General St. Arnaud.

ST. GEORGE'S HEAD is the most easterly point of Sussex Haven in N.S.W., and was so named by Cook from the circumstance of his having first seen it on St. George's Day in the year 1770.

ST. JULIAN, CHARLES JAMES HERBERT (1819-1874) journalist, was a native of France, and came to S.A. in 1837. Two years after he went to Sydney, and became connected with the *Australian Chronicle*, and subsequently with the *Commercial Journal*, afterwards known as the *Free Press*. In 1843 he joined the *Sydney Morning Herald*, but left it in 1847 to join E. J. Hawksley in the *Sydney Chronicle*. In 1849 he again joined the *Herald*, and remained with it as law reporter until 1872, when he received the appointment of Chief Justice of Fiji from King Thakombau. He had been for some years previously consul for Fiji in Sydney. He died at Levuka in November 1874. He was the author of several works, of which the most noteworthy was a treatise on the Municipal Law of N.S.W.

ST. VINCENT'S GULF, in S.A., on which Adelaide stands, is a deep indentation of the sea running in a north direction in to the mainland. The harbour known as Port Wakefield lies at its head, and on its east shore are Ports Gawler, Adelaide, Willunga, Noarlunga, and Rapid Bay. The gulf is formed between the east shore of Yorke's Peninsula and a range of moderately-elevated hills which extend to the northward, in continuation of those over Cape Jervis. The breadth of its entrance is nearly thirteen leagues. The gulf was discovered by Flinders in 1802, and named by him after Admiral the Earl of St. Vincent. When Colonel Light in 1836 found the site of Kingscote in Kangaroo Island (the Arcadian El Dorado of the London prospectuses) unfit for colonisation, after time and money had been wasted by the immigrants and the company in building and clearing, he landed in St. Vincent's Gulf and explored a creek or estuary of the sea seven miles inland, from which, on a large fertile plain bounded on the east by the Mount Lofty Range, and on the banks of a small river named after Torrens, he fixed the site of the capital.

STANDISH, FREDERIC CHARLES (1824—) is a native of Lancashire, England, and was educated at Prior Park College, and then entered the Royal Military Academy, Woolwich. He obtained a commission in the Royal Artillery, in which he served for nine years, and retired with the rank of Captain. He came to V. in 1852, and was appointed to the Government service in

1854, as Assistant Commissioner of Gold-fields at Sandhurst. He was afterwards Chinese Protector till 1858. He was appointed Chief Commissioner of Police on the resignation of Captain Macmahon in 1860, and held the office till 1880, when he resigned. Standish was in 1861 installed District Grand Master of the Freemasons of V. under the English constitution.

STANTON, GEORGE HENRY, first Bishop of Northern Q., was educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, and took his degree of B.A. in 1859 and M.A. in 1862. He laboured as curate at Maidstone, and afterwards in London. In 1867 he was made Rector of Holborn. He was consecrated Bishop of Northern Q. in June 1878, and took charge of his diocese in May 1879.

STATION PEAK, a prominent hill on the western shore of Port Phillip Bay 1154 feet high. It was ascended and named by Flinders on 28th April 1802. The native name is Wurdí Youang. From the top of this hill there is a splendid view of the entire extent of Port Phillip Bay.

STAWELL, SIR WILLIAM FOSTER (1815—) Chief Justice of V., is a native of the County Cork, Ireland, and was educated at Trinity College, Dublin. He studied law in London under the celebrated Chitty and the learned George Long, and was called to the English Bar in 1839. In 1842 he came to V. and commenced the practice of his profession. On the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. Stawell was appointed Attorney-General of the first nominee Ministry, with Barry as Solicitor-General, and continued to hold that office until the introduction of responsible government in 1855. He then retired with the rest of the Haines Ministry, but returned with them as Attorney-General on their re-appointment by Sir Charles Hotham. In 1857, on the retirement of Sir William A'Beckett, Stawell became Chief Justice. He was chairman of the Royal Society of V. when Ambrose Kyte placed in his hands the donation of £1000 towards the expenses of an expedition to the Gulf of Carpentaria. In 1881, on the death of Sir Redmond Barry, Stawell was elected Chancellor of the University of Melbourne. He was knighted on his elevation to the judicial bench, and has on two occasions filled the office of Acting-Governor of the Colony, once after the departure of Viscount Canterbury in 1873, and again during the absence in Europe of Sir George Bowen in 1875. Stawell is held in universal esteem for his great legal abilities, his elevation of character, energy of mind, and unbending impartiality of judgment. During his tenure of the office of Chief Justice he has laboured earnestly and unceasingly so to improve the system of penal and prison discipline that it may aid towards the reclamation of the criminal, and also to the extinction of crime in the colony. His labours as judge have been unremitting from the first, with the exception of a two years holiday in Europe from 1873-5. In the course of that tour

he made careful and minute inquiries into the working of the penal and prison systems of various European countries.

STAWELL, formerly Pleasant Creek, a mining township in V., 176 miles W. of Melbourne, with which it is connected by railway. Gold was first discovered here in May 1853 by a shepherd named William McLachlan. The great rush however did not take place till July 1857. An immense number of miners then found their way to the creek, and throughout the two following years it was worked with great success by from 20,000 to 30,000 men. Very rich yields of gold were discovered during that period, and more "piles" were then made on Pleasant Creek than on any other known rush. Its celebrity and progressive prosperity are mainly due to the enterprise of Edmund and William Grant, who were the first to open up its rich quartz-reefs, which have been proved to be payable at great depths. The four deepest progressive mines in the colony are here: these are the Magdala, 2396 feet, the Newington, 1940 feet, the Prince Patrick, 1830 feet, and the South Scotchman, 1262 feet. The richest mine in V. is reputed to be that of the Pleasant Creek Cross Company, 1220 feet in depth. From this claim alone from January 1870 to the middle of 1875 the dividends declared amounted to £467,242 1s. 9d. The Oriental claim has also yielded large returns. In June 1878, 300 lbs. troy weight of stone procured from the 1160-foot level produced 343 ounces of gold, equivalent to 2561 ounces to the ton. The yield of gold from the quartz mines, and their permanent character, cause the constant employment of a large body of miners and numerous others, and ensure a market for the produce of a large agricultural population which during the last seven years has settled on the lands in the surrounding district. About 13,436 acres are under cultivation in the district, of which wheat and oats absorb nearly one half, 3196 acres being under hay, 378 under artificial grass, and 242 in vines. Vine culture is reported to have given satisfactory results. The land generally is a stiff poor clay heavily timbered. Late mining returns show machinery and other appliances of the estimated value of £156,359. The auriferous ground is estimated to cover an area of twenty-seven square miles. Stawell is a very well laid out town, and contains several handsome churches and other public buildings. It is named after Chief Justice Stawell.

STENHOUSE, NICOL DRYSDALE (1803-76) the "Mæcenæ of Australian literature," for many years occupied a prominent position in the legal, scientific and literary circles of N.S.W. He was a patron of literature and the arts, and many experienced his kindly encouragement. He had been clerk to the celebrated Sir William Hamilton when the latter was practising as an advocate in the Court of Sessions at Edinburgh, and was afterwards enrolled as an attorney. Stenhouse was a correspondent and intimate friend of Thomas

De Quincy, and a pupil of Professors Pillans, Dunbar, and Brunton. He was for about forty-six years in N.S.W., during which time he was engaged in extensive practice as an attorney. At an election of officers of the University, the last that occurred before his death, Stenhouse was, on the motion of Dr. Badham, admitted as an Examiner in the faculty of Law and made a member of the Senate. For many years he evinced deep interest in the Sydney Mechanics School of Arts, as its President, in which position he succeeded Dr. Woolley. The strongest friendship existed between these two literary brethren. He was well known as a scholar and fosterer of colonial literature, and his published works show great power and refined taste, as well as a profound acquaintance with classical, German, and English literature. He was one of the first appointed trustees of the Sydney Free Public Library, and was the proprietor of a splendid private library of the rarest and choicest works.

STEPHEN, SIR ALFRED (1802—) Lieutenant-Governor and ex-Chief Justice of N.S.W., is the fourth son of Mr. Justice Stephen, judge of the Supreme Court of N.S.W., who died in Sydney in 1833. He was born in the West Indies, and received his education in England. In 1815 he accompanied his father, then Solicitor-General of the Leeward Islands, to the West Indies. They landed at Barbadoes in June, and visited all the islands westward of Barbadoes to St. Thomas. In 1817 Colonel Thomson, President of the Council of St. Christopher, called on all above sixteen to serve in the militia formed under his command for the defence of the island, and Stephen was appointed second lieutenant in the Corps of Fusiliers. He returned to England and studied for the Bar, first as pupil of Sergeant Stephen and then of Sir James Stephen. In November 1823 he was called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn, and commenced practice as an equity draftsman. In 1824 he came to V.D.L. In April 1825 he was appointed Crown-Solicitor and Solicitor-General; and in April 1832, whilst on his passage to England with his family, was gazetted Attorney-General of the colony. He entered on the duties of that office in the following year, and held it until 1838. In April 1839 Sir George Gipps appointed him to a vacant judgeship in N.S.W.; and in October 1844, on the death of Sir James Dowling, he became Chief Justice. In August 1846 he was knighted, in recognition of his services. In 1856, on the initiation of Parliamentary Government, he was appointed President of the Legislative Council, but he resigned this post the following year, and in 1858 his seat also. In 1862 he was made a C.B. On the departure of Earl Belmore in February 1872, Stephen was Administrator of the Government until the arrival of Sir Hercules Robinson. In 1873 he resigned the Chief Justiceship. He was made K.C.M.G. in 1874, and Lieutenant-Governor of N.S.W. in 1875, this latter appointment having been decided by the Home Government

in consequence of a claim to that office having been made by Sir James Martin as Chief Justice on the departure of Sir Hercules Robinson for Fiji. In March the same year Stephen was appointed to a seat in the Legislative Council. This seat he resigned in March 1879, in consequence of having entered on his duties as Acting-Governor, consequent on the departure of Sir Hercules Robinson. He has been for many years a member of the Council of Education, and has always been distinguished by his advocacy and support of benevolent and charitable institutions. Stephen throughout his career as a judge has always been noted for his indefatigable diligence and zeal in the discharge of his duties, by his strict impartiality of judgment, and his perfect courtesy of manners.

STEPHEN, SIR GEORGE (1794-1880) brother of the foregoing, was born at St. Kitts, one of the West Indian Islands, where his father, James Stephen, held at the time a Government appointment. James Stephen was an able and distinguished writer, and is credited with being the real author of the celebrated Orders in Council. He was for some time member of Parliament for Tralee, and afterwards for East Grimstead. He received the appointment of a master in Chancery, an office which he held for twenty years. George Stephen received a careful education, and was sent to the University of Cambridge. In an autobiography published by him for the use of his relatives he relates one or two interesting incidents of his school career. He was prematurely flogged through the Eton Latin and Greek grammars in a way, he remarks, that would now be regarded as cruel and scandalous. While at the private school of Mr. Greaves, at Clapham Common, he became acquainted with Macaulay, who was many years younger than himself, and that school acquaintance continued to the end of life. His opinion of Macaulay is interesting, though its justice may perhaps be doubted. Macaulay, he states, was destitute as a boy of all the fire of sentiment, though memory supplied him with its language; he was almost an alien from those who ought to have been his companions, and never associated in their games, much less in their wild frolics when school hours were over. This coldness of temperament marked him in all his intercourse with the world. As an orator his coldness and formality prevented his obtaining the highest success, though the "political essays" which he delivered on the Reform Bill were a brilliant exhibition of talent. These views are at variance with the character of Lord Macaulay as set forth in the biography written by his nephew. George Stephen was intended originally for the medical department of the army, when—England at the time being engaged with the terrible struggle with Napoleon—occupation was certain and promotion rapid. With this view he was at the age of fifteen placed under the instruction of James Briggs, a skilful anatomist. He remained in this occupation for

about three years, when his education in this direction was stopped. The crushing defeat sustained by Napoleon at Leipsic opened out a prospect of peace, and hundreds of young men on the medical staff of the army were thrown out of employment. James Stephen therefore altered his plans concerning his son, and sent him to Cambridge with the view of becoming a physician. He was, he states in his autobiography, successful in obtaining all the college prizes with one exception, but he learned nothing else except the art of riding and hunting, and of inventing mischief for the special service of the under-graduates. His father coming to the conclusion that he wanted steadiness to acquire successfully the gravity becoming a physician, removed him from college, and entered him in the office of Mr. Freshfield, the solicitor of the Bank of England, to study the law. He served his five years apprenticeship, and then commenced to practise for himself. George Stephen was concerned in an indirect manner with the trial of Queen Caroline. He was selected, though only five-and-twenty years of age, to collect on the continent evidence of the Queen's conduct during the last six months of her connection with Bergami, so as to carry the inquiry then proceeding in the House of Lords down to her arrival in England. The inquiry was adjourned for a time, and for a month he was incessantly engaged on this work. He followed the route previously taken by the Queen, and made it his habit at every hotel to occupy while there the same apartments that had been occupied by the Queen. Stephen was naturally from his connection with the case a firm believer in the guilt of the Queen. He states that the evidence he obtained was perfectly consistent with all that had been given in the House of Lords, and the facts were so gross that the Government thought it impossible to enter publicly on them. It will be from his connection with the anti-slavery agitation, in which he took a prominent part, that Stephen will be principally remembered. His father had for years been actively engaged in the same work, and the son was naturally induced to take a warm interest in the matter. He became intimate with Zachary Macaulay, Wilberforce and other eminent men who displayed their zeal in this cause. With Wilberforce he was connected by family ties, his father having married as his second wife the sister of Wilberforce—Mrs. Clarke, widow of a clergyman. The slave trade, as far as regarded the legitimate shipment of slaves from Africa to the British Colonies, was abolished in the year 1807, and through the activity of Brougham a still stronger measure was passed in 1811, when slave-trading was declared to be felonious. Slavery however still existed in the British Colonies, and it was in the abolition of this remnant of England's participation in the trade that Stephen was actively engaged. There were many societies existing at the time having for their avowed object slave emancipation, of which the Anti-slavery Society in London was the principal. Wilberforce,

Clarkson, Z. Macaulay, and James Stephen were the leading spirits in the movement, but they were growing old, and in 1824 Wilberforce resigned the lead of the party into the hands of Sir Fowell Buxton. During 1826 facts were brought to light concerning slavery in the Mauritius which justified Buxton in demanding an enquiry, and the House of Commons acceded to the motion. Stephen was appointed to conduct this inquiry, and immediately entered on the work. The 56th Regiment, which had been stationed in the Mauritius, had returned to England, and from the evidence given by the men sufficient was elicited to satisfy the Government of the truth of the charges. Commissioners were despatched to the Mauritius to prosecute the inquiry there, and in the meantime Stephen examined all the witnesses that could be discovered in England. The number of slaves in the Mauritius was, on the average, 60,000, and proof was obtained that this number had been replaced three times by the Seychelles trade since the colony came into the possession of England. The Mauritius inquiry lasted for some time, and eventually terminated in the emancipation of every slave who could establish the date of his arrival to be subsequent to the surrender of the colony. Eventually all slaves were emancipated by the abolition of slavery in the British dominions. About this time Stephen became acquainted with O'Connell, from whom he desired to learn some lessons in the art of political agitation. Concerned at the slow progress of the movement for the emancipation of the slaves, he wished to organise a national agitation on the subject. He prepared an anti-slavery creed, laying down the principle that "to uphold slavery was a crime before God, and that every Christian was called upon to aid in its suppression." He submitted his scheme to the Anti-Slavery Committee hoping to obtain their adoption of it, but to his great disappointment they decided that the proposal was too radical in its character to be expedient in the then temper of the public and would tend to alienate much of the Parliamentary support on which they relied. He received help however from an unexpected quarter. He was invited by Mr. Cropper of Liverpool to dine with him and some friends, and to give a further explanation of the scheme. The company comprised about twenty Quakers, to whom he again explained his proposals. Cropper asked him what he intended to do. "I shall go on to the end," he replied, "and do my best to carry it through if I can raise £1000." "All right," was immediately exclaimed by everyone round the table, and was followed by a subscription of £500 from Cropper and £250 from Joseph Sturge. Such was the commencement of the Agency Committee, and thus supported Stephen was enabled to carry out his plan, which proved successful beyond his hopes. Popular excitement was aroused, and when the bill dealing with the subject of slavery was brought before Parliament an anti-slavery petition with 187,000

signatures, obtained in less than ten days, was presented. Warned by the exhibitions of public feeling the West Indian party changed their policy and offered to withdraw their opposition to the measure on payment of £20,000,000 to the planters and their mortgagees. The views of Stephen as the representative of the Agency party were asked, and he was given to understand that his answer would determine the fate of the bill, as except on those terms a majority was hopeless. He felt himself to be in an embarrassing position, for according to the views he had circulated, the proposal amounted to a purchase of negro liberty, and therefore to an absolute abandonment of principle, but under stress of circumstances he decided to accept the compromise on condition that the bill should contain an absolute prohibition of all slavery in the British dominions for ever. This was conceded, the bill passed, and received the Royal assent. Stephen received the honour of knighthood in 1838 in recognition of his services in the cause of negro emancipation. For some years he practised in London as a solicitor, but afterwards felt an inclination to join the higher branch of the profession. The rules then in force required that for two years previously to the call to the bar he should abstain from all remunerative occupation of a professional character, and in 1847 he quitted London, and resided in the country for the two years. He was thus not called until June 1849, making him junior at the bar to his eldest son, who had been called a few months previously. He practised for about five years at Liverpool and at the Northern Circuit, and his experience in bankruptcy law soon gained him the lead in that business. Two of his sons had previously migrated to V., and the bankruptcy business having fallen off in Liverpool, Stephen determined to join them. In 1855 he and his family came to Melbourne, a step which he says in his autobiography he never ceased to regret. He practised as a barrister, for the most part in the Insolvency Court, and was appointed a Queen's Counsel. In 1866 he acted for a short time as Commissioner of Insolvent Estates at Geelong. He was elected first President of the Melbourne Chess Club, founded in August 1866. Stephen was a prolific writer, and some of his productions attained more than momentary success. He was the author of *Adventures of a Gentleman in Search of a Horse*, a work intended to illustrate in an amusing form the operation of the laws relating to horse warranty. The book ran through as many as six editions. He published several pamphlets on legal subjects, and also a work entitled *Life of Christ*.

STEPHEN, JAMES WILBERFORCE (1822—) jurist, is a son of the foregoing and a native of England, and was educated at the University of Cambridge, where he graduated fourth Wrangler in 1846, and shortly afterwards took his degree of M.A. After leaving college he studied for the bar, and was called in 1848. He came to V. in

1854, and obtained a very large practice as an equity barrister. In 1871 he was elected member of the Assembly for St. Kilda, and shortly afterwards became Attorney-General in the Francis Ministry. He framed and carried the Act for establishing the existing system of free education. In 1872, on the retirement of Mr. Justice Williams, he was raised to the bench as Judge of the Supreme Court.

STEPHENS, T. B. (1819—1877) journalist, was a native of Rochdale, in England, and came to Sydney in 1849, but removed a few years afterwards to Brisbane. About the time of the separation of Q. from N.S.W. Stephens became proprietor of the *Brisbane Courier*, the oldest newspaper in the colony, and held it until 1869, when it passed into the hands of a company, of which he was a shareholder. Stephens' connection with the *Courier* terminated about 1873, when the property was sold to the present proprietors. The achievement however on which he most prided himself in the work of journalism, and in the success of which he took the deepest personal interest, was the establishment of the *Queenslander*. For a number of years he wrote a considerable portion of the leading matter of this journal. Stephens was elected an alderman of Brisbane soon after the town became a municipality, and held the office for several years. In 1862 he was elected mayor. He represented South Brisbane in the Legislative Assembly of Q. from the time of separation until his retirement from public life.

STEWART ISLAND (native name Rakiura,) is a small island belonging to N.Z. lying to the south of the Southern Island, from which it is separated by Foveaux Strait. It is of irregular form, about thirty miles long by twenty-five miles broad, and contains an area of about 1000 square miles. It is mountainous and well wooded with valuable timber trees. It has also several good harbours, and there are many fertile valleys. It was originally uninhabited, but is now occupied by a few whalers and sealers, with some natives and their half-breed descendants. The seas around swarm with fish, and there are said to be large deposits of iron-sand equal to that of Taranaki.

STIRLING, SIR JAMES (1791-1868) navigator, was a native of Lanarkshire in Scotland, and entered the navy at an early age. He served throughout the war against France, and commanded H.M.S. *Brazen* in the American war of 1812. Subsequently he was engaged in the survey of the coast of Australia, and was the first to cross the Monaro plains in N.S.W. He was sent from Sydney by Governor Darling in 1827 in command of H.M.S. *Success* to survey the western coast of the continent, and to select a suitable site for a penal settlement at some place on the banks of the Swan River. A report had got abroad that the French Government were about to take possession of the western portion of Australia, and the expedition was designed to forestall

that purpose. The *Success* dropped anchor on 6th March, and the next day two boats crews well armed were sent to explore the river. Stirling commanded the exploring party, and was accompanied by Mr. Frazer, colonial botanist. Their report on the capabilities of the region, made to Governor Darling on the return of the *Success* to Sydney, induced him to recommend to the Home Government that a settlement should be formed there. The despatch containing this recommendation was taken to England by Stirling. It was resolved to act on the suggestion, and Stirling was appointed first Governor of the settlement, with a grant of 100,000 acres of land for his services in surveying and exploring. Accordingly H.M.S. *Challenger*, commanded by Captain Fremantle, was despatched from London in 1829, and was followed by the *Parmelia*, commanded by Stirling. When Fremantle arrived at Swan River he found that a nearer view of the country was far from realising the expectations formed by those who had viewed it merely from the open sea. He began to have forebodings, but it was too late; the ships containing eight hundred of the first settlers were already close at hand; and on 1st June, after narrowly escaping shipwreck on the reefs along the shore, Stirling landed with his little band on the wilderness of Garden Island. Here in this temporary abode the colonists remained for several months, sheltering themselves in fragile tents or in brushwood huts from the rough blasts and the rains that beat in from the winter storms of the Indian Ocean. Exploring parties set out from time to time to examine the adjoining mainland; but however fair it seemed from a distance, they found it to be merely a sandy region covered with dense and scrubby thickets. The only port was at Fremantle, where there was but little shelter from the storms of the open ocean; and the only place suitable for a town was several miles up the Swan River, where the waters expand into broad but shallow lagoons. Here the colonists determined to build their city, to which they gave the name of Perth; but the site was not favourable to enterprise, an impassable bar stretched across the mouth of the river, which was therefore inaccessible to vessels. The goods of the colonists had to be landed on an exposed beach at Fremantle and then carried overland through miles of sand and scrub. In 1830 about a thousand new immigrants arrived; and towards the end of this year the colonists succeeded in settling down in their new homes at Perth. The work of exploration was at once proceeded with, Stirling himself taking a leading part in the expeditions. From circumstances which the Governor was powerless to control, the settlement proved a disastrous failure. Stirling left the colony in September 1832 for the purpose of rendering an account of the causes of the failure to the Home Government, which he appears to have done satisfactorily for himself, as he received the honour of knighthood. He was absent

two years, during which the 'Government of the settlement devolved on Captain Irwin of the 63rd Regiment, in the first year, and Captain Daniel of the 21st Regiment, in the second. Stirling returned in August 1834, and infused new vigour into the colonists by surmounting the errors committed in the early proceedings of the settlement. But for him the colony would have been abandoned; and it made satisfactory progress during his further tenure of office, when he again left in 1838. On his return to England, Stirling resumed his profession, and was commander-in-chief of the fleet in China during the Russian war. In 1852 he held for a short time the post of a Lord of the Admiralty.

STONY DESERT is the name given to the vast tract of perfectly level desert, without a tree, a blade of grass, or the slightest sign of vegetation, crossed by Sturt in 1845, and by Burke and Wills in 1860. It is described by Sturt as a stony desert, into which the sand-hills abut like cliffs upon the ocean. The ground is strewn as thickly as possible with rounded fragments of quartz and sandstone, just like a shingle beach. This tract however has been found by subsequent explorations to consist of dotted patches, or a series of plains rather than one vast desert, and is not all equally strewn with stones or destitute of vegetation. Howitt found in 1862 a part where it was not more than seventeen miles wide, of which eight miles only were bad travelling, and all more or less grassed. These patches of stony desert appear only dotted here and there amidst the plains for a considerable distance N., S. and W. of the Barcoo River. Many theories have been advanced to account for these singular tracts of sterile desert; the favourite one is that they are the remains left by some long continued current of water flowing through the centre of the continent. The Rev. J. E. T. Woods, however, gives it as his opinion that they are the remains of a decomposed highly ferruginous tertiary sandstone which abounds in other parts of the continent. Where the strata contained a great deal of iron, they formed siliceous concretions which resisted decomposition, while the rest of the rock fell away. Or it may have been that the strata itself was composed in places of a sandstone breccia like that found on the N. coast, where each ferruginous nodule is glazed round with quartz. The red sand is certainly derived from a ferruginous sandstone, and if it be asked how the ridges should be so high and uneven, and the plains so low and flat, he answers that when the strata decomposed, the lighter portions drifted away into ridges, leaving the heavier remains scattered below on the plains. The impression which prevailed for so long a time that the whole extent of the interior of the continent was a desert of this description has been completely dissipated by the researches of recent explorers. Ernest Favenc reports that fat cattle now find their way to Sydney and Melbourne from the scorched plains and bare

hot sandhills that turned back the veteran Sturt. Did Sturt allow himself to be daunted by illusory or exaggerated dangers, or has the aspect of the country changed since his time? Neither. Other and more recent explorers have confirmed the accuracy of his statements; and the severe hardships undergone by Giles, Warburton and Forrest in their gallant expeditions offered the strongest possible testimony to the truth of the early explorer's descriptions of the intense aridity of the soil and climate. But it is now ascertained that the regions of the interior which it has been the custom to designate deserts are only deserts by comparison with the fertile and fruitful fringe of country lying on each side of the coast ranges. The central plain of A. it now appears has been as wonderfully fitted by nature to sustain animal life as other seemingly desolate areas of the earth's surface have been. Every bush and shrub, nay, almost every tree is edible; and the long months of drought that would shrivel the coast grasses into dry dust make no impression on the hardy shrubs of the great plain; while such are their fattening properties that stock subsisting on them can travel long distances in and out to water without losing flesh as they would do under different conditions. According to Favenc the only real desert is that which strictly speaking is no desert at all because it is covered with permanent vegetation; that is to say, with the treacherous and useless spinifex, intermingled with shady baubinia trees and bright-looking desert-apple trees. Yet even these may be transitional forms of plant-life which are preparing the soil out of which they grow for higher and better kinds of flora. Sturt's stony desert was nothing of this kind, but consisted of a long stretch of downs covered with limestone nodules and dry plains upon which the grass had perished from long-continued dry weather; and the explorers were too inexperienced in this description of country to properly appreciate the shrubs and herbage which supplied the place of grass. "There is," writes Favenc, "actually no desert country in the interior excepting spinifex country; that is, if we accept the term 'desert' as meaning country unfit to support animal life. There are flooded plains subject to inundation that during a great portion of the year are barren; that is to say, the grass that grows on them is of a kind that will not last longer than a few months; but these cannot come under the denomination 'desert,' as the watercourses that intersect them generally contain plenty of feed about their banks, and the plains themselves terminate in higher country, carrying grass, bushes, &c., all the year round." Hence what was formerly condemned as hopelessly dry country is now affording pasturage to thousands of sheep, and the only question that arises is that which is pertinently asked by Favenc: Will country subject to such long and constant periods of dry weather stand the drain upon it caused by close stocking; and, if any of the

vegetation disappears, will other growth take its place? This must depend, to a considerable extent, on the possibility of storing the annual rainfall or of finding a subterranean supply of water, and if we are to be guided by analogy, it may be confidently anticipated that beneath the great central plain of A., as beneath other depressions of the earth's surface, exhibiting similar geological, climatic, and meteorological conditions, will be found large deposits of the precious fluid. The heavy tropical rains of the interior, which often suffice to transform extensive plains into wide-spreading lakes, do not disappear by evaporation exclusively, except in the case of those clay-pans which offer an impermeable surface to the water. Wherever the soil is arenaceous, or otherwise porous, there must be a large amount of infiltration going on, and where this is the case, the water would descend until it reached an impenetrable stratum, where it would form a reservoir or flow off in the direction of the trend of the underlying rock. At present nothing is known of the sources of those streams—from which living fish have been brought up—that are met with at considerable depths by miners in different parts of this colony. One thing only is certain, that they are of such a magnitude and force as to necessitate expensive pumping power to keep them from flooding the shafts and adits; and they not merely provoke inquiry as to their origin, but suggest plausible hypotheses concerning the hidden and undeveloped water supply of the continent, and encourage the hope that this may one day enable enterprise to make even "the desert" bloom like a garden.

STORM BAY, a harbour in T., the principal portion of which is included between the land extending from Cape Pillar to the entrance of the Derwent and Bruné Island, between which and the S.E. part of the main land is D'Entrecasteaux Channel, where there is a passage for large vessels. Storm Bay contains several islands, and has excellent holding ground, but is not well sheltered from the winds and tides of the ocean.

STOUT, ROBERT (1845—) jurist, is a native of the Shetland Isles in Scotland. He came to N.Z. in 1863, and was engaged for some time as second master in the Dunedin Grammar School. In 1867 he began the study of the law, and was articled in 1868. He was a constant contributor to the press, and edited for three years a weekly journal in Otago. He was admitted a barrister in July 1871; and was elected to the General Assembly in 1875 for Caversham, and in 1876 for Dunedin. In 1878 he was appointed Attorney-General.

STOW, THOMAS QUINTON (1801—1862) was a native of England, and at an early age adopted the ministerial profession. For some years he studied at the Missionary College, Gosport, under the direction of Dr. Bogue. His first pastoral charge was at Huntingdon in Hertfordshire, whence he removed to Halstead in Essex, where he laboured with much success for many

years, respected for his ability and consistency, and beloved for his kindness. In 1837 Stow was sent out by the Colonial Missionary Society to the newly-established colony of S.A. At first he preached in a tent brought with him from England, and pitched in the park lands. The first church was an unpretending building of pine and reeds, partly erected by Stow's own hands, which stood in North Terrace. This was the first religious edifice built in S.A. In 1840 the Independent Church in Freeman-street was opened for worship, and there Stow laboured with much devotedness and success for several years, until he was seized by severe illness, and a successor (the Rev. C. W. Evan.) was obtained. Though prevented from regular official duties, he still continued to serve the churches of his denomination, and whilst fulfilling a temporary engagement in Sydney he was overtaken by his last and fatal attack of illness. He died on 19th July 1862 at the house of John Fairfax in Sydney. Stow was universally beloved and respected, a true patriot, an urbane gentleman, a faithful minister, and a kind friend.

STOW, JEFFERSON PICKMAN (1830—) journalist, son of the foregoing, came to S.A. with his father in 1837. In 1864 he went to the Northern Territory, and was one of the brave little party that purchased a small boat, which they named the *Forlorn Hope*, and in which they accomplished a perilous voyage around the West Coast and back to S.A. Stow published an interesting account of this expedition, and shortly afterwards joined the staff of the *S.A. Advertiser*, of which he was appointed editor in 1876.

STOW, RANDOLPH ISHAM (1829-1878) jurist, son of the Rev. T. Q. Stow, came with his father to S.A. in 1837. He studied law, and continued the practice of his profession as solicitor for many years. He was elected to the Legislative Assembly as member for West Torrens in 1861, and became Attorney-General in the Reynolds Ministry, and subsequently in the Waterhouse, Ayres and Blythe Ministries. He was raised to the Judicial Bench in 1875.

STRZELECKI, COUNT PAUL E., explorer, a distinguished Polish refugee who emigrated to Australia in 1831 in consequence of the oppression practised by the Russians on his native land. He was noted in his own country for his proficiency in the practical sciences, especially geology and mineralogy. Immediately succeeding the explorations of Sir Thomas Mitchell, Count Strzelecki entered on an examination of the Great Dividing Range and its branches, which extended over several years, and entailed an immense amount of labour and hardship. The various summits of the chain within the two colonies of N.S.W. and V.D.L. were named by him; their heights ascertained; their mountain streams traced; the geology and mineralogy, the terrestrial magnetism, the climate, the fossil and existing *fauna*, the fossil and existing *flora*, the state and prospects

of agriculture; the physical, moral, and social condition of the aborigines investigated; and the whole of this vast district was brought within a geological map of great scientific value. We have now to follow him into what has not unfairly been called the garden of Australia Felix. The Great Dividing Range runs from north to south of the east coast and buries itself in the Southern Ocean at Wilson's Promontory. Before however reaching Wilson's Promontory it throws off a spur which traverses the whole of Victoria from east to west, and on these slopes the rich goldfields of Sandhurst, Ballarat, Mount Alexander, the Ovens, Omeo, McIvor, and several others now cluster. Coming down this spur, and on the slope of it, opposite to that traversed by Mitchell, Strzelecki found himself within a beautiful district whose existence had not been even suspected. Enclosed between the sea and the snow-clad summits of this alpine barrier, sheltered by it from the hot blasts of the interior, and watered by numerous unfailing streams fed from its snows, a large district not many degrees from the tropics possesses an almost English climate. Tourists from Melbourne and Sydney are loud in their praises of the Arcadian beauty of Gippsland. Its lowlands are interspersed with some splendid lakes; while its rivers, navigable for sixty and eighty miles from their junction with the lakes, are the finest and most valuable within the Australian Colonies. Flowers in endless variety and of great beauty form a wide-spread carpet. The tall fern trees with their gigantic leaves droop into natural bell-shape tents. A hundred deep pellucid streams display the crystal quartz and sharp clean sand and gravel which compose their beds. Everywhere the traveller comes upon opening glades leading up to the ranges and clothed with many varieties of flowering heaths and acacias. Nor is the soil less profitable than gay. All the productions of a temperate climate attain to absolute luxuriance there. Gippsland, under a proper system of cultivation, might in a few years become the granary of Australia. From this garden however Strzelecki was obliged to make a hasty retreat, and found himself almost hopelessly entangled in the dense hedge which forms its north-west boundary. With provisions running short, and suffering from the fatigues of their previous labours, the Count and his men attempted to reach Melbourne by a short cut across the ranges. The skirts of these ranges are closed with a dense and almost impenetrable scrub. They had to abandon their packhorses, and all the botanical and geological specimens collected on the way. For twenty-two days they literally cut their way through the scrub, seldom advancing more than two miles a day, and being in a state of complete starvation. Their clothes were torn piecemeal away, and their flesh lacerated by the sharp, lancet-like brambles of the scrub, was exposed to the keen air of these snow-crowned ranges. With difficulty Strzelecki and his men reached Melbourne, but the horses,

with all his valuable collections, were never recovered. In his report of this expedition to Sir George Gipps occurs the first official notice of the discovery of gold. It stands thus among an enumeration of the mineralogical specimens collected in the district, in the report dated 1839, the dispatch of Gipps to the Secretary of State for the Colonies, with which it was forwarded, bearing date 1840:—"Gold.—An auriferous sulphuret of iron, partly decomposed, yielding a very small quantity or proportion of gold, sufficient to attest its presence." Thus was lying, for twelve years, entombed among the Parliamentary papers, that important discovery which was to effect such changes in the Australian Colonies, until at length, in 1851, another Governor of N.S.W., taught by the prosperity of California, consented to make more publicly known Hargreaves' fresh discoveries of gold. But to Strzelecki the first discovery on the spot was unquestionably due in 1839; which was corroborated by Sir Roderick Murchison's scientific precognitions in 1846 and 1848. In 1839, in the district of Wellington, Strzelecki had discovered gold-bearing quartz, specimens of which he sent to Berlin for analysis; he exhibited some to James Macarthur and other gentlemen, and mentioned to Governor Gipps the existence of a gold-field in the Bathurst district; but he was requested not to make the matter generally known, for fear of the serious consequences which, considering the condition and population of the colony, were to be apprehended from the fact being likely to arouse the cupidity of the prisoners and labourers. He subsequently published his work—though without mentioning it (in fulfilment of his promise) his actual discovery of gold in the Bathurst district—entitled *A Physical Description of New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land*, accompanied by maps, sections, and specimens of rocks, the examination of which in London, and subsequent comparison with analogous evidence from the Ural Mountains, led to the scientific conclusion that gold existed, and probably abounded, in certain districts of A. Strzelecki returned to Europe in 1846, and died in London in 1878.

STRZELECKI RANGE, a range of mountains in the district of Western Port, V., to the southward of the Great Swamp. It was discovered and named by the explorer.

STUART, ALEXANDER (1825—) is a native of Scotland, and was educated at the Edinburgh Academy and Edinburgh University. In 1851 he came to N.S.W. In 1874 he was elected member of the Assembly for East Sydney. In 1876 he accepted office as Colonial Treasurer in the Robertson Ministry, and retired with his party in 1877.

STUART, JOHN MACDOUALL, explorer, a native of Scotland, came to S.A. in 1839. The first who ever crossed the Australian Continent were Burke and Wills; but for several years before they set out, another traveller had, with

wonderful perseverance, repeatedly attempted this feat. John Macdouall Stuart served as draughtsman in Sturt's expedition to the Stony Desert in 1844, and had been well trained in that school of adversity and sufferings. Up till 1858 the Colony of S.A. was still little more than the Adelaide district in an immense and unknown wilderness. At length, in 1858, Stuart made some discoveries of great importance to the colonists. Penetrating to the west of Lake Torrens, with one white man and a native—who treacherously deserted them—he came upon an extensive district of country abounding in natural springs, and clothed with the kangaroo grass so highly prized by the Australian flockowners. For this discovery the Government presented him with a large tract of land within the district. Next year the S.A. Government offered £2000 as a reward to the first person who should succeed in crossing the continent from south to north, and Stuart set out from Adelaide to attempt the exploit. With only two men he travelled to the north towards Van Diemen's Gulf, and penetrated much further than Sturt had done in 1844. The party had commenced their exploration on 1st March from Chambers' Creek and journeyed in the direction of the centre of the Continent. On 22nd April Stuart found from his observations of the sun that he was encamped in the very centre of A. On a high mount about two miles to the northward he planted the British flag, naming the spot Central Mount Stuart. The country around the central station was found to be of a very different character from what had been supposed. Instead of a great desert the land was well grassed, rich and fertile, with an abundance of water—as fine a country, wrote Stuart, “as a man would wish to possess.” Beyond the centre however the difficulties of the party commenced. Stuart made three efforts to reach the coast by a north-west course, and each time was driven back on the centre by dense belts of scrub and scarcity of water, both men and horses suffering severely from illness and fatigue. A north-west passage to the sea was at length abandoned and the party attempted to reach the coast by a north-east course from the centre. On this course they were attacked by savages and obliged to retire to Adelaide. Stuart had arrived in a district already marked by the routes of Gregory, Stokes and Leichhardt. The attack by the natives occurred in June 1860, when the exploring expedition under Burke and Wills was still in Melbourne. On the first day of the year 1861 Stuart again started from Adelaide with a party of twelve men under his command for the purpose of actually reaching the sea-coast. And now the two expeditions were in the field. Burke's expedition had left Melbourne in August 1860, but Burke and Wills did not start from Cooper's Creek on their journey to the Gulf of Carpentaria until 14th December, just a fortnight before Stuart left Chambers' Creek. The two routes through Central Australia are pretty parallel—the distance of Cooper's Creek from Chambers' Creek

about 300 miles being mainly adhered to. On this occasion Stuart found no difficulty in making good his former route, and was able to advance nearly two degrees beyond its extremity. The continuation of his former route also opened up some fine country. This fine country however towards the north was backed by belts of dense scrub, and from it attempts were made in no less than fourteen directions to force a passage to the coast. In June 1861 the task was abandoned; while in February Burke and Wills had actually visited the shores of the Gulf of Carpentaria by a more easterly and entirely independent course. But a third attempt made the following year was completely successful. Stuart started from Adelaide with an excellent party fitted out at the expense of the Government, consisting of himself in command; W. Kekwick, second; F. G. Waterhouse, naturalist; F. W. Thring, third officer; W. P. Auld, assistant; S. King, J. Billiat, J. Frew, H. Nash and J. McGorgery. They pushed on from the terminus of Stuart's former journey, and on the whole the difficulties were fewer than they anticipated. On 10th July 1862 they struck the Adelaide River, and Stuart then knew that his triumph was near. In his journal he writes:—“July 24. Started twenty minutes to eight o'clock, course north. I have taken this course in order to make the sea-coast as soon as possible, which I suppose to be distant about eight and a-half miles; by this I hope to avoid the marsh. I shall travel along the beach to the north of the Adelaide. I did not inform any of the party except Thring and Auld that I was so near the sea, as I wished to give them a surprise on reaching it. . . . At eight and a-half miles came up in a broad valley of black alluvial soil, covered with long grass; from this I can hear the wash of the sea. . . . Stopped the horses to clear the way whilst I advanced a few yards on to the beach, and was delighted and gratified to behold the water of the Indian Ocean in Van Diemen's Gulf, before the party with the horses knew anything of its proximity. Thring who rode in advance of me called out ‘The sea!’ which so took them all by surprise that he had to repeat the call before they understood what was meant; hearing which they immediately gave three long and hearty cheers. . . . Thus have I through the instrumentality of Divine Providence been led to accomplish the great object of the expedition, and to take the whole party through as witnesses to the fact, and through one of the finest countries man would wish to pass—good to the coast and with a stream of running water close to the sea.” This was Stuart's sixth journey. The return journey was very severe, owing to many of the waterholes having dried up, and on several occasions they suffered much from thirst. Stuart was attacked by scurvy, which induced almost total blindness. On 18th December Stuart arrived at Adelaide, and received the reward of £2000 from the S.A. Government, and shortly afterwards the Royal Geographical Society awarded him their gold medal and

a watch. His triumphal entry into Adelaide took place on the very day when Howitt's mournful party entered that city bearing the remains of Burke and Wills on their way to Melbourne. Hærcus writes of Stuart's discoveries:—"It is impossible to over-estimate the value of Stuart's last and crowning expedition. It threw daylight upon a country of which little or nothing was previously known; it showed that it was possible to cross this country, and in ordinary seasons to find water at easy distances; and it led to the commencement of the great work of the transcontinental telegraph line, which has brought the whole of the Australias into daily communication with the old world. Stuart was rewarded by the Government and the Parliament for the magnificent work he had accomplished; and full of honours he returned to the old country to end his days. But he did not live long to enjoy his honours and rewards. The hardships he suffered told eventually even on his iron constitution. His name however is imperishably connected with exploration in Australia. He led the way which it is comparatively easy now to follow. He was the pioneer in a land which had never before been trodden by the foot of a white man; and to-day there are thriving cattle-stations where a dozen years ago Stuart urged his weary way amidst the unbroken stillness of Nature, when it was doubtful whether he would succeed or lie down in the desert to die." He died in England in June 1869.

STURT, CHARLES (18—1869) the greatest of all the Australian explorers.

I. *First Journey*.—In 1828 it was resolved by the Government of N.S.W. to send an expedition to take up the task of exploration on the swamps of the Macquarie. The leader chosen by Governor Darling for this expedition was Captain Charles Sturt, an officer of the 39th Regiment, then stationed in Sydney. Hamilton Hume was selected to accompany Sturt on this expedition. The other members of the party were McLeod, an army surgeon, two soldiers of the 39th Regiment and eight prisoners of the Crown. The animals were thirteen horses, and two draught and eight pack bullocks. The expedition left Sydney on 10th September 1828. They reached the Macquarie and sailed down it to the point marked on Oxley's chart—to find that all trace of sea or lake had disappeared! The channel which had promised so well, without any change in its breadth or depth, ceased altogether, and while the explorers were yet lost in astonishment at so abrupt a termination, the boat grounded. The reeds were still there, but the whole country beyond, as far as the party could travel, contained not a drop of water. Abandoning all hope of taking up the Macquarie again, Sturt struck into a more northern course, and on 4th February 1829 came upon the Darling, a river far exceeding in size the Lachlan or the Macquarie. From a sloping bank on which his party stood, stretched, some forty feet below them, a magnificent stream, seventy or eighty yards broad,

evidently very deep, and literally covered with pelicans and other wild fowl. Eagerly the men, parched under an almost tropical sun, and after several days toil, rushed down its green bank to taste its waters. "Nor shall I ever forget," wrote Sturt, "the cry of amazement that followed their doing so, or the looks of terror and disappointment with which they called out to inform me that the water was so salt as to be unfit to drink." Lower down they found that the Darling received a tributary, which Sturt named New Year's Creek. It was afterwards named the Bogan, by which name it was known by the natives. They traced it up for sixty miles, and then proceeded towards the Castlereagh. Sturt's discovery of the Darling proved the mistaken nature of the opinions that the Castlereagh, the Macquarie, and other north-western rivers were tributaries of the Brisbane, and found their outlet in Moreton Bay. The party retraced their steps to Sydney to announce their great discovery.

II. *Second Journey*.—It was not quite so certain now that there was an inland sea. Many abandoned the theory altogether. Yet how was a district, larger than Spain and Portugal put together, drained? Every settler could tell of the mighty floods which had swept away his sheep, his cattle, his farmyards, and not seldom his farm servants and shepherds. Where did these mighty floods go to or how were they carried off? The freshwater streams had been found to disappear altogether after a short course inland. The Darling, which was quite large enough for a main drain, was salt. Yet whole seas went somewhere, for Oxley's sea had disappeared before Sturt could overtake it. Nothing was to be discovered by following the course of the ordinary sluggish freshwater streams. Creeping through a vast extent of level country, more like canals than rivers, they were stopped by the first impediment that came in their way. Sturt could trace their cessation to nothing stronger than a bank of more than ordinary stiff soil. To solve the mystery it was necessary to follow the course of some more impetuous stream. The Australian Alps lying to the south of the settlement supplied such a stream. A thousand rills fed by its snows joined themselves into one impetuous torrent and dashed down a steep and rocky channel. No ordinary impediment was likely to stop the Murrumbidgee, and Sturt determined to trace its stream whither it might lead. The settlers who had already secured its green banks reported that it made directly for the interior and showed no signs of abated strength. They would have followed its course themselves but that it exhibited unmistakable symptoms of leaving behind it the rich fertility which marked its early progress. In 1829 Sturt started on a journey with which may be said to commence the history of the Australian Colonies. He was accompanied by George Macleay and a party of men. Striking the Murrumbidgee at Yass Plains, about 200 miles from Sydney, he proceeded along

its banks with a large and well equipped party. The stream continued to gain in breadth and body of water, but all appearance of fertility was fast disappearing from its course. In little more than a week after its departure from Yass Plains the expedition found itself in an absolute desert. The drays loaded with provisions and other necessities had caused immense labour to the men from the shifting sandy nature of the soil and the dense patches of scrub which grew down to the water's edge; but now neither horses nor men could bring them any further. Yet a stream so impetuous in its course was not to be abandoned. A friend, who still held fast to the theory of an inland sea, had prevailed on the leader of the expedition to add the timbers of an old whaleboat, which had already seen service at the South Pole, to his equipments on leaving Sydney. They were nailed together, and a small raft, capable of carrying a few bags of flour, was constructed from the fallen timber on the river's bank. Half a dozen picked men were retained. The remainder, with the drays, were sent back to Sydney. And next morning at break of day this small boat's crew dropped down the stream bound for that mysterious and unknown interior which the European and the savage of the coast alike regarded with curiosity and awe. The Murrumbidgee is composed of alternate deep and broad reaches of water and steep rapids. In these rapids the stream, contracted within a narrow channel, hurries through a dark and gloomy gorge, deep down between frowning and precipitous rocks, hid from the sun by dense overhanging woods. Successive ages had almost choked up these sunless chasms with fallen trees, whose branches pointing up stream threatened to rip up the boat. On the seventh day of the voyage from one of these sunless rapids the boat unexpectedly shot out into a broad and noble river, the Murray, running at right angles to its tributary, the Murrumbidgee. In a country singularly deficient and uncertain in its means of communication by water, they had discovered a river not unworthy to be classed with the greatest watercourses of Europe, and doubtless owing its broad stream to the unfailing snows of the Australian Alps. Wherever the Murray might lead them, at least it solved a very important portion of their inquiry. It was certainly the main artery of N.S.W. "I directed," says Sturt, "the Union Jack to be hoisted, and giving way to our satisfaction we all stood up in the boat and gave three distinct cheers." More safely the whaleboat now dropped down the even tide of the Murray, and on the thirty-third day of the voyage on its stream the banks retired on each side and then were lost in the distance. The explorers found themselves floating on the bosom of an extensive lake, becoming slightly brackish as they advanced, while over its waters was borne the distant thunder of the great Southern Ocean. To this was given the name of Lake Alexandrina, and Sturt's observations showed him that he had cut

off the south-eastern corner of the continent. Indeed Lake Alexandrina is separated from the Southern Ocean merely by a narrow bar of shifting sand. The shores of the lake were clothed with green pastures and the whole surrounding country seemed excellently adapted for agriculture—a want beginning to be severely felt by the colonists of N.S.W., who were already getting their wheat and potatoes from V.D.L. and even from N.Z. But time permitted only a hasty view of these new discoveries. The explorers had a long and weary row up stream before them. They were already on famine allowance and even famine allowance would last them only on condition that they rowed up the stream in the same number of days in which they had rowed down. This they accomplished after great exertion and suffering, prolonging their journey into each night until they had reached their former camping-ground. When relieved from Sydney they had divided their last morsel of food, and owing to privation and incessant toiling at the oar symptoms of insanity had already appeared among the men. Wheat lands and fresh waters had been the two wants of N.S.W. If they were not now brought to the very door they were at all events near enough to relieve the colonists from serious apprehensions. Flocks and herds had increased with extraordinary rapidity, and all the available districts had already been taken possession of. Whether flocks and herds could be driven to the shores of the Southern Ocean was indeed questioned, for Sturt reported portions of the bank of the Murray to be little better than a desert. But a new class of men known as "overlanders" now appeared. The loud stockwhip of the overlander resounded through these dark woods. Many thousands of horned hoofs daily thundered over its banks or plunged into its tide to cut off some tedious bend of the river. Down the Murray poured the overflowing flocks and herds of N.S.W., and spread themselves over the new pastures round Lake Alexandrina. The fame of the new settlement reached Europe, and the English and the German immigrant were soon sowing their wheat fields and tending their vines on the shores of Spencer's Gulf. In a few years more the district was erected into an independent colony under the title of South Australia, and the foundations were laid of the present City of Adelaide.

III. *Third Journey*.—The narrative takes us back to the City of Adelaide, now hemmed in by Eyre's gloomy Lake Torrens and the terrible South Coast which he had just traversed. The settlers of the Adelaide district had abandoned all hope of finding an outlet to the west. What was the nature of the great interior which lay to the north of them was now the most important inquiry. Sturt had been the most successful of Australian explorers; and he was chosen to settle this question for them. In 1844 he started from Adelaide with a strong and well-equipped party, consisting

of sixteen men; the officers of the expedition being Poole, as second in command and surveyor, Macdougall Stuart as draughtsman, and Brown as surgeon. Desirous to escape from the meshes of Lake Torrens he left that district on his left hand, and passed up the Murray and the Darling, merely making a descent at intervals on the Torrens Basin, to ascertain the existence of an eastern arm. Leaving the Darling, which was taking him too much out of his northern course, at its junction with a small tributary, called by the natives the Williorara (the Menindie of the expedition under Burke and Wills,) he endeavoured to pass up the Williorara. But its waters quickly failed him, and pasture was becoming daily more scarce. The expedition had started in winter, so as by help of the spring showers to push to the north. The sun was beginning to dry up the pools, and no time was to be lost. By means of forced marches Sturt and his men passed over a very inhospitable tract of country and reached as high as lat. $29\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$, when they unexpectedly came upon a picturesque spot, well watered and supplied with food for the cattle. To this was given the name of the Rocky Glen Dépôt; and here Sturt determined to allow both men and horses to recruit for some time, while he explored the country beyond, for the purpose of selecting the most safe northern route. With dismay he gradually ascertained that no northern route was to be found. The Rocky Glen ceased as suddenly towards the north as it had opened, and the country beyond became an absolute desert. In vain Sturt and the officers under his command followed the course of every creek, and made long and harassing excursions into the district around. Neither water nor pasture was to be found beyond the Rocky Glen. Retreat too was cut off. The summer's sun had dried up every pond and creek which had supplied them on their line of march, and six months imprisonment in the Rocky Glen Dépôt became certain. For six months no rain fell. The violence of the sun became insupportable. To escape from its rays a large underground chamber was excavated, to which the men retired during the heat of the day. Gradually the surrounding desert closed in on them. The whole vegetation of the Rocky Glen became mere snuff, and was carried away by the hot blast. Nothing was left but the naked rocks and the pool of water on which their lives depended. Day by day it, too, yielded to the fury of the sun. "Under its effects," wrote Sturt, "every screw in our boxes had been drawn, and the horn handles of our instruments, as well as of our combs, were split in fine laminae. The lead dropped out of our pencils; our signal rockets were entirely spoiled; our hair, as well as the wool on the sheep, ceased to grow; and our nails had become as brittle as glass." Scurvy now attacked the whole party. Some of the men would be unable to proceed with the expedition, and Poole was dying. In this condition, the winter months came slowly round, and the first refreshing shower

fell. The way was again open, and it might be possible to save Poole. A litter of boughs and dried leaves was already prepared, and with Poole six of the men endeavoured to make a retreat on Adelaide. But the winter had been too long in coming. Poole died a few hours after his attendants had quitted the camp, and his body was brought back just as Sturt and the remainder of the expedition were about to start on their northern course. His companions raised a rude pyramid of stones on a neighbouring hill to mark the place of his interment; and Mount Poole is all that is left to tell of the weary days spent in the Rocky Glen Dépôt. "That rude structure," writes Sturt, "looks over his lonely grave, and will stand for ages, as a record of all we suffered in the dreary regions to which we were so long confined." About fifty miles further on a fresh halting place was discovered, and called Park Dépôt. Accompanied by Brown and three men, Sturt started from Park Dépôt, bearing right down on the centre of the continent. In a short time the country assumed all the appearance of a desert. Neither grass nor water was any longer visible, and the eye rested on nothing, to the brink of the horizon, but reddish-brown sand. Gradually as they advanced, this sand swelled into long parallel ridges, running from east to west and rising higher and higher, until at length the explorers found themselves toiling over a very ocean of solid billows, some fifty or sixty feet high, and succeeding each other in endless uniformity. At the distance of about 200 miles from Park Dépôt, this singular country came to an abrupt termination, and the explorers stood before what is now known as Sturt's Stony Desert. The parallel sand ridges, running from east to west, were suddenly chopped off at right angles, and in their stead stretched an immense level plain, uninterrupted all round the horizon from south to north, and thickly strewn with small fragments of quartz, firmly packed together, and rounded as if waterworn. Neither herb nor shrub protruded through the firmly-wedged quartz fragments. No sound or movement could be heard or seen all round them, and the dray wheels and hoofs of the horses left not the least impression on the surface of the plain. All that could attract or sustain animal or vegetable life nature seemed to have rigidly excluded from this scene of desolation. Thus the sun went down, and Sturt and his men encamped for the night in the Stony Desert. With the morning the party was again under weigh; and at the distance of about thirty miles from its commencement the Stony Desert was found to come to an equally abrupt termination. An immense plain of clay, or dried mud, lay before them, entirely destitute of vegetation. No water could be found, and the earth, cracked by the heat of the sun, abounded in immense fissures, which were avoided only by extreme watchfulness and care. Still maintaining their original course, the party arrived at the termination of this plain also, and found the tall sand

ridges re-appear, precisely as they had left them on the eastern shore of the Stony Desert. Again the explorers toiled over this solid ocean of red billows—an ocean seen as it were under the glare of some great conflagration, lashed into waves running mountains high, and then suddenly frozen all round from centre to horizon. At length a small creek appeared ahead and revived the hopes of the party. It received the name of Eyre's Creek. It contained some good water and communicated sufficient fertility to its neighbourhood to furnish a meal for the horses. On following it down however it soon died out on the desert, leaving merely a few incrustations of salt, and leading to a country as destitute of vegetation as that they had already traversed. They were now more than 400 miles from Park Dépôt; and with the exception of Eyre's Creek, some fifty miles behind, had nothing in the intermediate region to fall back upon. They had advanced 200 miles beyond the Stony Desert, without meeting any indication of a permanent change in the nature of the country. Both men and horses were so weak that any further advance would greatly endanger their retreat. Under these circumstances Sturt decided to fall back on Eyre's Creek, and by its assistance to regain the Dépôt. The party regained the main expedition with considerable difficulty, and in a most exhausted condition. Having taken some short rest at Park Dépôt, Sturt again started with Stuart and two men. After some days travelling, the explorers were agreeably surprised by increasing signs of fertility, and they came upon the banks of a fine creek flowing through an extensive and picturesque tract of pastoral country. This is Cooper's Creek, so sadly associated with the melancholy fate of Burke and Wills. Returning to their original course, after some examination of the district, they were soon again toiling over a sea of red sand ridges, exactly similar to those met with in the first excursion. At the end of another week's travelling, the Stony Desert again appeared in all its awful stillness. For half-an-hour Sturt sat on the summit of one of those quartz-clad hills sweeping the horizon with his telescope, hoping to find some encouragement to advance. But no change in the nature of the country could be detected. Reluctantly the horses' heads were turned, and the most protracted effort yet witnessed to reach the centre of the continent was finally abandoned. The party hastened to throw themselves back on Cooper's Creek, some 200 miles distant, and the nearest halting-place. It was a journey for life or death. The horses that refused to proceed were abandoned on the way. When a horse fell, his light baggage was hastily distributed among the rest, and the retreat continued. Uninterruptedly, night and day, they retreated. At night one of the men went before them with a lantern; and thus assisted in their course over the vast sand ridges and through the unbroken solitude of the Stony Desert, the explorers safely reached Cooper's Creek. Over these regions the hot winds blew

with unusual violence. On the morning of their arrival a hot wind began to blow, and towards midday raged with great fury. The leaves of the trees along the creek became crisp in a few moments, and fell like a snow shower around them. The wastes of sand ridges from which they had just escaped seemed a very ocean. The crests of the sand billows were cut off and whirled on high in thick spray. Blinding torrents of fine sand, driven before the wind, were poured over the Cooper's Creek district, smarting and blistering the feverish skin. Towards the horizon sea and sky were mingled in one red mass. Every living thing turned from the glow. An all-pervading relaxation seized man and beast. The horses were unable to bear the weight of their own heads. Propped against trees, and turned from the hot winds, they let their heads fall to the ground, as if the muscles of the neck had been severed. A thermometer, graduated to 127°, burst from the excessive heat, though placed in the fork of a large tree. In all probability had this tempest overtaken the party in the desert they would have all perished. Passing through Cooper's Creek district, Sturt with his men again joined the main expedition at Park Dépôt, greatly weakened by sickness, and scarcely capable of any further exertion. On the following day he found himself unable to walk. In a day or two more his muscles became rigid and his limbs contracted. Gradually also his skin blackened. The least movement put him to torture, and he was reduced to a state of perfect prostration. But Park Dépôt was many hundreds of miles from Adelaide, and an immediate retreat was now necessary. Already another summer had come round, and the sun was drying up all the pools and watercourses on the way. It was doubtful indeed whether the way was still open. Brown proposed to go and ascertain, lest the expedition should be again caught in the desert. Unless Flood's Creek, about 150 miles nearer Adelaide, contained sufficient water it would be dangerous to move the expedition; and Brown determined to learn the condition of Flood's Creek. The hide of a bullock was sewn together, so as to form a water-tight bag. This filled with water was placed on the way some seventy miles in advance, and on the following morning Brown started with a light spring cart containing about thirty gallons of water. By this contrivance he was enabled to supply himself and his horse with water half way on his journey, without encroaching on the store which he carried with him. Anxiously the men watched for his return. On his report depended another six months imprisonment in Rocky Glen Dépôt, and both officers and men recalled Rocky Glen Dépôt with horror. On the eighth day they came to Sturt's tent to tell him that Brown had appeared in sight, and in a few minutes he stood before him. "Well, Brown," said he, "what news? Is it to be good or bad?" "There is still water in the creek," he answered, "but that is all I can say. What there

is as black as ink ; and we must make haste, for in a week it will be all gone." A bed of leaves was placed in one of the carts, into which Sturt was lifted and the whole expedition commenced its retreat from Central Australia. Flood's Creek was safely reached, and it enabled them to push on to the Murray. The news was carried down the Murray that Sturt, now nineteen months absent and supposed dead, was returning. The settlers along its banks hastened to place their carriages at the service of himself and his exhausted men. Under the light of an Australian moon they again passed the clustering vines and golden wheat-fields which surrounded Adelaide. Exactly six months after their departure Sturt returned to Sydney to his well-won triumph. Charles Sturt died at Cheltenham England, on 16th June 1869. It was well said of him—"He never strove for what the vulgarly-ambitious call fame ; he was a most modest, simple-minded and retiring gentleman ; and the world passed him by, shouting out praises to more boisterous heroes and worthies of a rougher cast. Brave as a paladin, gentle as a girl, this man went into the wilderness, and by his genius and valour laid the foundation of a new English State which is rapidly growing into greatness. Had he won an Indian battle—no matter whether by his own strategy or by the sheer dogged courage of his troops—he would have received a peerage. He discovered the River Murray—the Australian Nile—he opened up the whole interior of A. to English settlement and enterprise ; and he dies untitled, undecorated, unrewarded, a simple gentleman retired from the army, like a hundred others who doze away the quiet evening of their lives at a provincial watering-place."

STOKES, J. L., Commander in the Royal Navy, accompanied Wickham in the expedition of the *Beagle* in 1837 to explore and survey such portions of the northern coast of the continent as were left by Flinders and King, and especially the space between Cape York and the southern shores of New Guinea. When Wickham retired through ill-health in March 1841, the command devolved on Stokes, who continued the survey until 1843. The surveys of the *Beagle* were followed up in the *Fly* by Captain Blackwood, between the years 1842 and 1845. Wickham and Stokes twice circumnavigated Australia, and discovered and explored the Fitzroy, the Adelaide, the Victoria, the Albert and the Flinders Rivers. Blackwood accomplished a minute survey of the unexplored portion of the Great Barrier Reef and the eastern part of Torres Straits, besides 140 miles of the south coast of New Guinea.

SUDDS AND THOMPSON. These names are connected with the early history of N.S.W. Two soldiers of the 57th Regiment in 1826, thinking the lot of prisoners preferable to their own, committed a felony by stealing a piece of cloth from a shop in George-street, Sydney, for the purpose of getting themselves convicted, hoping

thus to escape the irksomeness of military service. They were convicted and sentenced to seven years transportation to one of the northern settlements of N.S.W. This of course was just what they wanted and expected. But Governor Darling, fearing the consequences of such an example, determined to take the men out of the custody of the civil power and punish them in a manner calculated to deter others from committing offences of a similar kind. In pursuance of a general order which he issued, they were taken from the custody of the gaoler, brought back to the Barrack Square in Sydney, and in the presence of the assembled military it was announced that their sentence had been changed to seven years hard labour in irons on the roads, and that at the expiration of that period of punishment they were to be returned to their regiment. They were then stripped of their uniforms, and having been dressed in prison clothes, iron collars with long projecting spikes were riveted round their necks, and fetters and chains on their legs. They were then marched off to the gaol, with the band playing the Rogue's March. Sudds was a well-conducted man, but Thompson's character was not so good, and it is believed that it was owing to his evil advice that Sudds engaged in the scheme. Sudds took ill and was taken to the hospital, where he died. Thompson alone survived. "The projecting irons," says Thompson, "would not allow me to stretch at full length on my back—I could only sleep on my back and sides by contracting my legs. I could not stand upright with the irons on—the chains were too short—Sudds' collar was too small for his neck." It was endeavoured to account for Sudds' death by attributing it to dropsy. A medical examination disclosed no disease. The irons were not to be found when the public inquiry took place. Wentworth drew up a formal impeachment against the Governor, and repeated attempts were made to bring the matter before the House of Commons. When at length, years afterwards (in 1835) a committee was granted, the charges fell through for want of evidence. Darling was declared honourably acquitted, and immediately afterwards was knighted. The best his apologists can say in his defence is that he erred with good intentions.

SUGAR-GROWING IN AUSTRALIA.—The first attempt at sugar-growing in Australia was made in N.S.W. in 1824. Six hundred acres at Port Macquarie were planted with canes by order of the Governor, under the superintendence of Thomas Scott ; and it was stated that the sugar and rum produced repaid the Government for the outlay. Lang however states that it had been alleged that the sugar manufactured from the canes was characterised by a degree of acidity, which indicated the necessity of resorting to a still lower latitude, in order to develop the saccharine principle of the plant with complete success. Lang when visiting the Clarence River District in 1856 heard that a French gentleman, M. Adam, from the Isle of Bourbon and the Mauritius, had purchased

an estate of about 350 acres of land, on a freshwater creek communicating with the river, a few miles from Grafton, on which he had for some time been forming a sugar plantation. "I rode out with a friend," he continues, "during my stay, to ascertain what success was likely to attend his interesting labours. I found M. Adam and his two sons, one of whom had been one of my fellow-passengers from Sydney, on the plantation; and he showed me his canes, of which he had a considerable extent growing, and which were then ready for cutting. They were larger considerably, he observed—that is, of greater diameter—and would yield more saccharine matter than those of the Mauritius and Reunion. He had been somewhat doubtful of his success the previous year; but he was then quite confident as to the result. He told me his canes would yield four tons of sugar to the acre, and that a hundred acres of such produce would ensure him a return of £12,000 a year. As I have always regarded the production of sugar and cotton by European free labour—an operation which, from all I have myself seen and heard, I believe to be perfectly practicable—as one of the most important achievements of the future for our wronged and oppressed humanity, I was naturally greatly interested in M. Adam's undertaking, and I cordially wished him all success." In 1863 only two acres of canes were under cultivation in N.S.W. The industry was not in favour with the settlers; there was a prejudice against it; and it was not until 1867 that a marked change in public opinion with reference to this subject began to be manifested. Since then the settlers on the eastern rivers, from the Manning upwards, have engaged in the industry with energy and success. In 1867 there were about 116 acres of cane crushed, and 17,786 pounds of sugar made; in 1868, 646 acres of cane were crushed, and 134,740 pounds of sugar made; in 1869, 2548 acres were crushed, and 3,264,824 pounds of sugar made; in March 1870 there were 3917 acres under cane. The area in 1880 was 3675 acres, and the yield 6,342,896 pounds of sugar. The Colonial Sugar Refining Company have three powerful mills at work, each capable of crushing from four to four and a-half acres of cane per day. A small area (about twenty-six acres,) is devoted to the growth of sorghum and imphée.

Queensland.—The official report on the Q. exhibits in the Melbourne International Exhibition of 1880 states:—"The suitability of the soil in many parts of the colony, and its tropical and semi-tropical climate, directed the attention of the colonists at an early period of its history to the growth of sugar cane as a promising industry. As far back as 1862, an experimental patch of twenty acres is noticed in the official records, planted in the neighbourhood of Brisbane. The experiment gave good hope of success, and the attention of cultivators was attracted by it. Regular plantations were formed in the Brisbane district, and near Maryborough, which in 1865 returned 316

and 112 acres respectively under cane. Experimental patches were tried elsewhere, some in places where the industry has not since taken root. But in that year twenty acres were tried near Mackay, a locality which to-day is the main centre of sugar cultivation. The industry showed signs of vitality and the Legislature encouraged it by granting land on easy terms to sugar cultivators. In the year 1866 sugar mills first appear in the official returns; two in the Brisbane district, one on the Mary River. As a consequence there is an actual recorded production in the statistics of 1867 to the amount of 338 tons of sugar and 13,509 gallons of rum. The cautious hesitation with which the new industry was at first regarded began now to be thrown aside. Planters sought for cheap coloured labourers, it being considered that the constant petty work which had to be performed in the sweltering heat that prevails between the tall rows of cane would be too trying for the constitution of Europeans. South Sea Islanders were accordingly brought to the colony, and the trade in kanaka "recruits" (as they are called) became so considerable that the Legislature passed an enactment to check the abuses which had sprung up in connection with it. In the year 1868, the recorded production of the plantations amounted to 619 tons of sugar and 35,599 gallons of rum; in 1869, 5165 acres of land were put under cane. By 1871 the production of sugar had reached 3762 tons, of rum 112,979 gallons, and the staple was exported to the value of £16,262. It was also recorded that 55 sugar mills were in existence. The progress was rapid. In the next year, 1872, ten more mills were added to the number, the production of sugar was 6266 tons, of rum 161,473 gallons, and the export had reached a value of £36,803. But the industry was about to receive a check. The hesitation with which its first introduction had been received yielded to a headlong rush of cultivators eager to share the fortune it seemed to promise. Farmers in some districts abandoned every other kind of cultivation and planted cane right up to the walls of their cottages. On the Mary particularly, the settlers threw themselves entirely into the new cultivation. It appeared to them to be exempt from the limitations that bound every other kind of agriculture. The cane was planted in newly cleared land, by making holes in the unbroken surface and laying the "sets" in them to grow. Very little weeding was done, and the cane, left almost to itself, grew luxuriantly and apparently free from any disease. And while the small settlers went on in apparent confidence that the ordinary laws of nature would be suspended in favour of sugar growers, the planters and millowners proceeded in many cases on a not much wiser plan. Money was borrowed for the purchase of expensive plant, on a scale and on terms which no industry however profitable would justify. The money was

expended also with very little knowledge; almost any man who had lived on a plantation in the older sugar-producing colonies obtained ready employment from the Queensland sugar growers, and was entrusted with the direction of work that sometimes involved large expenditure. In reality it was a continuation of the experiment of sugar growing on a large scale and in a costly manner. The relations between millowners, who in all cases had plantations of their own, and the neighbouring farmers who looked to them for the disposal of their cane became also very unsatisfactory. Both parties had rushed into the enterprise with a vague confidence that it would come out right, and it failed to do so. Quarrels and misunderstandings arose between the two and there appeared to be a strong probability of a reaction. And to add to the difficulties of cane growers a new disease made its appearance among the cane. Up to that time one variety, the Bourbon, had mainly been grown. It was a large, rather soft cane, that grew freely and yielded great quantities of juice. But exposed in the southern districts to the rather violent variations of our subtropical climate and cultivated in the rough and ready manner described it succumbed in many places to the attack of a kind of rust which entirely puzzled the cane growers and defied any attempt at cure. The lesson was a sharp one but the industry had become too firmly rooted to be overthrown. A number of speculative men who had overstrained their means in order to embark in it had to succumb, but cane growers found a way out of their difficulties. The practical experience gained during the years in which cane growing had actually been carried on in Q. served to put the industry on a sound footing. There were plenty of men by that time who had learned the business in the actual field, and sugar mill, and on Q. soil. The cultivation of the cane was better understood, and although the introduction of new varieties of it did not actually banish rust from the fields, it at least served to reduce it from an evil of the first magnitude to the rank of one of those minor difficulties which all cultivators have to encounter and overcome. Continual progress was made in the art of manufacturing sugar, till it equalled in appearance and value the best production of Mauritius and the West Indies. The progress of the industry has since been very satisfactory. In 1877 the number of acres actually put under crop was 15,220, and there were 12,243 tons of sugar and 196,662 gallons of rum manufactured. The production, it must be remembered, is confined to the higher grades of sugar, so that the average value of the product is high. In the year mentioned the value of sugar exported was £180,668. Of that amount the value of raw sugar—almost entirely of the highest grades—was £133,297, that of refined sugar £47,371. In 1878, a year of general drought, the export of sugar was valued at £119,018 and of rum £6,208;

in 1879 the value was £275,769 and £10,453. To these values must of course be added the amount consumed in the colony itself. The export of sugar for the years 1878 and 1879 averaged a value of a little over £12,000. In a carefully compiled report on the sugar industry of Q., published by H. Ling Roth, he calculates the average local consumption of sugar and molasses at 92'13 per head of population, which was in 1879 about 220,000 souls. In the same work the crop of 1879 is estimated at about 18,200 tons of sugar, and the probable output for this year 1880 at about 21,000 tons. The sugar industry of the colony is now firmly established. Its main centres are the Pioneer River, of which the port is Mackay, the Mary River with Maryborough as the port, and the rivers emptying into Moreton Bay. Of these the relative importance can be seen by the following division of the 1879 crops, which is given in the work already quoted at 9500 tons for Mackay, 5750 tons for Maryborough and 2200 tons for Brisbane. Sugar is also grown on the Herbert River near Cardwell, and the yield for last year was estimated at about 750 tons. The industry is about to be established on the lower Burnett near Bundaberg. But it is in the far north that the most promising development of sugar cultivation seems likely to take place. A pioneer party are now at work on a splendid piece of country on the Johnstone River near Mourilyan Harbour, north of Cardwell. It is calculated that in this locality there are 300,000 acres of good sugar land watered by several navigable rivers, and near to an excellent harbour. Cane is being grown on a small scale near Cairns, and is found to thrive. But the sugar lands on the Q. coast must amount to many million acres. Even in the established centres of the industry only a fraction of the available soil has yet been broken up for cane. At Mackay where the greatest progress has been made, there are only about 12,000 acres actually cultivated, and it is estimated that there are at least 70,000 acres of good sugar land untouched. Not only is a particular kind of soil needed, but many other additions must be present before a settler can profitably grow sugar cane. No apparatus has yet been brought into actual use which gives satisfactory results on a small scale, and extensive sugar factories can only be erected by settlers having the command of a good deal of capital. Cane also is a bulky crop and cannot be profitably carted any great distance to a mill. Its cultivation therefore was at first confined to the banks of rivers where punts could ply between the mills and the cane fields. The difficulty of carriage is now being overcome by the use of tramways, but they also are expensive works. In short, cane growing has hitherto been an industry which only capitalists have been able to engage with a hope of profit. Even under this restriction it has made and is making great progress. There is however some prospect that by the establishment of central factories and the introduction of a proper system

of co-operation between grower and manufacturer, cane growing will again be widely attempted by small farmers. If this should happen, and there is no valid reason why an arrangement successful in other sugar producing countries should not succeed in Q., a great stimulus will be given to an industry which even now is fast rising in importance and which promises to add enormously to the future wealth of the colony."

SULLIVAN'S COVE, a beautiful inlet near the mouth of the Derwent River in T., and the site on which Hobart is situated. It was discovered by Bass and Flinders in 1798, and was named by Collins in honour of John Sullivan, Under-Secretary for the Colonies. This fine and perfectly land-locked harbour is everywhere deep, even close in shore, where there are four or five fathoms of water, and which according to the Admiralty chart deepens to ten or twelve in the stream. The harbour and also the great inlet by which it is approached, namely Storm Bay, is without rock, shoal, or impediment of any kind whatever to navigation, unless the Iron Pot rock be taken as an exception to this statement; but as this rock lies very close in shore, and is moreover guarded by its own lighthouse, it is rather an advantage than otherwise to the mariner.

SUMMERS, CHARLES (1828—1878) sculptor, was a native of England, and at an early period of his life adopted the profession. He took several prizes at the exhibitions of the Royal Academy in London, including the silver medal for modelling. He came to V. about 1855, and followed his profession in Melbourne till 1866, when he returned to Europe. He executed the design and casting for the bronze statue to commemorate the Burke and Wills expedition, which stands in Collins-street, Melbourne. The work is universally admitted to be one of great originality of design and artistic merit. He also executed the four statues of the Queen, Prince Albert, and the Prince and Princess of Wales, which were presented by W. J. Clarke to the National Gallery in Melbourne, and also a fine bust of Sir Redmond Barry. Summers died in Rome, where he had been settled for many years.

SURVILLE, CAPTAIN DE, French navigator. When Cook's ship, the *Endeavour*, on his first voyage, was working out of Doubtless Bay in the North Island of N.Z. another vessel was sailing in, and neither navigator was aware of the other's vicinity. The new visitor was the *St. Jean Baptiste*, a French vessel, commanded by Captain De Surville. He had been despatched from France on a secret expedition, fitted out at great expense, from which extraordinary results were anticipated. He sailed from Pondicherry on 2nd June 1769. His vessel, of several hundred tons burthen, carried twenty-six twelve-pounders and six smaller guns. After many adventures and making some important discoveries he arrived at N.Z. and cast anchor in Doubtless Bay on 16th December 1769. The

Frenchmen immediately landed at Mangonui where they were received by crowds of natives, who were delighted at the confidence reposed in them; and in return supplied the strangers with food and water. One day a storm arose whilst a party of invalids were endeavouring to reach the ship from the shore; being driven back the sick were detained by the inclemency of the weather for two days in the house of a chief named Naginoui, and by his people were fed and carefully attended. When the storm had subsided one of the ship's boats was missing, and De Surville, without any evidence of their so doing, believed that the New Zealanders had stolen it. Under the guise of friendship, he invited Naginoui on board, accused him of the theft, and put him in irons. Not satisfied with this treacherous revenge, he burned the village where his sick had found an asylum in the hour of need, and carried the chief away a prisoner from his native land. Naginoui did not survive his capture long; he pined for the land and children he would never again behold, and died of a broken heart eighty days after his seizure. All hopes of finding the new El Dorado having now been dispelled, De Surville left N.Z. on 1st January 1770. Death and disease made sad havoc of his crew. The remainder were hardly able, even with the assistance of the officers, to handle the sails. Their only hope was to reach some European settlement to save the survivors. In April they arrived at Callao in Peru. Anxious for an interview with the Spanish governor to solicit the assistance he so much needed, De Surville put off in a boat and was drowned in the surf, eleven days after the death of Naginoui.

SUTHERLAND, JOHN (1816—) is a native of Scotland. He came to Sydney in 1838. In April 1857, on the restoration of the City Council after the period of the Commissioners, he was elected Alderman, and held that office for many years. In 1861 he was chosen Mayor of Sydney. At the general election in November 1860 he became a candidate for the electorate of Paddington, and was returned by that constituency, which he has ever since represented. When Robertson formed his Ministry in October 1868 he offered Sutherland the position of Secretary for Public Works; he accepted the office, remaining in that Government for nearly two years. When Parkes formed his Administration in 1872 he offered the same position to Sutherland, who again became Secretary for Public Works. He was appointed for the third time Minister for the same department in the Farnell Ministry of 1877-8.

SUTHERLAND POINT, a point of land situated on the shores of Botany Bay, N.S.W., was the first spot of land ever cleared in A. It was named after Forby Sutherland, a seaman in Cook's fleet, whose death was the first amongst British subjects that occurred in the Australian waters, and who was buried there.

SUTTON, SIR J. H. MANNERS (1814-1877) Viscount Canterbury, was Governor of V. from August 1866 to March 1873. He had previously held the office of Governor of New Brunswick and of Trinidad in the West Indies. He was appointed to V. on the recall of Darling, and when he arrived in the colony the "Darling dead-lock" was at its most critical stage. The circumstances were therefore unfavourable to the new Governor, and they were not improved through the attempt made by the Sladen Ministry to carry on the Government in the face of a vote of want of confidence carried by the Assembly. The Governor did not disguise the fact that his sympathies were entirely with the Minority Ministry. He gained popularity, however, by his courteous manners and lavish hospitality, when the political troubles passed over. He had the honour of entertaining the Duke of Edinburgh on his first visit to V. in 1867. The administration of Viscount Canterbury—a title to which he succeeded in 1869 on the death of his elder brother—was not marked by any later incident of special importance; and he took his departure from the colony amidst the respect and regret of the population.

SUTTOR, G. The name of G. Sutter is associated with an incident in the history of the colony during the revolt against Bligh, which is thus narrated by Flanagan: "Certain proceedings which show how incompatible with the enjoyment of complete freedom is the condition of a penal settlement occurred about this time. In November 1808, in pursuance of a colonial regulation, a general order was issued announcing that the 'settlers and every other description of persons occupying or cultivating grounds either by grant, lease, rental, or permission, were to attend and be mustered by the Lieutenant-Governor' at the times and places specified in the order. The regulation in compliance with which this order was issued, although in itself sufficiently objectionable in the eyes of free men, had not hitherto been resisted. The people of the colony were already however beginning to outgrow those measures which were originally framed for a community nearly altogether destitute of the elements of civil liberty. The recent revolution in the government too, afforded a pretext for the disobedience of an order already hateful to many on its own account. On the day appointed for the muster a few of the settlers failed to make their appearance at the appointed places, and to send in an account of their stock as prescribed. Among these were Martin Mason, a person who, arriving in the colony as surgeon of a merchant ship, was appointed assistant-surgeon and a magistrate, both which offices he lost through misconduct; G. Suttor, A. M'Dougall, J. Smith, and John Hillus, settlers. Mason, who alleged as his reason for not attending the muster that he had been oppressively dealt with by the Government, was punished by a month's imprisonment; M'Dougall, Smith, and Hillus were similarly disposed of, the

last-mentioned giving as a reason for his non-attendance, that he had taken the oath of allegiance to Governor Bligh. Suttor, who assigned a similar reason, added that it was highly disagreeable to his feelings to comply with the order, and he was sent before the criminal court. On 15th December, Suttor was arraigned on an indictment charging him with having directed to the Lieutenant-Governor, a letter containing certain contumelious expressions, with intent to bring into contempt His Honour's authority. Having been called upon to plead, he replied that 'he denied the legality of the court; his allegiance was due to Governor Bligh, and Governor Bligh alone; and every drop of blood in his veins prevented him from ever acknowledging the legality of that court. They might do with him as they thought proper.' Persisting in his refusal to plead, he was held to be guilty, and was sentenced to six months' imprisonment and to pay a nominal fine. Had these proceedings occurred a few months previously, when Major Johnston was at the head of the Government, the adherence of Suttor and the others to the fallen fortunes of Bligh might have been deemed worthy of admiration, even by those who did not concur in their views. The authority which they resisted, however, was that of the duly-appointed Lieutenant-Governor, and this fact deprives their resistance of the appearance of heroism which otherwise it would possess."

SUTTOR, FRANCIS BATHURST (1839—) is a native of Bathurst, N.S.W., and was educated at the King's School, Parramatta. He was elected Member for Bathurst in 1875, and in 1877 became Minister for Justice and Public Instruction in the Parkes Administration, retiring in the same year with the Ministry. He took the same department in the Parkes Government on the retirement of the Farnell Ministry in December 1878.

SUTTOR, WILLIAM HENRY (1834—) is a native of N.S.W., and eldest son of W. H. Suttor, a settler who distinguished himself by his courageous conduct in the suppression of the revolt of the convicts at Bathurst in September 1830. W. H. Suttor, junior, was elected Member of the Assembly for the district of East Macquarie at the general election in January 1875. The same district had been previously represented for some years by his father, and also by his uncle, J. B. Suttor. He was again elected in 1877, and took office as Minister for Mines on the formation of the Farnell Administration in December 1877, which office he held till the resignation of that Ministry in December 1878. He was appointed in January 1879 a Commissioner of the International Exhibition.

SWAN ISLAND, a narrow strip of land, one and a-half miles long, in Banks Strait, to the north of Cape Portland, in T.

SWAN RIVER, in W.A. on which Perth, the capital stands, was discovered and named by Vlaming in 1697. He found there the black swan

and brought specimens of it with him to Europe. The first settlement on the western coast of the continent was made here in 1829, and the name "Swan River Settlement" was the one by which W.A. was first and for a long time known. The river flows into Melville Harbour. The following description of it is given by the Rev. G. C. Nicolay :—"The first land usually made by vessels on the W. coast of A. is Rottnest (*i.e.*, Rat-nest) island. This is of irregular shape, having its greatest length on the transverse axis, from W. to E., *i.e.*, from Cape Vlaming to Port Phillip, seven and a-half miles in length, and being from Port Parker to North Point two and a-half miles in breadth ; it is ten miles from the coast. The W. point forms a small peninsula ; and on the E. there are lagoons from which salt is extracted by native aboriginal convicts, who are confined on the island. Their prison, the superintendent's house and other buildings have been erected, and a small farm is cultivated by them. There is also on the E. side, on the shore of Thomson's Bay, a marine residence for the Governor of the Colony. A lighthouse stands on a hill 154 feet high, the lantern being 211 feet above the sea and the light visible twenty-one miles. To the S. of the island in a line on the main axis of elevation, two miles from its eastern extremity, a series of rocks and reefs extends for seven miles to Carnac, a rocky islet, and is continued from thence for two miles to Garden Island, which has its greatest length of five and a-half miles to within one mile of John's Point to the N. of Cape Peron, from which the mainland is continuous to the E. and N., thus forming apparently an extensive and sheltered harbour seventeen miles in length from N. to S. The southern portion, Cockburn Sound, is indeed a spacious basin eight miles long by three and a-half wide, having seven fathoms water within less than a cable's length of the E. shore, but it is rendered inaccessible from the N. by Parmelia bank stretching from Woodman's Point to Carnac, which although it affords protection from that quarter has only one and a-half fathoms water on its crest. To the N. of this Owen's Anchorage has four fathoms water close to the shore, but this is again covered to the N. by Success bank, which however has a channel between it and the Stragglers to the W. with three and a-quarter fathoms. The entrances between the reefs into these anchorages from the sea are narrow, tortuous and difficult, which makes them at present inaccessible to large vessels in bad weather. The entrance between Garden Island and John's Point is barred by the S. flats with only about one and a-half fathoms water on the crest. The N. Channel has been recommended by the Admiralty Surveyor as affording entrance to the largest vessels if properly lighted and buoyed and with the removal of one rock. The Challenger passage however he entirely condemns. Owen's Anchorage and Cockburn Sound are however resorted to by vessels drawing sixteen feet when detained during winter months at Fremantle ; the latter, besides its extensive area

of some twenty-eight square miles with from nine to twelve fathoms water, having the snug anchorage of Careening Cove at the S.E. point of Garden Island, three-quarters of a mile in width and with five fathoms close to the N. shore ; and Mangles Bay to the S. one mile and a-half broad, with seven fathoms within less than half a cable's length of the shore. Between Rottnest and the main are Gage's Roads, but the reefs which extend to the N. from Carnac on the line to Rottnest limit their breadth to five miles from thence to the shoal water on the coast ; they are from nine to thirteen fathoms deep and are a safe anchorage for vessels excepting, possibly, in very strong gales from the N., and with the sounds and harbours to the S. naturally appertain to the embouchure of the Swan. The river itself however is only about 400 yards wide at the mouth which was closed all but a very narrow channel to the south under Arthur's Head by a reef until a similar channel was opened under Rous' Head to the north. As these are seldom accessible to vessels drawing more than six feet, and as the rise of the tide does not commonly exceed eighteen inches, the trade of the port at Fremantle has at present to be carried on by means of lighters which either discharge their cargoes from vessels in the roads, at the jetty, or take them up the river to Perth and Guildford. Outward-bound vessels have to be loaded in the same manner. For the first two miles the river is narrow, and for the most part shallow, ledges of rock projecting into it from the shores on which sandbanks have been formed ; but beyond it opens into a series of broad lake-like reaches for some eleven miles to the narrows above Perth, which should perhaps be considered more properly the real mouth of the river. Perth water is nearly landlocked and shallow, but from thence to Rocky Bay there are some eight square miles of water, a large portion of which is deep, carrying a channel of six fathoms, affording access to a coastline of twenty-five miles. The country about these waters has an undulating surface of limestone, the greatest elevations of which do not much exceed 250 feet. It has been for the most part covered with large timber trees, of which however but few remain. Perth Water forms a pretty lake, on the west of which Mount Eliza rises about 180 feet in a steep escarpment ; it is about one mile and a half in length, and a mile in breadth. Perth, the capital of the colony, is built on its north bank. Below Perth Water the Canning, a small river rising in the face of the Darling Range, has its outlet in Melville Water. It is navigable for boats and barges for some twelve miles, and affords means for taking the timber brought down by tramway to Perth or to Fremantle for shipment. Above the islands to the east of Perth Water the river has a tortuous course, forming a succession of broad reaches to the confluence of the Helena, a small stream from the east, above which it bends to the east round the town of Guildford, and thence, ascending the stream northward to Ellen's Brook,

a distance of about twenty miles direct from Perth which drains the base of the range to the north, whence the valley trends north-east to Toodyay, where it is joined by the Avon from the south-east. This is indeed the main river, but had been so named at York before its connection with the Swan was known. The lateral valley of the Avon and its affluent the Dale from the south extend about sixty miles in a direct line, and the main river about fifty miles from Toodyay to Perth. The upper basins of the river present, as is usual in W.A., chains of pools, for the most part formed in rock, connected only in times of flood by water, at others by deposits of sand. Granite is largely developed in the surface of the hills about the Avon valley, which is one of the most fertile, as well as beautiful, parts of the colony. Throughout the whole course of the river the flats on the banks are very rich with springs of fresh water from the drainage of the ground above them; some are still uncultivated, but it is occupied nearly throughout its entire length, the land having been taken up in the early days of the colony. The banks have been throughout well wooded, and are so now in many places."

SWEERS ISLAND, an island in the Gulf of Carpentaria, separated from Bentinck Island by Investigator Roads. It is very woody, and there is a hill about 150 feet high named Mount Inspection. A township named Carnarvon, after the Earl of Carnarvon, Secretary of State for the Colonies, was founded here in 1865, with Landsborough the explorer as superintendent. At one time the population was considerable, but it now consists only of the Custom House officials and their families.

SYDNEY, the capital and seat of Government of N.S.W. and also the parent city of Australia. It is situated on the southern shore of Port Jackson—named after Sir George Jackson, Secretary to the Lords of the Admiralty. The situation of the city is unrivalled in the world for picturesque beauty. Lang rises into poetry when describing it:—"The city of Sydney is beautifully situated on Sydney Cove, one of the numerous and romantic inlets of Port Jackson, about seven miles from the entrance of the harbour. The heads of Port Jackson, or the headlands at the mouth of the harbour, constitute one of the grandest and most interesting features in the natural scenery of the country. To a person approaching the land from the eastward, the coast presents an apparently unbroken line of lofty, precipitous, sand-stone cliffs, along the base of which the big waves of the vast Pacific Ocean dash fearfully when the wind blows strongly from the south-eastward; causing dense volumes of spray and whitish vapour to ascend to the summits of the highest cliffs all along the coast. The entrance is designated, at a considerable distance at sea, by the light house, or Macquarie Tower—a circular building of cut stone surmounted by a lantern with a

revolving light situated on the South Head; but no opening of any kind can be perceived till you come close in with the land. At a small distance from the Heads however an opening is at length perceived in the iron-bound coast; and the idea you naturally form of it is, that the cliffs on either side have been violently rent asunder by some mighty convulsion of nature, to afford a passage for vessels into some place of security. The entrance at the Heads is about a mile and three quarters wide; but the height of the cliffs and the idea of boundlessness which the ocean scenery has previously impressed upon the mind make it appear much narrower. On getting round Middle Head, a point of land stretching out from the northern side of the harbour, and completely concealing the opening from the eye of an observer at a few miles distance at sea, the scene surpasses description. You immediately find yourself on the bosom of a large lake, extending to a great distance in a westerly direction, with innumerable coves or inlets stretching inland to the right and left; some presenting sandy beaches and grassy lawns; others lined with a barrier of grey rocks cast in the most fantastic moulds, and surmounted in all directions with outlandish but most beautiful shrubbery. Many of the best localities on the shores of Port Jackson, between Sydney and the Heads, are in the hands of private proprietors; and the richly and endlessly diversified beauties of nature, which they uniformly exhibit, are in some instances enhanced by the manner in which they appear contrasted with the tasteful habitations of men. Several neat cottages have been erected by the pilots of Sydney, on a sandy beach immediately behind the South Head, called Watson's Bay. On the opposite side of the harbour, an inlet leading to the northward conducts to Spring Cove, which is now the quarantine station, immediately behind the North Head. A little nearer the city is the mansion of Vacluse, and somewhat nearer still is the handsome villa of Point Piper. On Woolloomoolloo Hill, an elevated projection of the land, situated between Woolloomoolloo and Elizabeth Bays, about a mile from Sydney on the south side of the harbour, a series of handsome villas have been erected, chiefly of cut stone, the view of which from the water is highly interesting and enlivening; and on the opposite side of the harbour, or what is called the North Shore, handsome cottages have also been erected, in many commanding situations, besides wharves and stores belonging to merchants in Sydney. The poet Campbell speaks of "The long isles of Sydney Cove;" but there happen to be no isles of any kind in that particular inlet. The only islands in the harbour are Sharks Island, a small island near Point Piper, towards the Heads; Garden Island, a highly picturesque and beautiful wooded island at the entrance of Woolloomoolloo Bay, and Cockatoo Island, a few miles farther up the harbour, to the westward of the city. There was a remarkable rock or islet however which from time immemorial

had occupied a prominent position in the harbour in the approach to Sydney, about two miles from the city, and which formed a striking object in the field of view from all the surrounding heights; consisting as it did of a vast mass of grey weather-beaten sandstone rock rising perpendicularly to a considerable elevation from the deep water. It was known by the name of Pinchgut, from having been the place of temporary banishment for some evil-doer, shortly after the original settlement of the colony, who had been condemned to live on it for a certain number of days on very reduced rations. This natural ornament of the harbour, however, which no art could have equalled, which had stood like a sentinel keeping watch upon the harbour for thousands of years, has at length been destroyed by the folly of man; some official Goth or Hun, who must surely have had the organ of destructiveness largely developed, having persuaded the Government to quarry down the rock nearly to the water's edge, with the view of its being converted into a battery for the protection of the colony. The city, which received its name in honour of Lord Viscount Sydney, who first suggested the idea of establishing a colony in N.S.W., and who was Principal Secretary of State for the Colonies at the time when the territory was taken possession of for Great Britain, was originally confined to the immediate neighbourhood of the cove of the same name, which extends only a short distance inland in a southerly direction from the main harbour. At the entrance of the cove there are two forts on the extremities of the two ridges that form its eastern and western shores—the one called Dawes Battery and the other Fort Macquarie. At the head of the cove these ridges attain a considerable elevation; and on their sloping sides and towering summits, as well as in the valley between, the city of Sydney now extends at least two miles from Dawes Battery to the southward, the ridges gradually subsiding till the ground becomes nearly a dead level. The principal streets run in a northerly and southerly direction, parallel to that of the ridges, and are crossed nearly at right angles by other streets, that terminate in a second and much more extensive cove to the westward, called Cockle Bay or Darling Harbour. In short, there can scarcely be imagined a finer situation for a large mercantile city; and it is deeply to be regretted that so little advantage was taken, in the earlier years of the colony of its admirable locality, and so little attention evinced in laying down a proper plan for its gradual extension. It seems indeed as if the Genius of Incapacity had seated himself in the chair of state in Australia from the very first, and extended his baneful influence to everything under the Australian sun. The last of the British colonies in America planted previous to the American war was that of Georgia, founded by the celebrated General Oglethorpe in the year 1732, that is fifty-six years before the next great colonising effort was made by Great Britain in founding the colony of N.S.W. But while

admirable foresight and a singularly correct judgment were evinced by Oglethorpe in forming plans of the principal cities of his colony, which have been acted on with incalculable benefit to the inhabitants to the present day—broad streets intersecting each other at right angles, with the carriage-way flanked on either side with ornamental and umbrageous trees, and spacious squares disposed at proper intervals all over the city—everything of this kind in the very capital of Australia was left to mere chance and accident; and the result has been that one of the finest sites in the world for a great metropolitan city has in great measure been irrecoverably spoiled, either through the utter want of ordinary foresight on the part of the Imperial Authorities in not sending out the proper officers for such a work, or in the utter unfitness of those to whom it was entrusted. Government House occupies a magnificent situation overlooking the harbour to the eastward of Sydney Cove, and forms a fine object on the left in passing up the harbour to the city. It was erected in 1837 and the following years from the plans of E. Blore, architect, at a cost of £25,000. It was first occupied by Governor Gipps in 1845. To those who are addicted to botanical researches, or to those who like myself merely delight to contemplate the wonderful works of God without being very inquisitive about the genus and species of each, the Botanic Garden and the romantic walks of the Government Domain in the immediate neighbourhood of Sydney cannot fail to afford a never-failing source of far higher gratification. To wander alone on serpentine walks traced with the utmost taste along the margin of beautifully romantic bays, and through woodland scenes untraversed so lately save by the naked savage and the solitary kangaroo; to behold innumerable shrubs of innumerable species, each of which would grace the choicest spots in the garden of a European prince, growing wildly and luxuriantly, and shedding their beautiful flowers unregarded; to sit on the summit of a grey rock overhanging the silent waters of Port Jackson, while the glorious sun descends behind the distant mountains to the westward and pours forth a deluge of light on rock and wood and water;—in such scenes, when the poet asks, "O Solitude, where are thy charms?" one is almost tempted to reply, "Here! here!" The principal walks in the Government Domain were planned by Mrs. Macquarie, and formed under her immediate superintendence. Various others have been added since, and the gardens generally greatly improved. The South Head Road runs along what the colonists would call "the dividing range" between Botany Bay and Port Jackson; and the series of views, which it successively presents, is as interesting and diversified as can well be imagined. On reaching the highest land on the line, the vast Pacific—the broad highway to England—stretches far and wide in front; while the roar of its breakers, as they dash incessantly on the shores of

Bundy Bay, a small inlet to the southward of the Heads, is heard almost under foot. To the right, the noble inlet of Botany Bay, with its white sandy beach and its dark-looking heads—standing erect like two negro sentinels—is seen at a moderate distance, athwart a series of swamps and sand-hills, the picture of absolute sterility. To the left, the harbour of Port Jackson, with its hundred arms, appears like a series of highland lakes, changing their aspect, and assuming more and more interesting forms at every step; while the North Head, now seen towering in solitary grandeur, seems like the ruins of some vast fortress built in the ages of fable, to guard the entrance of the harbour. In the rear, the city of Sydney, covered no longer as of yore, with a thin transparent cloud of whitish smoke, curling slowly upwards from its numerous wood fires, but with a regular blackish cloud from the smoke of Newcastle coal, like that which overshadows most English towns, occupies a considerable portion of the field of vision; while the Blue Mountains in the distance stretch along the western horizon, and terminate the view. The light-house on the South Head is about seven miles from Sydney; but the usual termination of the afternoon's drive is on the summit of a hill called Belle Vue, about four miles from the town, the carriages generally making a circular sweep on the top of the hill, and returning to town in nearly the same order as they left it. A ride or drive across the sand-hills and barren swamps intervening between Sydney and Botany Bay, is a favourite pleasure excursion for the inhabitants of the colonial capital. The country around the bay is flat and uninteresting; and the bay is generally shallow for a great distance from the shore." There are some features of the city of Sydney which bear a striking resemblance to an English town. Some of the streets are narrow, tortuous, and without any pretensions to modern architecture. The houses have what is best described by the term "an old-fashioned look," although of late years much of this has been done away with and the older portions of the town pulled down to make way for more modern structures. Some of the business premises recently erected in Pitt-street, in George-street, in Bridge-street, in York-street and Wynyard-square are capacious, elegant, and rank in a high order of architectural merit. The principal streets are laid out to the cardinal points of the compass and intersect each other at right angles. They are designated George, Pitt, Market, King and Hunter, the leading one being the first-named, which starts from the water's edge Dawes Point and runs completely through the city into the country, being called George-street West, when it passes beyond the railway station. The length of streetage in all is about 130 miles, and the number of houses 19,000. The greatest length of the city is $3\frac{3}{4}$ miles north and south, and breadth $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles east and west, the total area being about 2000 acres. The modern public buildings of Sydney as well as the warehouses,

banks, and churches, are for the most part elegantly designed and substantially erected edifices. The city and suburbs abound in sand-stone, which is easily quarried, capable of being worked into the most ornate designs at little expense, hardens on exposure to the weather and is of a substantial nature. The Sydney University which is built of this stone in the Gothic style of the 15th century, is an elegant building. The great hall is described by Anthony Trollope in the following words: "I think no one will dispute the assertion when I say that the college hall is the finest chamber in the colonies; If I were to say that no college, either at Oxford or Cambridge, possesses so fine a one, I might perhaps be contradicted. I certainly remember none of which the proportions are so good." Its dimensions are 135 feet long, 45 feet wide, and 73 feet high. The building is on a gentle acclivity, and commands a magnificent view; it has a frontage of nearly 400 feet. The two affiliated colleges, St. Paul's and St. John's (R.C.) are of the Gothic of the 14th century, and the whole of the University buildings are surrounded by a large park to which the public have access. St. Andrew's Cathedral, the foundation of which was first laid in July 1819 has been pulled down and re-erected thrice; now it is a very handsome building with two towers, and also belongs to the Gothic of the 14th century. It is provided with a fine organ. The Jewish Synagogue, which was completed in 1878, belonging to the Byzantine Order of Architecture, is also an elegant edifice. The new buildings for Government offices—the Colonial Secretary's and Public Works forming one lofty massive building facing Macquarie and Bridge-streets, and the Crown Lands Offices fronting Bridge-street—are specimens of the skill of the architect which are rarely surpassed for elegance and comprehensiveness of construction. Then there are St. Mary's Cathedral (R.C.) which, after being twice burned, is now in process of re-erection on grander proportions than ever, its projected dimensions being 350 feet long, width within transepts 118 feet, width of nave and aisles 74 feet, height about 90 feet; a central tower will be 120 feet high, and two towers with spires at the southern end will rise to an altitude of 260 feet. Other places of worship are:—St. Patrick's (R.C.), St. George's, St. John's, St. Philip's, one of the oldest in Sydney, though the present structure is not altogether the original building, and St. James's, the old Cathedral Church opened in January 1822. Besides these there are about 120 other ecclesiastical buildings, some of which would not suffer much by comparison with the edifices of older countries. Government House, which belongs to the Tudor style, is delightfully situated and overlooks Farm Cove or Man-of-War Bay. The building is surrounded by the domain and botanical garden and is a delightful place for a vice-regal residence. It is overtopped by "The Garden Palace," where the first International Exhibition of Australia was inaugurated

on 17th September 1879. This immense building commands from its dome and its balconies a view of the grand scenery which meets the eye at every point in and around the metropolis of N.S.W. The Exhibition was open a little over six months, during which time it was visited by 1,045,898 persons, the receipts amounting to £45,000. The largest attendance on one day was on 26th January 1880 (Separation Day) when 27,500 visitors thronged its courts. To the Exhibition of 1851 in Hyde Park the number of visitors was 6,170,000; so the percentage of visitors to population was very much larger, being about 150 to 22½. The Banks also are imposing buildings and may be said to belong to the Florentine, Roman, Italian and Greek orders of architecture; they comprise—the N. S. Wales, Commercial, Australian Joint-Stock, City, English and Scottish, Australasian, the London Chartered, the Oriental and the Mercantile Banks. In addition to these the Bank of New Zealand has very creditable premises, and the Queensland National Bank has premises in Pitt-street. All these, as well as the Savings Bank, would reflect credit on many of the towns in the mother country. The Exchange buildings are also admired for their beauty and substance of construction. They belong to the Roman Corinthian order. Among other commercial buildings which attract the attention of visitors are the offices of the Australian Mutual Provident Society, the *Sydney Morning Herald* office, which is replete with all the appliances of the best London offices, the paper being printed on a Walter machine, similar to that in use in the London *Times* office. The *Sydney Mail*, published and printed in the same building, is a weekly illustrated journal of a superior character. The structure where the *Town and Country Journal* and the *Evening News* are issued is a roomy one, with elegant front. The *Town and Country Journal* office is fitted with one of the Victory printing and folding machines, the only one in N.S.W., which folds as it prints. This machine is capable of printing and folding 20,000 four-page copies per hour, or 10,000 eight-pages, and was introduced by the late Samuel Bennett to meet the growing circulation of the *Town and Country Journal*. Another Victory has been added for the *Evening News*. The buildings of the *Sydney Daily Telegraph* at the corner of Barrack and York Streets are also substantial and well-designed. There are also magnificent warehouses occupied by importers and manufacturers. The Post-office is of the Venetian and Florentine Italian order; it is an imposing edifice, colonnaded on two sides, and described as well adapted for its purpose. It is built of Pyrmont stone, the colonnade being formed of pillars of polished grey granite. It was opened in September 1874. The Town Hall is of great size, with a tower 200 feet high, and an architectural ornament to the city; a hall to be used for public entertainments forms part of the design, 132 feet long by 62 feet wide, and 66 feet high. The museum on the eastern side

of the city overlooking Hyde Park is a fine structure, with a bold Grecian front, and is extensively patronised, some 100,000 persons visiting it annually. The Treasury is a very good building, of the usual freestone; the Colonial Secretary's office on the opposite side of the street is one of the most elegant in Australia. In the same street is the Crown Lands Office, an elegant addition to the other architectural structures of the city. Then there is the Exhibition building—in the Paxtonian style—which has been found admirably adapted for local exhibitions—Prince Alfred Hospital, the new Guildhall in Castlereagh-street, the Protestant Hall, the Parliament Houses, Custom House, the Mint, and others which though not of elegant design remind one of the days when George III. was King and Colonel Macquarie Governor. Turning to the private residences, many of them have been erected at enormous expense and are surrounded with pleasure grounds and gardens, which with the natural beauty of the scenery lends them a charm denied to those of other places. The public traffic of the city and suburbs is carried on by hansom cabs, omnibuses and hackney carriages. American omnibuses afford communication with the extremities of the city and the suburbs, and the water communication between the city and its transmarine suburbs, Balmain, North Shore, and other localities is maintained by numerous steam ferryboats which ply at frequent intervals during the day till midnight. Street cars convey parcels and passengers from the Redfern railway terminus to the heart of the city in King-street. The streets are lighted with gas at a cost of upwards of £7154 per annum to the corporation. Sydney has spacious markets in its main thoroughfare, Elizabeth-street and George-street; and they are usually well-stocked with fruits and vegetables of every kind. There are three theatres—the Royal, the Queen's and the Opera House. Notwithstanding the distance from the great centre of high civilisation, Sydney is not only well supported with theatrical stars of all kinds but with English and Italian opera singers. Besides the theatres, the Guild Hall, the Masonic Hall, Protestant Hall, and the Temperance Hall are used as places of public entertainment. Although Sydney has few reserves answering to the shrubberied squares of most of the large towns of Great Britain, it has excellent park lands and gardens within its boundaries, easily accessible to the citizens. Hyde Park is a beautiful plateau of forty acres, nearly in the centre of the city, with a statue to "Albert the Good" and another one to Captain Cook. The Domain, a charming expanse of park land of 138 acres, is on the north-eastern side of Sydney, surrounding the pretty inlet called Farm Cove. Near the main entrance is an excellent bronze statue of Sir Richard Bourke, by Westmacott. The Botanical Gardens embrace thirty-eight acres, and are considered as among the finest in the colonies; as in addition to the immense collection of exotics from every clime,

the locality is one of great beauty, the grounds encircling the waters of Farm Cove, where the men-of-war belonging to the Australian station are anchored. Here in the Inner Domain, adjoining the Botanical Garden, is situated "The Garden Palace" which was used for the International Exhibition, as already observed. More recently-formed preserves are Prince Alfred Park, eighteen acres, and Belmore Park in the south, ten acres, and a tract of 600 acres on the south-east side named Moore Park. Adjoining the latter ground is the Metropolitan racecourse (Randwick,) which has an area of about 202 acres. The course is about one and a quarter mile in circumference and is considered the best running ground in the southern hemisphere. In addition to the above reserves there are others of a less extensive area in different parts of the suburbs. The Circular Quay at the head of Sydney Cove has a length of 1300 feet available for the largest vessels. The Government are expending a large sum of money in extending the wharfage accommodation, which will add much to the convenience of shipping and improve the appearance of the quay. The Australasian Steam Navigation Company have expended large sums of money in making offices, wharves, and warehouses on Circular Quay, and a part of the shipping business of this extensive association is now carried on there as also that of the P. and O. The vessels of the Orient Line discharge at Circular Quay, and the mail steamers of the P. and O. Company berth at the wharf. Woolloomooloo Wharf to the east is 1200 feet long and was constructed at a cost of £26,000, a large tract of valuable land being reclaimed, the water is however too shallow and unsuited for large sea-going shipping. The eastern side of Darling Harbour which skirts the western side of the city has its frontage entirely occupied with wharves and quays. Here several steam companies have their stations, and the gas company its large works. On the north from Miller's Point to Dawes Point (which includes all one end of the city) and thence round the largest headland of the port, the waterside is also fully taken up by commercial premises with the exception of the site at Dawes Point on which there is a battery. The floating dock offers facility for vessels not exceeding 160 feet in length and from 500 to 600 tons burden. The Fitzroy Dry Dock at Cockatoo Island, some few miles to the west of the city, is a Government establishment and was originally intended for the repair and overhauling of vessels of the Royal Navy. Vessels of the largest capacity can be taken in without difficulty, its dimensions being—length 450 feet, width 60 feet, depth of water over sill 21 feet. The establishment is provided with the largest, most powerful, and recently improved kinds of machinery. Other dock works are those of Mort and Co., at Waterview Bay. The dock is 409 feet long, with an entrance 68 feet wide, and a depth of water over the sill of 19 feet 6 inches. It is fitted with

patent keel blocks. It is partly cut out of the rock, and partly built up compactly with stone masonry. This dock has taken in vessels of the largest size visiting the port, including the *Chimborazo*. The workshops cover a large area, with a bay frontage of 1500 feet, employing when in full work 700 hands. A substantial patent slip is also here available for vessels of 1000 tons. The Australian Steam Navigation Company have very extensive works, with most of the modern appliances for shipbuilding and repairing, on the western shore of Darling harbour. The slip attached to the works can be used for vessels of 1500 tons burthen, and can take up two steamers at the same time. There have been constructed at these works several steam vessels. The large fleet of the company gives constant employment to the establishment, it being kept in efficient order and thorough repair. For some time past steps have been taken to place the city in a state of defence, and batteries carrying Armstrong guns of large calibre now protect it in a great measure from attacks from a hostile fleet. These defences have been still further augmented under Colonel Scratchley's designs, which were adopted by the Government. The conformation of the shores affords the best facilities for the erection of fortifications, and seawards there is nothing to prevent the city being made practically impregnable. A military road now connects all the forts on the northern side of the harbour. Even now it would be a difficult matter for any ship to run the gauntlet of the numerous guns that could be brought to bear upon it even before entering the Heads. A torpedo corps has been established, and an electric light apparatus placed at the South Heads, which will throw a light a radius of fifteen miles. The trade of Sydney is considerable, and gives employment to a large fleet of steamers. It is the headquarters of the Australian Steam Navigation Company, the Pacific mail steamers, the E. and A. steamers, the P. and O. steamers, the vessels of the Orient line, and others; besides there are always four or five men-of-war anchored in the harbour. During the year 1879 the number of British and foreign vessels which entered Port Jackson was 1288—614 sailing and 674 steam. The aggregate tonnage was 759,980 tons. The population of the city proper is estimated at 110,603; of the suburbs 90,226. The water supply of the city is obtained from the Botany and Lachlan swamps; but arrangements are being made for a more effective and superior supply of water. The number of houses in the city and suburbs was estimated in August 1879 as 28,000. In 1879 the annual value of rateable property was £1,037,000 at 2s. in the pound; revenue, £108,237 15s. 5d.; estimated extent of roads and streets, 100 miles; number of ratepayers, 18,062. The public vehicles are under the control of a body called the Metropolitan Transit Company. The charitable institutions of the capital are numerous, and are partly supported at the expense of Government, aided by private benevolence.

Some of the leading institutions are the Infirmary in Macquarie-street, the Prince Alfred Memorial Hospital, the Good Samaritan Institution, Sydney Female Refuge, the Shaftesbury Reformatory, the St. Vincent Hospital, the Benevolent Asylum, and the Children's Asylum at Randwick. The suburbs of Sydney comprise Balmain, on the opposite side of Darling Harbour; the Glebe, adjoining the city, on the south-west; Newtown, Warrickville, Redfern, Waterloo, all to the south; Paddington, on the east; Concord on the south-west; St. George and St. Leonard's on the north shore of the harbour. Each of these is an independent municipality, and there are other places within a radius of ten miles, and usually considered as suburban to the metropolis. Sydney is the seat of an Anglican Bishop and a Roman Catholic Archbishop, both metropolitans. The city is under municipal government, being divided into eight wards, named respectively Bourke, Brisbane, Cook, Denison, Fitzroy, Gipps, Macquarie, and Phillip, some of which return two aldermen and others three, and for Parliamentary purposes is divided into three districts, viz., East, West, and South Sydney, each returning four members. It has a fine School of Arts in Pitt-street, with a library of about 30,000 volumes. A commodious hall is attached which is a popular place for holding entertainments. A Technological College with laboratory is now connected with the institution. The Public Library in Bent-street is largely patronised, and now open on Sundays. To this library is now attached a lending branch. Numerous factories are in full work. There are thirty-two clothing factories, employing from 50 to 400 hands each. There are two large steam joinery establishments, the larger of which has 250 men and boys in their employ. The coach factories are also extensive, and splendid cloths are turned out at Vicar's Tweed Mill. There are also several large foundries and engineering works in which large castings and every description of mechanical appliances are turned out, even up to locomotive engines for the government railways. The geological formation of Sydney is sandstone, overlying part of an immense carboniferous deposit extending from beyond Newcastle to Jervis Bay. Borings for coal have been made and great depth reached, but no practical results have followed as yet.

HISTORY.—The early history of Sydney is in fact that of the settlement at Port Jackson, which forms the first chapter in the history of N.S.W. The growth of the city was the growth of the colony until the discovery of the passage across the Blue Mountains. The ceremony of taking possession of the colony was performed by Governor Phillip on 26th January 1788. The 7th February was the day set apart for the proclamation of the King's warrant for establishing a regular form of government in the new settlement, which was made with all due ceremony by the Governor. On a space previously cleared the

whole population were assembled, the military drawn up under arms, the prisoners stationed apart, and around the Governor those who were appointed to hold the principal offices in the new British settlement. The Royal Commission establishing a regular form of government on the coast of N.S.W. was read by David Collins, the Judge Advocate. By this instrument Arthur Phillip was constituted Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief over the territory called New South Wales (thus named by Captain Cook,) including all the islands adjacent thereto. The office of Lieutenant-Governor was conferred on Major Ross of the Marines. The Act of Parliament establishing the Courts of Judicature was also read, and lastly the patents under the Great Seal. This was the foundation of the city of Sydney. By the end of June some progress had been made towards the formation of a town. Lines were traced out which distinguished the principal street terminated by the Governor's house and the Criminal Court. Other streets were marked out as the sites for houses as the town came to be enlarged. A temporary barrack had been erected. The huts were composed some of the soft wood of the cabbage palm, others of upright posts wattled with twigs and plastered with clay. The want of lime, for the making of which no suitable material could be discovered, prevented the erection of stone houses. One of the most substantial buildings was the hospital, erected at the west side of the town. A small observatory was set up by Lieutenant Dawes on the point of land forming the western boundary of Sydney Cove, for the purpose of observing the movements of an expected comet. A farm of about nine acres was cleared in the vicinity of the Cove, next to the town in an easterly direction—the spot now partially occupied by the Botanical Gardens—and was sown with corn of various kinds. While the buildings were proceeding (in March) an emu, seven feet four inches in height, was shot in the streets. A proposal was made on the 4th June, the anniversary of King George the Third's birthday, to change the name of the city to Albion, but was not adopted. Rushcutter's Bay was named by persons frequenting it to cut rushes for stable use instead of straw. Two men so employed were speared by the natives at the spot, in May. The inhabitants of the rising city suffered great privations from want of provisions for the first two years, their whole stock of horned cattle, four cows and two bulls, having escaped into the bush. A farm was established at Parramatta, and named Rose Hill. In December the keel of the first vessel built in the colony was laid. She was designed for conveying provisions to Parramatta, and was called the *Rose Hill* Packet. A prisoner, James Daley, at this time asserted that he had found gold on the land between the settlement and the bay, and was severely punished for deceit. The month of July in the following year (1789) was made remarkable by the discovery of the Hawkesbury. The joy with which this discovery

was hailed soon disappeared before the anxiety consequent on a succession of misfortunes. Sickness prostrated as many as 500 persons at one time. In July 1790 the Governor laid down the lines of a regular town. The principal street extended one mile from the landing place, and ran in a westerly direction. Its width was 200 feet, and on either side huts were to be erected capable of containing ten persons each. The dwellings were to be at the distance of sixty feet from each other, and garden ground for each was allotted at the rear. The month of February 1791 was marked by excessive heat and hot winds; the thermometer usually standing at 105°. Immense numbers of birds, flying foxes, and other animals, were killed by the heat in the surrounding district. In November of the same year the work of hewing out the tanks for water-supply was commenced. In February 1792 eight men of the corps of Royal Marines received grants of land in the neighbourhood of the town, and established themselves as settlers. During the first half of this year scarcity of provisions amounting to famine prevailed, only partially relieved from time to time by the arrival of transports with supplies. This year the first free immigrant, a German named Schäffer, obtained a grant of land. He had come out to cultivate tobacco. His grant of fifty acres in the town of Sydney was surrendered for twenty gallons of rum in 1807. Had he retained it for a few years he could have sold it for at least £100,000. In 1793 3470 acres of land had been transferred to settlers, and 1012 acres were under cultivation for the Government. Transports arrived with free citizens, agriculturists, farm implements and seed. An American vessel, sent down from Rhode Island by her speculative owners with miscellaneous cargo, opened the first trade with a foreign nation. In August the first church was built. It was made of wattle and daub, and cost £40. The erection of this building was due to Mr. Johnson, the Church of England chaplain to the First Fleet. This gentleman was the first to introduce the orange tree at Kissing Point. When on 11th December 1792 Phillip took leave of the city which he had founded, he had the satisfaction to leave behind him a prosperous people and an honoured name. In March 1793 two Spanish vessels, the *Descovierta* and *Atrevida*, arrived in Port Jackson from Manilla. Their object was to take scientific observations. They calculated the longitude of Sydney as being 151° 18' 18" E. from Greenwich, and the latitude 33° 51' 28" S. An extraordinary phenomenon was about this time observed in the heavens near Sydney. At dusk, in the N.W., there was visible a brilliant meteor, having the appearance of a ray of forked lightning, which continued visible for about a quarter of an hour. In 1795 Governor Hunter ordered a general numbering of the population of Sydney, Parramatta and the Hawkesbury. In November the first printing press was set up, and George Howe printed the "Acts and Orders" of the Governor. In December

1795 the first civil action was tried in Sydney. It arose out of the shooting of a hog belonging to Mr. Boston by a soldier, for trespassing. On Boston remonstrating the soldier struck him with a loaded musket. Damages of £500 were claimed by Boston, and the Court awarded him forty shillings. The decision was sustained on appeal to the Governor. On 16th January 1796 the first dramatic performance took place under Sparrow's management. The play was *The Revenge*, and the cast included six male and female performers. In February a military riot occurred, when the cottage of one Bangham, a carpenter, was burnt down by the soldiery. Amongst the deaths of this year were those of Henry Brewer, Provost-Marshal of the settlement, and Richard Hodson, an officer of the N.S.W. corps. The first licenses to sell spirits were issued by the Governor, the period included in them being twelve months. In May, D'Arcy Wentworth was appointed assistant-surgeon to the settlement. Two American vessels, one from Rhode Island and one from Boston brought down provisions and merchandise, which were eagerly purchased. Police arrangements were perfected, and a log prison was erected. The next year saw the first windmill, and a strong bridge was built over the Duck River. Thomas Smith was appointed Provost-Marshal, and Thomas Moore Master Boat-builder. A log prison was erected this year "to the great annoyance of the worthless." At the close of 1797 there were 300 native-born children in Sydney, one-half of whom were attending school. In May 1798 four families of free settlers arrived, and were lodged on ground in the vicinity of the town at the expense of the Government. Towards the end of the year the church was burned to the ground by the act of an incendiary. The first emancipist, Stephenson, a man of good character, died. The half-moon battery at the eastern point of the Cove was completed in December and mounted with guns brought out by the First Fleet. Early in 1799 the wooden gaol was burned down, and a stone building to supply its place was commenced. The intelligence of Nelson's victory at the Nile was brought by a vessel from the Cape of Good Hope, and the fact was proclaimed amidst public rejoicings. Two Spanish ships captured by whalers off the coast of Peru were brought into the harbour, and were declared by the Court of Vice-Admiralty to be a war-prize. Great storms of rain occurred in Sydney in June, causing much damage, and putting back the progress of the town by at least twelve months. Great distress occurred in consequence for some months. In August the erection of a second battery for the defence of the harbour was completed, and a third battery was erected on Garden Island. At the beginning of 1800 an import duty was imposed on spirits, wine, and beer; the revenue derived from this source being applied to the building of the gaol. Rumours of meditated revolt amongst the Irish prisoners led to the formation of the Sydney and Parramatta Loyal

Associated Corps, each of fifty volunteers. Intelligence of the union between Great Britain and Ireland was received in June 1801, and the event was celebrated by the hoisting of the new union flag at Sydney, and the remission of the sentences of some of the political prisoners. At this time the circulating currency was of a very miscellaneous kind, embracing guineas, gold johannes, ducats, mohurs, pagodas, dollars, rupees, Dutch guilders, English shillings, and copper ounces. On Saturday, 5th March 1803, the first number of the *Sydney Gazette*, the official organ, was issued. It consisted of four small pages printed on inferior paper in type very much defaced. In March 1806 a flood in the Hawkesbury caused great distress through the destruction of the farmers' produce, and a committee was formed in Sydney to supervise the consumption of bread. Food rose to famine prices, flour being half-a-crown a pound, and the two-pound loaf was five shillings. The intelligence of Nelson's great victory at Trafalgar was received with great rejoicing. In August Bligh arrived, and the troubles which marked his entire period of rule began. The details do not require to be repeated here. The troubles ended on the day the colony had completed the twentieth year of its existence (26th January 1808.) In May 1809 another flood on the Hawkesbury threatened the Sydney people with another famine. In August Archdeacon Cowper arrived, with the appointment of assistant chaplain—the fourth clergyman who had come to the colony. In December Governor Macquarie arrived. He was an enthusiast for improvement. The town of Sydney first occupied his attention. Its disorganised and irregular condition he saw to be utterly inconsistent with a well-ordered and permanent state of society. He divided the town into five districts, and in each erected a watch-house, where a police guard was stationed. He named the several streets and established regulations for preserving regularity in the erection of houses, and drew up rules for the regulation of the markets. The ordinances of religious attention to Divine worship and a due observance of the Sabbath next attracted his attention. Previous to this time it would seem that but little difference was made between the Sabbath and other days of the week; for besides prohibiting manual labour on the seventh day he issued an order that on Sundays public houses should be closed from ten in the morning till half-past twelve o'clock in the day. That no class of the community might have an excuse for neglecting the offices of religion he at once enlarged the church and otherwise increased the accommodation for those who attended Divine worship. He ordered that every Sunday at a fixed hour all the convicts in the Government service should be mustered in the market place in their best apparel, and thence marched to church, attended by the principal superintendent; and the more effectually to enforce this regulation he inspected in person the men so assembled. The

administration of justice was not forgotten. A court of civil judicature, to be held during the first month of each quarter of the year was established; and two magistrates, the Judge-Advocate and another, were constituted a court for the recovery of small debts. In November 1811 the first horse-races held in the colony took place at Sydney, the sports continuing three days. In October 1812 the foundation of the General Hospital was laid. The general aspect of the city at this period is thus sketched by a vigorous writer:—"A thriving town had grown up on the shores of Port Jackson. The Governor's house was of stone. The judge and a few Government officers had houses of brick, but the main portion of the inhabitants were content with plastered logs and shingled roofs. Yet the people of Sydney felt no small pride in their town. They would have liked a little more land for their few sheep and cows. But the flocks on which they relied roamed through far different pastures. When the season came round they sailed away down the Great Southern Ocean, and came back laden with black oil and sperm. Their harbour was the finest in the world, sending its arms in among their cottages and town gardens, and capable of containing the whole British navy; their long huts were bathed in everlasting sunshine; and business was good. From the sparkling waters of the bay to the Blue Mountains behind, all was bustle and activity. Whalers from Europe and America refitting, immigrants landing, new houses building, and vineyards and orange-groves creeping round the bay. Such as it was, it comprehended all the English in A. Through those Blue Mountains no man could find a way to the boundless regions which lay beyond. Rewards were offered for the discovery of a mere sheep track. The more adventurous citizens risked life and limb—not always without fatal results—in clambering up and down their craggy sides, and peeping into their black fissures. Three gentlemen, Lieutenant Lawson of the 104th Regiment, with Messrs. Blaxland and Wentworth, led an expedition into the mountains, which was very successful, for at length the long-sought pass was discovered. In 1813 Mr. Evans, a Government surveyor, also found himself, after repeated attempts, on the other side of the Blue Mountains, and with care and great labour retraced his steps to Sydney. Immediately the pent-up flocks and herds of the colonists poured themselves out over Bathurst Plains and the western districts of N.S.W.; and the people of Sydney began to desert their town gardens for sheep-feeding and wool-growing." In July 1816 the foundation of the South Head lighthouse was laid. In December a meeting was held to establish the Bank of N.S.W. The next three years were uneventful for the inhabitants of the rising city. In 1819 an orphan school for male children was opened in Sydney; Hyde Park Barracks was completed; the foundations of the Supreme Court buildings were laid,

and the N.S.W. Savings Bank was instituted. Early in 1820 the foundation of the Georgian Public School was laid; and a meeting was held to devise measures for the erection of a Roman Catholic Church. At the criminal sessions, held in March 1821, twenty-five men were sentenced to death. In November the foundation-stone of St. Mary's (R.C.) Cathedral—the first church of that denomination in Australia—was laid by the Governor. On 1st December, at a grand review in Hyde Park, Governor Macquarie read his farewell address to the colonists, and announced the appointment of Sir Thomas Brisbane as his successor. The Sydney Philosophical Society was instituted this year. The Riley Estate, containing 100 acres now included within the city, was purchased in May 1822 by Mrs. Ann Riley for £2200. The Agricultural Society and Sydney Institution were founded the same year. In 1826 the first Scotch Church was opened; and the Chamber of Commerce was founded. In this year the mania of joint-stock companies occurred in England, and its effects were felt in the colony in an eager desire to enter into speculations in stock. "The soldier unbuckled his belt to become a keeper of sheep, and the priest forsook his altar to become a herdsman of cattle." A drought of three years ensued, a financial crash followed, and the value of cattle fell from pounds to shillings. In September the aqueduct for supplying Sydney with water from the Botany swamp was commenced. In 1830 the Sydney College was founded, superseding the Sydney Free Grammar School. The new institution was established by a company with a capital of £10,000. The foundation of the College buildings was laid in Hyde Park by Chief Justice Forbes on 26th January. The arrival of Governor Bourke was celebrated with much rejoicing and a general illumination of the town on 2nd December 1831. The first steam vessel set afloat in Port Jackson—the *Sophia Jane* of 256 tons—arrived from England this year, brought out by Lieutenant Biddulph of the Royal Navy, one of her owners. The steamer plied between Sydney and Newcastle. The Government Domain was for the first time thrown open to the public the same year. In 1832 the Australian College was opened. In 1833 the Mechanics School of Arts was formed; the Australian Steam Navigation Board was appointed; and the Port of Sydney was declared a free port by order of the Lords Commissioners of the Admiralty; under this privilege vessels of foreign nations were allowed to land and warehouse cargoes for exportation. In 1834 the estate of Woolloomooloo, the property of Sir James Dowling, was laid out in streets. Victoria-street was so named after Queen Victoria, Brougham-street after Lord Brougham, Dowling-street after himself, and Forbes-street after Sir Francis Forbes. Some land sold in Sydney at the rate of £10,000 per acre. The Proprietary Sydney College was opened under the superintendence of W. T. Cape in 1835. On 13th April 1836 the

Sydney Gas Light Company was established; and the same year the Australian Museum. A great fall of snow occurred near Sydney, known as "Snowy Monday," on 28th June 1837. The aqueduct from Botany to Sydney, which was commenced in 1827, was completed in 1837. The length of the tunnel was 12,000 feet, its average depth five, and its width four feet. The total cost of the aqueduct was £22,000. The work was done entirely by prison labour, which was estimated to be two-thirds less than free labour. The Victoria Theatre was opened on 17th March 1838. The same year the Sydney Botanic Gardens were thrown open to the public. The first show of the Floral and Horticultural Society took place on 19th September; and the foundation stone of Christ Church was laid 1st January 1840. The foundation stone of Trinity Church was laid on 23rd June. Gas was first used for lighting the shops, and the Company gave a brilliant illumination on Church Hill on the occasion, 24th May 1841. The city was lighted with gas for the first time on 26th January 1842. The 11th April of that year was observed as a public holiday, to celebrate the unveiling of the statue to Sir Richard Bourke. The same year the bill for incorporating Sydney passed the Legislature. In November the first municipal elections took place. The first aldermen chosen were:—Robert Owen, John Hosking, George Allen, Thomas Broughton, Francis Mitchell, and J. R. Wilshire. Hosking was elected mayor. On 24th May 1843 Government House was first occupied and specially fitted up for the celebration of Her Majesty's birthday. Great distress prevailed in Sydney amongst the working classes for want of employment this year. £1000 was voted by the Council for the purpose of sending a portion of the unemployed into the interior. The first peal of bells heard in Australia ushered in the new year from the tower of St. Mary's (R.C. Cathedral) on 1st January 1844. The foundation stone of the first Bethel Chapel was laid on 24th April. The first meeting of the subscribers to the Sydney Dispensary after its extension as an infirmary, when Drs. Macfarlane and Fullerton were elected the first physicians, and Nathan and McCrae the first surgeons of that institution, was held on 26th March 1845. The first anti-transportation meeting was held in Sydney on 22nd October 1846, Charles Cowper presiding. Towards the latter part of 1848 the first ship load of Chinese immigrants arrived. A great anti-transportation demonstration took place at the Victoria Theatre in March 1849, the Mayor presiding. Amongst the speakers were Robert Lowe, Charles Cowper, and Dean McEncroe. In June the ship *Harkaway* arrived with 212 male prisoners on board—and another grand demonstration took place. A deputation was appointed to wait on Governor Fitzroy to remonstrate, and were received with haughty coldness and premeditated incivility. In 1849 a select committee of the Legislative Council was appointed to inquire into the working

of the corporation of Sydney, the efficiency of which had long been doubted, while its proceedings were conducted on the part of the councilmen in such a manner as to excite the contempt of the citizens. Those who were still favourable to the corporation attributed its unsuccessful working, 1st, to the cumbersome machinery by which it had been surrounded, including the numbers of its members, which was said to be too large; 2nd, the absence of legitimate endowments. The committee reported "that whatever might be the defects of the machinery, and how inadequate soever the means of the corporation, these were but secondary and minor defects, compared with the gross and palpable misconduct of the corporation itself, which had neither used ordinary care in collecting, ordinary fairness in expending, nor ordinary diligence in improving its revenues, and that, while to give additional endowment to such a body would be manifestly improper, to allow it to remain in its present position would be to declare that the citizens should derive as little benefit as possible for the sums they contributed. The committee was perfectly satisfied, from the evidence they had taken, that the body had entirely lost the confidence of the citizens, and was regarded as an impediment to the improvements of the city." They proceeded to add however, having reference to the demand so often made from responsible governments, that "they did not think the failure of the corporation could fairly be urged against the colony as a proof of its unfitness for representative government. It was the existence of representative assemblies that was fatal to the successful working of corporations. Under arbitrary governments they enlisted those ardent spirits whose energies had no other vent; under free governments the higher order of public men were employed elsewhere, and municipal politics lost their attraction. Among the causes of failure mentioned by the committee was the practice of creating Aldermen Justices of the Peace, by which a spurious ambition was generated, and men sought a seat in the City Council not to devote themselves to business but to become Magistrates. The manner in which the Council performed its business was also highly objectionable. Their discussions were prolix and disorderly; their proceedings dilatory and inconsistent; epithets of the most offensive nature and even oaths were employed in their deliberations; and they indulged in debates on the most trivial matters, such as reception of a petition or a point of order, which were almost interminable. The consequence was that their business fell into arrear; it was very difficult to know when the Council would arrive at a decision, and when they decided how long they would adhere to it. The committee concluded by recommending—1st, That the Acts of Council incorporating the citizens of Sydney should be repealed; 2nd, That an Act should be passed appointing three commissioners in whom should be vested all the powers at present

exercised by the Corporation; 3rd, That the local revenues then vested in the Corporation should be vested in those commissioners; and 4th, That a uniform rate for the purposes of civic improvements should be imposed by Act of Council. A series of resolutions for abolishing the Corporation were subsequently introduced by Lowe, but were negatived by a majority of fifteen to six. An amendment, moved by George Robert Nichols, to the effect that it was the opinion of the Council that the Corporation ought to be amended but not abolished was adopted, and the Government were left to pursue whatever measures might seem to them desirable on the matter. The year 1849 was signalised by Wentworth's bringing in and carrying through the Legislature the Bill for the founding of the University of Sydney. The Bill incorporating the Sydney Railway Company was also passed about the same time. The intelligence of the discovery of gold in California reached Sydney early in the year, and by June about 300 persons had left the colony for that country. The exodus subsequently grew to very large proportions, and the value of the property in the city was considerably depreciated in consequence. In July 1850 the first sod of the Sydney and Goulburn Railway was turned by the Governor's daughter, Mrs. Keith Stuart, in the presence of about 10,000 spectators. The terminus of the proposed line was in Parramatta-street. A great indignation meeting to denounce the conduct of Governor Fitzroy in reference to the Transportation Question was held about the same time at the Circular Quay. A second meeting of a similar character was held in the Barrack Square in September, when 6000 persons were present. In December the Act granting responsible government to the colony arrived. In May 1851 the announcement of Hargreaves' discovery of gold caused a rush of the population from Sydney which almost depopulated it of the male adults. A great meeting to petition the Queen for the dismissal of Earl Grey from her councils was held in July. A duel was fought between Sir Thomas Mitchell and Stuart Alexander Donaldson in September, fortunately without serious result. In 1852 Port Jackson became a free port by an Act abolishing harbour dues, entry and clearance fees, and lighthouse and water police dues. In October of that year the Sydney University was instituted. The inaugural addresses were delivered by Sir Charles Nicholson, Vice-Provost, and Rev. John Woolley, the Principal. The first members of the Senate were:—Provost: A. J. Hamilton, M.A.; Vice-Provost: Sir Charles Nicholson; Fellows: Rev. W. B. Boyce, Edward Broadhurst, B.A., John Bayley Darvall, M.A., Stuart A. Donaldson, Right Rev. C. H. Davis, D.D., Alfred Denison, M.A., J. Macarthur, F. L. S. Merewether, B.A., Bartholomew O'Brien, M.D., J. H. Plunkett, M.A., Justice Therry, E. Deas-Thomson, and William Charles Wentworth. The first Chancellor was Sir Charles Nicholson, 1854. In 1853 an Act was passed abolishing the Municipal

Corporation of Sydney, substituting in its stead three paid commissioners to carry out the works necessary for draining the city and supplying it with water. The commissioners commenced their duties in January 1854. The foundation-stone of the Sydney Exchange was laid by Governor Fitzroy in 1853; and the works for the defence of the harbour were commenced at Pinchgut (now Fort Denison,) Lady Macquarie's Chair, and other places in the harbour. Dr. Cuthill, a gentleman noted for his philanthropy, was shot by a lunatic towards the middle of 1854. The following year the railway to Parramatta was opened; the Mint was opened in May; and in the same month Bishop Barker arrived as successor to Bishop Broughton. In 1857 an Act for the re-establishment of the Corporation was passed. The population of the city was shown by the census to be 81,327 souls, including the suburbs. On 21st August of that year occurred the wreck of the *Dunbar*, and a short time after that of the *Catharine Adamson*. The Exchange was opened by Governor Denison on 30th December. About the middle of 1858 occurred the rush to Port Curtis, with disastrous results to many of the eager goldseekers. On 29th October communication by means of the electric wire was completed between Sydney, Melbourne and Adelaide. For several years succeeding the annals of the city are comparatively uneventful. In April 1868 the foundation-stone of the Town Hall was laid by the Duke of Edinburgh. The foundation-stone of the Protestant Hall was laid by Bishop Barker in November 1875. In that year the Municipal Council was unable to meet its liabilities, and half of the employes were discharged. The Government advanced £10,000. The following year the estate of the Corporation was sequestrated by order of the Chief Commissioner of Insolvency. A similar event happened in 1879, and the Government again came to the assistance of the Corporation. The foundation stone of the new Crown Lands Office was laid by T. Garrett, Minister of Lands, in October 1878. The details of the Sydney International Exhibition of 1879 have already been given. The Mayors of Sydney have been in succession as follows:—John Hosking, 1843; J. R. Wilshire, 1844; George Allen, 1845; Henry McDermott, 1846; Thomas Broughton, 1847; J. F. Josephson, 1848; Edward Flood, 1849; George Hill, 1850; William Thurlow, 1851-2; Daniel Egan, 1853; Council abrogated and Commissioners in office, 1854, -55, -56; Corporation again established—George Thornton, 1857; John Williams, 1858; George Smith, 1859; James Murphy, 1860; John Sutherland, 1861; James Outley, 1862; Thomas Spence, 1863; William Speer, 1864; John Woods, 1865; John Sutton, 1866; Charles Moore, 1867-9; Walter Renny (from March) 1869; Walter Renny, 1870; Michael Chapman, 1871-2; James Merriman, 1873 and 1877-8; Benjamin Palmer, 1875-6; C. J. Roberts, 1879.

T

TAMAR RIVER, in T., empties itself into Port Dalrymple. Launceston is situated on this river. The North and South Esk, two fine streams, unite at Launceston and fall into the Tamar about thirty miles from its mouth. The valley through which the Tamar flows is narrow, with sides steep and woody, in some places the reaches are wide, and the hills recede. George Town is situated on this river, about four miles from its mouth. It was discovered by Bass and Flinders in 1798, and named by Colonel Paterson in 1806.

TAMBAROORA, a mining township in N.S.W. situated on the Tambaroora Creek, 168 miles N.W. of Sydney, twenty-five miles W. from Sofala. The district is hilly, and is principally taken up for gold-mining, the workings being both alluvial and quartz. The country is clay-slate with quartz veins, and including Hill End, has been one of the richest gold-reefing districts in A. It has been a gold-field since 1851. But though large quantities of gold have been obtained, the early promise of the locality has not been fulfilled. The town is situated on a rugged table-land, through which the water-courses have cut deep channels. Population was about 1000, and with vicinity 3265, but it has fallen off considerably.

TAMWORTH, an agricultural township in N.S.W. 251 miles N. of Sydney, situated on the Peel and Cockburn Rivers. It stands on low ground surrounded by a range of undulating mountains, in the midst of a fine pastoral, agricultural and mining district, and is gradually growing into importance as these interests become developed. The principal goldfields in the neighbourhood are at Bowling Alley Point (28 miles,) Nundle (37,) Hanging Rock near Barraba (60,) and at Bingera (110 miles.) Near the latter place diamonds in large quantities have been obtained. The town of Tamworth was incorporated on 17th March 1876. A large area of land in the vicinity of Tamworth is held by the Peel River Land and Mineral Company. This land comprising about 300,000 acres, was originally purchased for £500,000, and large sums of money have been spent in improving it. A considerable township exists on the Company's side of the river, and lots amounting to nearly 500 acres have been alienated for building and other purposes at moderate rates. The population is about 4,000.

TAIERI, an extensive agricultural district in N.Z., lying about six miles S. of Dunedin, mostly occupied by Scotch farmers. There are several mines of lignite in the district, which are worked to advantage. In the neighbourhood of Taieri is Mosgiel, where extensive woollen factories are at work. Population of district about 5000.

TARANAKI, a province of N.Z., which takes its name from the lofty, snow-clad mountain called by Europeans "Egmont," and by the natives "Taranaki." According to Native tradition, a

great chief named Turi, who came from Hawaiiiki in a canoe named *Aotea*, gave names to all the rivers and mountains in this part of the country. From the same source we also learn that the principal tribe of this district came from the same place in a canoe called *Tokomaru*, commanded by a chief named Manaia, who was compelled to flee from his native country on account of a murder which he had committed. Members of this tribe state that when their ancestors arrived in Taranaki they found it inhabited by an unwarlike race whom they easily subdued. How long ago this happened they cannot tell; but from the names of their ancestors, which some of them have committed to memory, and from the many traces of ancient fortifications upon the hills, it was probably some hundreds of years.

HISTORY.—The history of this people is one of incessant warfare. The warlike spirit of the race reached its height shortly after the introduction of firearms in 1820. In the fierce intertribal struggles that took place in the twelve years following that event, the tribe of the Taranaki district was broken, thousands of its warriors slain, and many of its people taken into captivity and reduced to slavery. The first Europeans who beheld Taranaki were probably Tasman and his companions, in December 1642. On 10th January 1772, Cook first sighted the mountain which he named "Egmont," in honour of the Earl bearing that title. On the 10th February 1772, Marion du Fresne made the land here and named the mountain "Le Pic Mascarin" after his ship. From this time to 1839 Taranaki was occasionally visited by whalers, some of whom established a station at the Sugar Loaf Islands. In 1831, when the Waikatos, under their great chief Te Wherowhero, made their memorable descent on the district to punish the Ngatiawa for having assisted the fighting chief Rauparaha—and also because Kaeaea, one of their chiefs had, in a preceding war, crucified the Waikato chief Taiporutu in the gateway of his pa, after taking the pa at Pukerangiora, and killing and devouring several hundreds of its occupants—they proceeded to attack Ngamotu Pa, near the Sugar Loaves. This was garrisoned by 350 Ngatiawa, under their chief Warepori, and six English whalers and traders, whose names have been preserved by the Maoris. These were Barrett, Love, Oliver, Wright, Akers, and Phillips. The besieged, armed with muskets and four small merchant-ship guns, made such a heroic defence that the Waikatos at last retreated with great loss; but after the victory, the Ngamotu defenders, with the other natives of the district, fled to the south, leaving the country almost entirely without inhabitants. On 29th April 1834 the barque *Harriet*, Captain Hall commander, bound from Sydney to Port Underwood, with a whaling party under a man named Guard, ran ashore on the coast of Taranaki proper, a little to the south of Cape Egmont. For six days the shipwrecked sailors were treated as friends, but on the seventh day a quarrel arose, in

which twelve sailors and twenty-five natives were slain, and Guard, his wife, two children, and ten seamen were made prisoners. Guard and several sailors were allowed to depart on promising to return with powder as a ransom for the others, and he proceeded to N.S.W. Arrived there Guard prevailed on the Governor to send H.M.S. *Alligator*, Captain Lambert, with a company of the 50th Regiment, to Taranaki, with the object of rescuing the prisoners. Two villages were destroyed, many of the natives slain, and the women, children, and other captives were recovered. Among the stores of the *Harriet* was a quantity of soap: this was taken from the vessel by the natives, baked in their ovens, and eaten by the Maoris (who were totally ignorant of its nature,) with what result to them may be more easily imagined than described. In the year 1839 a company was formed in England, called the Plymouth Company, the object of which was the establishment of a colony in N.Z. It was a joint-stock association, which invested £10,000 in the purchase of 50,000 acres of land from the N.Z.C. Colonel Wakefield, acting for the company in 1839 found many fugitives from Taranaki on the shores of Cook Strait, and from them he purchased the land of their fathers, from which they had been driven, and to which the dread of their victorious foes prevented their return. About the end of the same year the company's naturalist, Ernst Dieffenbach, proceeded to Taranaki. He found a handful of wretched natives there living stealthily on obscure plantations hidden deep in the recesses of the forest, while the rest of the beautiful country was completely desolate. He travelled for miles without meeting a single person, and seeing no trace of man except some deserted plantations. While there he investigated the geology, botany, and natural history of the place, and succeeded in scaling the lofty mountain. He also, in conjunction with an agent of the company, succeeded in purchasing from the few natives in possession their rights in the soil. In February 1841 Mr. Carrington, the company's surveyor, having previously explored the coast for a site for the new settlement, and fixed on the Taranaki district, in January of the same year arrived, accompanied by his staff, and the survey of the district was commenced. On 31st March of that year, the barque *William Bryon* arrived with the first batch of immigrants. This vessel was followed by the *Amelia Thompson*, which arrived on 3rd September, and by her tender, a small vessel destined for coasting, called the *Regina*, which was unfortunately wrecked on the Taranaki beach shortly after her arrival. The *Oriental* arrived on 7th November, 1841, and the *Timandara* on 2nd February, 1842, and these were followed at intervals by the *Blenheim* and *Essex*. The immigrants were from the English western counties—Cornwall, Devon, Dorset, and Hants; they numbered nearly 2000, and were selected so carefully with regard to character, that for many years crime was almost unknown in the

Province. The majority were agricultural labourers and miners, but there were some tradesmen and professional men. The first work performed was the erection of huts to live in; these were chiefly constructed of the broad rush of the country, after the fashion of the natives, and were thatched with sedge. Every able-bodied man was engaged in making roads, constructing bridges, and cutting lines through the fern and forest lands. When the immigrants landed the few natives who greeted them were miserable and dejected. Many of them at times were absolutely naked. After a while, gaining confidence, they came out of their hiding-places in the forest, and from distant places on the coast, in order to see the white man, to marvel at his works, to trade with him, in fish, firewood, and potatoes, and to share in the blankets and other things which had been promised in payment for the land. The first unpleasantness between the races arose through a quantity of goods which had been promised not being forthcoming. To rectify this the Chief Surveyor, Carrington, wrote to Colonel Wakefield, and that gentleman despatched the schooner *Jewess*, freighted with the promised articles. The vessel was unfortunately wrecked in the Strait, and the natives never received the goods, but they accepted the intention for the deed. After this affair had been thus amicably settled, the great chief of the Waikato tribe, who had conquered the tribes of Taranaki, sent a subordinate chief named Te Kaka (*Anglicè* the Parrot) with 200 men to claim the land by right of conquest. This claim was satisfied by Governor Hobson paying the chief £150 in money, two horses, two saddles, two bridles, and 100 red blankets. A part of the bargain made with the natives was, that one-tenth of the purchased land should be returned to them when it was surveyed; and in order to expedite their civilisation, it was judged prudent to give them their reserves in the midst of the lands selected by the Europeans. As soon as the surveys were completed, the immigrants began to take up their allotments, to build, and cultivate. A village was soon formed on a beautiful and level tract of land, about six miles from the township of New Plymouth. Scarcely had this been done, when a number of slaves, the original owners of the district, were set at liberty through the entreaties of Rev. John Whitely, a Wesleyan missionary, who has since fallen by the hands of those to whose welfare he devoted his life. These manumitted slaves, who of course had not received any part of the payment for the land, became insolent and tyrannical, and demanded that the land should be given up to them. At length a Commissioner, Mr. Spain, was sent by the Home Government to investigate their claims. He decided against them and made an award in favour of the N.Z. Company; but discontent still prevailing—being if anything rather increased by this decision—Governor Fitzroy reversed the award of the Imperial Commissioner, declared all the Europeans trespassers for the time being, and

gave back all the country lands to the natives with the understanding however that on the extinction of the native title, by purchase or otherwise, the dispossessed settlers should re-enter on their original selections. This was a great blow to the settlement; many settlers left, and further to reduce it, the Governor induced many of the Cornish miners to go to the Government settlement at Auckland to work a newly-discovered mine yielding copper and manganese. Some of the best settlers were compelled to go into the heavily-timbered lands and hew out for themselves farms with the axe, while thousands of acres of fine open land were left a barren and totally unproductive waste. The land was given back to the natives in 1844, and during the succeeding ten years a few small blocks were repurchased at great expense and in the face of much opposition. Then a land league was formed the outcome of which was the great war of 1860. There were however a few things that tended to cheer the pioneers of the settlement in the midst of their severe struggles. The country was very healthy—the year would pass without a single death occurring in the community. The earth also yielded abundantly—wheat chipped in with a mattock returned rich harvests of golden grain. Mills were erected and quantities of fine flour exported. Grass also flourished; Dutch white clover sprang up in all directions; and butter soon became an article of export. Poultry became plentiful, and the bee produced great quantities of honey. The settler found comfort, and if his farm brought little cash to his pocket, he was amply supplied by it with all the necessaries of life, and was cheered by seeing the daisy, primrose and other British flowers, and all the fruits of his native land flourish in luxuriance round his cottage.

GENERAL DESCRIPTION.—Situated on the west coast of the North Island, between the 38th and 40th parallels of south latitude, with a population of about 5400, the Province of Taranaki contains, in proportion to its area, a greater extent of land suitable for cultivation than any other province in the colony; while its bracing yet genial atmosphere and the noted salubrity of its climate, point it out as one of the most eligible settlements for intending emigrants. Geologically, Taranaki is a volcanic country. The underlying formation is a bluish marl of the older tertiary series; but except for about twenty miles of the northern part of the province, it is overlaid by a great mass of trachytic rock. This is covered with a deposit of yellow earth, consisting of ferruginous volcanic tufa of varying depth, but sometimes extending to ninety feet. In this tufa occurs the titanic iron sand, which is likely very speedily to be utilised and to become a considerable source of wealth to the province. In addition to the peak of Taranaki or Mount Egmont, which rises to the height of 8270 feet, there are two considerable mountain ranges of a picturesque character, also

the cone-like Sugar Loaf Peak and Islands, and many ridges and small detached hills, which are composed of trachytic rock or trachytic breccia. Where the marl rises to the surface, the land is adapted to the production of European fruits. The vine and the apple-tree thrive well upon it. On the volcanic soils, grapes, root crops, wheat to some extent, and the peach-tree flourish. The area of the province is 2,137,000 acres, and of this at least two-thirds or about 1,500,000 acres is good agricultural land, suitable for settlement. There are only 175,000 acres in the hands of settlers. The balance is still in the hands of the General Government and the natives; the portion at the disposal of the provincial authorities being insignificant in quantity. The most noticeable features of the country are these: Taking the coast line it will be found that the central portion of the province, from New Plymouth to the Kaipokonui stream is circular in form, so much so that if one leg of a gigantic pair of compasses were placed on Mount Egmont, and a semicircle were described with a radius of fifteen miles, it would aptly delineate the coast for a distance of forty-five miles. For the greater part of this distance the land—which on the coast line is low and rocky to within a few miles of Cape Egmont, while from that point it rises and presents, as an ocean front, an unbroken line of cliffs averaging 100 feet in height—rises gradually inland in the direction of the mountain, and is divided at intervals by valleys, most of them containing rivers or streams, running more or less in a direct line from the mountain to the coast. Between these valleys are plateaux, generally very level, and the soil consists of a rich, black, vegetable mould, from nine to eighteen inches in thickness, overlying the volcanic tufa. From New Plymouth the coast trends in a north-easterly direction to the Waitara River for a distance of about eleven miles. The land here is less divided by gullies, and the soil is of the richest description—much of the same character as that between New Plymouth and Kaipokonui. North of the Waitara, the coast line runs for ten miles in an easterly direction to the Urenui River, and thence again in a north-easterly direction for about twenty-five miles to the River Mokau, the northern boundary of the province. From the Waitara northwards the soil is stiffer, and well adapted to grain crops; while between the Oneiro and Mimi Rivers, and especially in the neighbourhood of the Urenui, the soil consists to a great extent of a heavy clay suited for brick making. From the Mimi northward the soil is still a clayey loam, and at and near Mokau the finest brick clay is found in inexhaustible quantities. Before the war of 1860 several English brickmakers lived at Mokau and shipped large quantities of bricks, but on the outbreak of hostilities they were forced to leave, and from that time no English vessel of any description has entered the river. In the vicinity of the Urenui River the finest apples, peaches, and grapes are produced, all of them growing luxuriantly

even in a wild and uncultivated state. The banks of the river in many places are festooned with vines which in the season are laden with fruit. From the Kaipokonui River southward, the coast line, forming a slight inward curve, trends in a south-easterly direction for some thirty miles to the mouth of the river Patea, which is the southernmost boundary of the province on the coast line, though not bounding it at any other point except at its mouth, the river running its whole length through Taranaki. This part of the province, from the sea for several miles inland, is as a rule level and mostly clothed with grass or clover. The land adjacent to the coast is generally open and covered with fern, *phormium* grass, or clover for a distance varying from one to fifteen miles inland, while the interior is densely wooded. Between the Kaipokonui and the southern boundary of Taranaki the soil is generally a clayey loam and very productive. There is a general similarity in the ruling industries of the several districts. The settlers in all are engaged in agricultural and pastoral pursuits; in some the agricultural predominates and in others the pastoral, though in all they are more or less combined. The Petea district, extending from the Petea to the Waingongoro River, is mainly a pastoral district, being for the whole distance of some twenty-four miles perfectly level, except in the river courses, and covered with grass and clover. From the Waingongoro to the Stony River, about fifty-four miles, the land is still in native hands, with the exception of the small reserve for a town at Opunake, and some 800 acres in private hands at the same place. The country throughout the whole of this distance is interspersed with vast fields of *phormium tenax*. Extensive mills were established at Opunake about four years ago, and the work of manufacturing the fibre was continued until the autumn of 1873, when the continued fall in the market value of the article caused the stoppage of the mills. The natives throughout the district are willing to lease the right of cutting the leaf from off their lands, and it is only the instability of the market which caused the temporary collapse. From Stony River to the Tapuae River, a distance of ten miles, agriculture is the ruling industry, as it is also of that next in order, viz., from the Tapuae River to the Paritutu line, the northern boundary of the Egmont electoral district, a distance of about five miles, mostly occupied by Europeans. With the Omata block, about a mile and a-half beyond the Tapuae, commences the old settlement (as distinguished from the military settlements and the confiscated land,) viz., the provincial estate previous to 1863, which however also included the detached Tataraimaka block of 4000 acres. The Grey and Bell district, from the Paritutu line to the Mokau River, the northern boundary of the province, has a coast line of about forty-five miles. Of this at different intervals, and on an average for two-thirds of the distance, native lands abut on the coast. The

remainder of the coast line bounds land owned by the settlers. Agriculture is the principle industry of this portion of the settlement. The general features of the district have been already described. The flax industry has received a check in the remainder of the Egmont district and in the Grey and Bell, as well as at Opunake; and of nine factories for the manufacture of the fibre, which were at one time at work in the province, not one is at present in operation. In 1868 there was only one town in Taranaki, viz., New Plymouth—the spot on which the pilgrim fathers of the settlement landed in 1841, and which gave its name to the province; for, until 1858, it was known as the Province of New Plymouth, an Ordinance passed by the Legislative Council in 1858, altering the title to “Taranaki.” There were besides two villages, viz., the Hua and Omata. New Plymouth contains about 2800 inhabitants, and is the seat of the Provincial Government. The aspect of the town from the sea is charming, with the ground gradually sloping upwards from the beach, and a dark green belt of bush still rising in the middle distance, until the landscape culminates in the glorious background of the majestic snow-clad cone of Mount Egmont. The central point of the foreground is Marsland Hill, crowned with the immigration barracks. In front and to the right and left of this point, churches, chapels, and houses are to be seen peeping from amidst the trees, which have been plentifully planted by the settlers. During the war, for a while, the whole of the inhabitants of the Province, together with the Imperial troops stationed in Taranaki, were crowded into a portion of the town surrounded with trenches. New Plymouth then for the first time became unhealthy, consequent on some 5000 people being crowded into a space barely sufficient for a quarter of that number. It is however a very healthy place, and the dip of the land towards the sea supplies it with efficient natural drainage. Lying on the beach at New Plymouth and along the coast of the whole of the province, but in greater quantity in the vicinity of the town, is to be seen in great quantities—constituting in fact the principal part of its material—the famed Taranaki iron sand. Two valuable seams of clay have lately been discovered and are now being worked in the immediate vicinity of the town from which very good bricks are made. The town also contains an ironfoundry, a boat-building establishment, two breweries, and a soap and candle manufactory. Two towns have been established since the war, viz., Raleigh, more generally known as Waitara, at the mouth of the river of that name, and Carlyle on the Patea River; the former ten and the latter ninety-five miles from New Plymouth. The land is generally suitable for agricultural purposes, grasses well, and when grassed carries from six to eight sheep per acre. With the exception of a strip of open land, varying in breadth from one to seven miles, the whole face of the country is covered with heavy bush in

which there is much valuable timber. There is at present very little land in the hands of the provincial authorities and open for sale. Under the N.Z. Settlements Acts all the confiscated lands were vested in the General Government for purposes specified in those Acts, and all the sales lately made have been sales of confiscated land. Lands which have been acquired from the natives by purchase or over which the native title has become extinguished other than by confiscation, are known as waste lands of the Crown, and the gross revenue arising from the sale of such lands, after deducting the salary of the Receiver of Land Revenue, is handed over to the province and treated as provincial revenue. A large tract of land has been acquired by purchase from the natives on behalf of the Government in the Ngatimaru district, commencing some twenty miles from New Plymouth, and situate on the north bank of the River Waitara. A great part of this district is suitable for agricultural purposes; the remoter portion of it is, however, principally valuable at present for the totara growing on it. The soil of Taranaki is, as a rule, admirably adapted for root crops. Of the 90,000 acres held by residents, about 30,000 acres are fenced, and about 35,000 under cultivation, including land laid down in permanent grasses.

TASMAN, ABEL JANSZ, Dutch navigator and discoverer of T. and N.Z. In 1642 the Governor-General of the Netherlands India was Antony Van Diemen, and an expedition was fitted out by him for the purpose of exploring the coast of the Australian continent, which had been sighted by previous adventurers. It consisted of two ships, the *Zeehaan* and the *Heemskirk*. The command was given to Tasman. The only account of this memorable voyage—in the course of which T. and N.Z. were discovered—that the world possessed for more than a century after its termination was an abridgment published at Amsterdam in 1674, and a more extended abstract included in Valentyn's large work on the Dutch East Indian possessions. About 1771 however a manuscript journal of Tasman's, written by his own hand, was brought to England by an unknown hand and offered for sale to Sir Joseph Banks, who perceiving its value purchased it and deposited it amongst the treasures of his magnificent library. He also caused an English translation of it to be made by the Rev. Charles Godfrey Woide, chaplain to the Dutch Chapel at St. James's Palace. At Banks's death his library was bequeathed to the British Museum in London, where Tasman's journal is still deposited. The original document and translation were lent by Banks to Flinders, and also to Captain Burney, who was engaged in compiling his chronological history of the discoveries in the South Sea (5 vols. 4to, London 1803-7.) It contains the entire text of Tasman's manuscript, with the exception of some nautical details of no importance. The journal commences in the old

fashion of three centuries ago:—"Journal or description by me, Abel Jansz Tasman, of a voyage from Batavia, for making discoveries of the Unknown South Land, in the year 1642. May God Almighty be pleased to give His blessing to this voyage! Amen." The voyagers sailed from Batavia on 14th August 1642, and stood out south-eastward to sea. On the 27th October, after leaving Mauritius, a council was held, when it was resolved to keep a man constantly at the topmast-head to look out, and that whosoever first discovered land, sands, or banks under water, should receive a reward of three reals and a pot of arrack. On 24th November at 4 p.m. very high land was sighted, bearing E. by N., distant about ten miles; high mountains were also seen to the E.S.E., and to the N.E. two smaller mountains. Next morning the ships stood in for shore. "As this land," continues the journal, "has not before been known to any European we called it Anthony Van Diemen's Land, in honour of our high magistrate the Governor-General, who sent us out to make discoveries. The islands near us we named in honour of the Council of India, as you may see by the little map we made." The voyagers did not land, but continued cruising along the shore. On the 28th they came near three small islands, one of which (Mewstone) has the shape of a lion's head, and is about three miles from the mainland. Next day at 5 p.m. they came near a bay which seemed to be a good roadstead, and resolved to make for it; but a storm arose which obliged them to take in sail and stand out to sea again. To this bay Tasman gave the name of Storm Bay. The anchorage he aimed at is that where Captain Furneaux stopped at in 1773 and named Adventure Bay. On 3rd December the ceremony of planting a standard and taking possession of the new territory in the Prince's name was performed by the carpenter Francis Jacobsz, who swam through the surf to reach the shore. To this bay Tasman gave the name of Frederik Hendrik's Bay. He also marks the South Cape of Storm Bay with Tasman's Island lying just south of it; and the larger island near it he named Maria's Island "in honour of the excellent lady of the honourable the Governor-General." On the 5th the voyagers quitted Van Diemen's Land, the point last seen being the round mountain (St. Patrick's Head) "like a huge misshapen tower," then about six miles to the westward. Calculating his latitude and longitude by the new notation it would appear that the land first seen was Point Hibbs, and that had Tasman run up Storm Bay he would have reached the present site of Hobart Town. If instead of sailing eastward he had continued his course northerly about four degrees he would have struck the continent about three degrees east of the present site of Melbourne, midway between Wilson's Promontory and Cape Howe, while less than a degree north from his point of divergence would have brought him into what are now Bass

Straits. It is probable that his instructions were to sail for the south, where it was believed islands existed as rich in spices as those of the Japanese Archipelago. On 13th December he discovered a mountainous country, which he named Staaten Land, in honour of the States-General of Holland. He anchored in a "fine bay," which is really the strait between the Northern and Middle Islands of N.Z. While thus at anchor a disturbance took place with the natives, who, approaching in their canoes, surrounded the two vessels. Seven canoes full of Maoris in war costume lay off the *Zeehaan*, and five canoes, each containing seventeen men, put off for the *Heemskirk*. An affray took place in which the islanders upset the boat of the *Zeehaan*, killing three men and forcing others to swim for their lives. The weather being rough Tasman thought it prudent to depart without risking further combat; so naming the spot Murderer's Bay he sailed to the eastward. Here again the Dutch navigator was on the point of anticipating the discovery of Cook Straits. He sailed to the north to Three Kings Island, naming a cape to the eastward—on the north-west coast of the present Auckland—Cape Maria Van Diemen, in honour of the wife of the Governor-General. Being in want of provisions he sailed northwards for the islands of Cocos and Hoorn, discovered by Schouten in 1616, to lay in supplies. On 19th January 1643 he passed a high island, two or three miles in circumference, to which the name of Pylstaart or Tropic Bird Island was given from the number of those birds which frequented it. After meeting with many other adventures and making many discoveries, the expedition arrived at Batavia on the 16th June, after an absence of ten months and one day. In 1644 a second expedition was fitted out under the command of Tasman. The three vessels composing it were named the *Limmen*, the *Zeemeuw*, and the *Brak*. There can be no doubt that the navigator fulfilled his mission with honour and credit, and brought back numerous drawings and plans. These were carefully concealed, perhaps destroyed, by the company. The only fragment that looks like an authentic record is four paragraphs of a journal published in 1705 by Witsen, and purporting to have been written by Tasman. Better evidence of Tasman's fortune are the maps of 1648-60. In 1648 the map of Australia was inscribed on the floor of the Stadthouse in Amsterdam; and Turquet published at Paris a mappemonde, evidently based upon observations similar to those which Tasman was directed to make. So in the edition of Jansen's atlas in 1650, in the atlas of Klencke of Amsterdam, and in the sixteenth chart of Thevenot's *Relation De Divers Voyages Curieux* (1663,) distinct reference is made to discoveries which it is most reasonable to suppose were made by Tasman. In one of the early maps of Van Kuelen a portion of Tasman's track with soundings is given; and in the British Museum there is a chart which is regarded as an absolute copy of Tasman's own. If all this be so

it is clear that Tasman missed the discovery that New Guinea and New Holland are separated by sea, and that he sounded down the Gulf of Carpentaria, gave the names to Van Diemen's Gulf and Cape Van Diemen, and continued sounding all the way to De Witt's Land and then returned in a direct line north-west for Java. Nothing seems to be known with certainty of this great navigator's latter days. The obscurity that hangs around his name and the concealment of his journals and charts are a standing reproach to the Dutch nation.

TASMANIA, formerly Van Diemen's Land, the name given to it by Tasman, its discoverer, in honour of Anthony Van Diemen, Governor-General of Netherlands India. The name was changed to Tasmania, from Tasman's own name, by Royal Warrant, on the establishment of representative Government.

GEOGRAPHICAL FEATURES.—T. is an island nearly equal in size to Ireland, or Ceylon, or the Netherlands—*i.e.*, the kingdoms of Belgium and Holland together. Its length is 170 miles, its breadth 160 miles, and the area about 24,330 square miles, or 15,571,500 acres, exclusive of lakes and islands which belong to the colony, the aggregate of these being 1,206,500 acres, making a total of 16,778,000 acres, or 26,215 square miles. It is in the form of a triangle, or more nearly of a heart. T. is situated between the parallels of 40° 33' and 43° 39' S. latitude, and 144° 39' and 148° 23' meridians of longitude E., at the southern extremity of the Australian mainland, from which it is divided by Bass Straits, about 120 miles wide. It is conjectured that it was once part of the mainland, the islands in the straits being, it is supposed, part of a mountain range that connected the two lands. Indeed, it has been asserted that in remote ages Tasmania, Australia and New Zealand all formed part of one immense continent, that extended to Madagascar, Andaman and Ceylon. The botanical researches and comparisons of Drs. Hooker and Mueller go to confirm the supposition of the connection of the islands of T. and N.Z. with the mainland; the analogy of the flora of N.Z. and A., and of T. with both, being it is said almost complete. T. has been described as a "beautiful, well-watered island, rich in harbours and inlets, traversed by high mountain chains, full of crags, glens and ravines of commanding appearance, the basaltic cliffs of some being several hundred feet in perpendicular height. Everywhere there are good anchorages and many excellent harbours. Altogether the coast offers the most manifold changes and generally charming scenery, being for the most part of a bold and rocky character. The interior especially is delightful, and here are united, so to speak, the climate of Italy, the beauty of the Apennines and the fertility of England. Mountain and valley, hill and dale, crowned with high forests, and rich pasture grounds in the plains, afford the most pleasing variety."

ISLANDS.—The principal islands belonging to T. are fifty-five in number. The Furneaux group at the east end of Bass Straits, including Flinders Island, comprise an area of 513,000 acres; Cape Barren Island has 110,000 acres, and Clarke Island 20,000 acres; beside these are Chappell Island and Kent's Group. These islands are inhabited by persons who procure a living by seal-fishing and preserving mutton-birds. They number about 242 souls. Many of them are "half-castes," the offspring of marriages between the sealers and aboriginal women. At the west end of Bass Straits are:—King's Island, 272,000 acres (this island has acquired an evil reputation from the numerous fatal wrecks that have taken place on its shores;) Robbin's Island, 24,000 acres; and Hunter's Islands. Other islands of importance are, Waterhouse Island, Swan Island, Scouten Island, 7000 acres; Maria Island, 24,000 acres; Bruné Island (north and south,) 90,000 acres (South Bruné Island was the locality where the Aborigines collected by Robinson were placed;) Slopen, Franklin, and Huon Islands.

MOUNTAINS.—T. may be described as having two mountain chains, separated by the central district, through which is the communication between the north and south of the island. That to the east, or the dividing range, winding in its course in the form of a Z through the island has an average height of 3750 feet and an average distance of forty miles from the sea. It runs nearly north and south parallel with the E. coast, and among the peaks are Row Tor, 3895 feet; Mount Barrow, 4644 feet; Mount Victoria, 3964 feet; Ben Nevis, 3910 feet; Ben Lomond, 5010 feet; Mount Nicholas, 2812 feet; and Brown Mountain, 2598 feet. The western chain consists of an elevated table-land averaging 3000 feet in height in the centre of the island, which contains all the large lakes and from which diverge numerous ranges in all directions except to the eastward. From the table-land spring the following peaks:—Table Mountain, 3596 feet; Miller's Bluff, 3977 feet; Dry's Bluff, 4257 feet; Quamby Bluff, 4000 feet; Ironstone Mountain, 4736 feet; Cradle Mountain, 5069 feet (the highest in the colony;) the Du Cane Range; Mount Olympus; Mount Humboldt; Mount Hugel, 4700 feet; Mount William, 4360 feet; and Mount Hobhouse, 4031 feet. Among the other diverging ranges and peaks are, to the north, Mount Roland, 4047 feet; Black Bluff, 4381 feet; Valentine's Peak, 3637 feet; to the west, Mount Dundas, 3922 feet; Mount Murchison; the Elden Range, 4789 feet; the Frenchman's Cap, 4756 feet; to the south are Wyld's Crag, 4399 feet; Mount Field, 4721 feet; Mount Anne; the Arthur Range, 3668 feet; Mount Picton, 4340 feet; Mount Wellington, 4166 feet; Adamson's Peak, 4017 feet; and Mount La Perouse, 3800 feet. Wallace writes as to the mountain peculiarities of the island:—"T. may be called the Switzerland of the south, and is perhaps the most thoroughly mountainous island on the globe. It can hardly

be said to have any mountain ranges, but is one continuous series of mountains and valleys, peaks and glens. The highest mountains just exceed 5000 feet; but there are more than twenty which range between 4000 and 5000 feet, and these are pretty evenly distributed over the whole island, being found in the north-east, north-west, centre and south. The south-eastern portion only is somewhat lower, but is equally mountainous, the heights ranging from one to three thousand feet. We have here an admirable example of the effects of sub-aerial denudation, or the eating away of a country by atmospheric agencies—rain and running water, frost and ice, assisted perhaps by subterranean movements. The island was once a vast undulating tableland, the surface of which is generally indicated by the higher mountain tops now dotted over its whole surface. The valleys have been excavated in the softer or more decomposable rocks. There has probably been a subsidence towards the south-east, indicated by the lower elevation of the mountains, and by the islands, peninsulas, and generally broken character of the coast. In this direction is the great line of valleys, which affords the means of communication between the north and south of the island. In the north-east and west-central portions are extensive tracts of high table-land, from which rise the two highest of the mountain-peaks—Cradle Mountain in the west, 5069 feet, and Ben Lomond in the east, 5010 feet."

PENINSULAS.—On the east coast, Freycinet Peninsula, its western shore being washed by the waters of Oyster Bay; on the south-east, Forrester Peninsula, connected to the mainland by East Bay Neck. Tasman Peninsula is a continuation of Forrester, and is joined to it by Eagle Hawk Neck. Ralph Bay Peninsula is also on the south-eastern side of the Island jutting out into Storm Bay.

CAVES.—On the northern coast from west to east are:—Cape Grim, Circular Head, Rocky Head, Table Cape, Port Sorell Point, Flinders Point. Stony Head, Water-house Point, and Cape Portland; on the eastern coast are:—Cape Naturaliste, Eddystone Point, St. Helens Point, Long Point, Cape Tourville, and Cape Bougainville; on the southern coast are:—Cape Pillar, Cape Raoul, Tasman Head, Cape Bruné, South-East Cape, South Cape, and South-West Cape; on the western coast are:—Rocky Cape, Point Hibbs, Cape Sorrell, Sandy Cape, and West Point.

RIVERS.—The island is well watered and abounds in rivers, rivulets, and creeks, the average fall of which may be estimated at ninety-three feet per mile. The principal rivers are:—the Derwent, on the estuary of which is Hobart Town, which issues from Lake St. Clair, receiving in its course the Nive, Dee, Ouse, Clyde, and Jordan from the north, and the Florentine, Russell, Styx, and Plenty from the south; the Huon, navigable and running through a fertile country, which receives the Cracroft, Picton, and other streams, and falls

into D'Entrecasteaux Channel; the Coal River, rising in the eastern chain of mountains and running south into Pittwater. The mouths of these three rivers are to the south-east of T. To the south-west and west are—the Davy River, running into Port Davy; the Gordon, flowing from Lake Richmond and receiving in its course the Wedge, Denison, Serpentine and Franklin Rivers, falling into Macquarie Harbour; King River also falls into Macquarie Harbour; the Pieman River, consisting of the rivers Mackintosh, Murchison, Huskisson and Donaldson; the Arthur River, which receives the Hellyer—these two last falling into the Southern Ocean. On the north, flowing into Bass Straits, are—the Inglis, the Emu, the Leven, the Forth, the Mersey, the Tamar—a tidal river formed by the confluence of the North and South Esk at Launceston, a considerable stream, its sea mouth being practicable for vessels drawing fourteen feet. Coasters can also enter the Don, Forth, Leven, and some others on the northern coast. The North Esk receives the St. Patrick's River about fifteen miles up, and the South Esk receives as tributaries the Meander, Lake River, Macquarie River and St. Paul's River. Another large river falling into Bass Straits is the Ringarooma. On the east coast the only river of importance is George's River, running into George's Bay.

BAYS AND HARBOURS.—The west coast is bold, rocky, and inhospitable; but there are at least three accessible ports. The principal harbours are, on the west coast—Port Davy (much frequented by whaling vessels,) Pieman River and Macquarie Harbour. A steamer plies from Launceston to the north-west coast; a trade is safely carried on at all seasons, and there is abundance of good soil and fine timber yet awaiting the enterprise of man. On the north coast Stanley at Circular Head, Emu Bay, Port Frederick at the mouth of the Mersey, Port Dalrymple at the mouth of the Tamar, and Waterhouse Roads between Anderson and Ringarooma Bays. On the east coast George's Bay, Oyster Bay, Spring Bay and Fortescue Bay. The south and south-east of the island is studded with safe bays and harbours, the principal being Port Arthur, Storm Bay, Norfolk Bay, D'Entrecasteaux Channel, Port Espérance, Southport and Recherche Bay.

LAKES.—There are numerous and extensive lakes on the elevated table-lands, the largest being the Great Lake in the county of Westmoreland, covering an area of upwards of 28,000 acres; Lake Sorell, in the county of Somerset, 17,000 acres; Lake St. Clair, in the county of Lincoln, 10,000 acres; and Arthur Lake (county of Westmoreland) and Lake Echo (county of Cumberland) occupying 8000 to 12,000 acres. These lakes form the head waters of the principal streams flowing south, west, and north. There are a great many smaller lakes and mountain tarns. Most of these are very deep, situated in rock-basins, and owing their origin to the same causes which have produced

the beautiful lakes of the European Alps, of Scotland, Cumberland, Wales, and other mountainous countries in the temperate zone.

GENERAL ASPECTS.—The scenery of T. is picturesque and varied. Its higher mountains are snow-capped for a large part of the year, while their slopes and valleys are clothed with evergreen forests. Fine peaks, rocky precipices, rushing streams, and foaming cataracts, alternate with fertile plains and valleys or grassy uplands. The central valley and its branches furnish much fertile land, and it is here that the best cultivated tracts are seen. Here are well-fenced fields, highly-cultivated gardens, good roads, well-built homesteads, and all the characteristics of the best parts of England. William Howitt, writing in 1854, thus describes the portion of this valley between Campbell Town and Hobart Town:—"The country, the farther we advance towards Hobart Town, increased in beauty. The valley along which we drove became narrower, the hills more lofty, and much more varied in their outline than any Australian scenery which I had yet seen. The valleys were rich, and for the most part as well cultivated as in England. Owing to the difference of tenure here and in Victoria a very different state of things has been the result. Here the occupiers of the land are the owners, and not mere squatters who have no sure tenure of the land and therefore do nothing to it. Here then, instead of mere isolated wooden huts standing in the unappropriated forest, we have a constant succession of towns and villages bearing the singular medley of names which colonists delight in—Ross, Oatlands, Green Ponds, Brighton, Bagdad, Jericho, Jerusalem, and of course the river Jordan. All round these villages, which consist of substantial and even elegant houses, extend the richest fields enclosed with hedges generally of sweet-brier or furze or broom, but also a good many of honest English hawthorn. There you see cattle, sheep, pigs enormously fat, and abundance of poultry of all kinds feeding and flourishing in their respective resorts—the meadows, the woodland slopes or the farm-yards. It is England all over. Everywhere you descry lovely country houses, with all the earthly blessings of fine gardens well walled in, with their conservatories and forcing-houses, their extensive shrubberies, verdant parks and lawns, fields in pasture or under the plough, and woods sloping down solemnly from the hills, with a very tempting aspect. Many of these hills are remarkably steep, yet so rich and smooth are they, that the farmers have ploughed them to their very summits, and grow splendid crops of corn where you would hardly have supposed that a team could have maintained its footing."

CLIMATE.—The climate of T. has many advantages over that of any other part of A., and it is hence termed the sanatorium of the south. Owing to its small area and exceedingly uneven surface. a considerable elevation with a corresponding

change of temperature is everywhere within reach by a journey of a few hours. It possesses the full summer heat due to its latitude and even some excess, for it feels the hot northern winds from the Australian plains, but however hot the days may be the nights are always cool and refreshing, owing to the proximity of the lofty mountains and the cool Antarctic seas. The mean temperature of Hobart Town is $54\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ Fahr. The mean summer temperature is 62° with a maximum (rarely) of 100° , while the mean of winter is 47° with a minimum rarely falling below 29° , though on the uplands at an elevation of 2000 feet it often sinks to 18° below the freezing point, producing ice of a considerable thickness. Rain varies in quantity in different parts of the island, Hobart Town and the east coast having little more than 20 inches, Launceston about 30, while Macquarie Harbour has over 100 inches. But it also varies greatly at the same place, Hobart Town having a range of from 14 to 40 inches. The rainfall though small is well distributed over the year, the mean number of days on which rain falls at Hobart Town being 145, occurring more or less in every season. There is abundance of wind, often violent, but thunderstorms are rare. The atmosphere is rich in ozone, and epidemic diseases are almost unknown. The climate is highly favourable to infant life, nine out of every ten born surviving the first year; and it is especially restorative to enfeebled constitutions from warmer countries.

FLORA.—"Although the physical features and climate of T. are so marked, and the island is separated by so wide an area of the sea from the Australian continent, yet its flora is essentially Australian, and more especially allied to that of the mountainous parts of V. Out of 1063 species of flowering plants only 280 are not Australian, while only 22 genera and 267 species are peculiar to T. It is curious that, although apparently so isolated from all the world except A., this island possesses a considerably larger number of European genera and species of plants, as well as a larger proportion of plants characteristic of N.Z. and the Antarctic lands than are found in A. itself. The forests abound with valuable timbers, the blue-gum (*Eucalyptus globulus*) often reaching a height of more than 300 feet, while the celebrated Huon-pine (*Dacrydium Franklini*) is a most valuable timber for ship-building. Beautiful flowers abound; the Epacrises, Compositæ, Rutaceæ and Leguminosæ are rich in species, and there are nearly eighty distinct kinds of terrestrial orchidæ, many of them having the most curious and elegant flowers."—Wallace.

FAUNA.—"It is somewhat remarkable that the animal life of T. offers more striking peculiarities than do its vegetable forms. It possesses two remarkable mammals, each forming a distinct genus, and both quite unknown on the mainland. One is the "tiger wolf" of the colonists—the *Thylacinus cynocephalus* of naturalists—the largest

of the carnivorous marsupials. It is nearly as large as a wolf, and is handsomely striped across the back and hind quarters. It is exceedingly bloodthirsty and commits great havoc among the flocks of the settlers whose farms lie near the wooded mountains in which it dwells. The other animal is the *Sarcophilus ursinus* or "native devil," a thick-set creature resembling an ugly bear-like eat. It is black with white patches, and considering its smaller size is even more destructive than the *Thylacinus*, and is exceedingly savage and untamable. It was formerly very abundant and destroyed great quantities of poultry and sheep, but having been persistently hunted and trapped, is now getting scarce in most districts. Both these animals are nocturnal. It is a very singular fact that both these species have recently become extinct in A., their remains being found in the post-tertiary drifts and cave deposits. What causes can have exterminated such hardy and ferocious creatures in the one country and preserved them in the other it is not easy to conjecture. There are no other genera of mammals peculiar to T., but several of the species are distinct from those of the mainland, among them the *Echidna*, or porcupine ant-eater, and the wombat; but the latter, though offering some differences, is not generally admitted as a distinct species by naturalists. Birds are abundant, but they are generally the same as those of the adjacent parts of A., no genera and comparatively few species being peculiar. There are only three species of snakes, but all are venomous."—*Wallace*.

GEOLOGY—"The extremely mountainous character of the whole surface of T. leads us to anticipate the wide prevalence of the ancient Palæozoic and metamorphic rocks, and the abundance of granite. These formations constitute almost the whole of the table-lands and lofty peaks. Mesozoic rocks occur in the lower hills, and are more prevalent than in A. Sandstone, supposed to be of Triassic age occurs near Hobart Town, forming hills capped with basalt. Tertiary beds occupy much of the larger valleys and plains, some of the latter being basaltic; beds of fresh-water limestone occur in the south, and there are raised beaches on both sides the Derwent River. Igneous and volcanic rocks abound. Porphyries and greenstones occur on most of the plateaux, and form parts of many of the highest mountains. Dykes or beds of greenstone are the cause of most of the Tasmanian waterfalls. These are probably all Palæozoic, while basalts occur of every age down to the Pliocene Tertiary. There are no true volcanic cones or lava streams as in Southern and Eastern Australia. The islands in Bass Straits are granite, which corresponds with that of the north-eastern corner of T. and of Wilson's Promontory on the opposite coast of V. The secondary sandstones produce fine building material. Limestone occurs in a longitudinal band in the Derwent Valley and on the north coast, where are extensive caves. Coal

and lignite occur in many localities, and are believed to be both of Palæozoic and Mesozoic age. Some of the coal is of good quality, but the character of the country makes the mines difficult of access, and little of it is yet worked. Gold also occurs in quartz veins, as in A., but in no great quantity, and the mining operations are of but little importance. Rich iron ore occurs on the north coast, and in many other localities. Tin, lead, antimony, manganese and plumbago also occur, but only the tin has been worked to any extent. There are also some quarries of good roofing-slates. T. has been described as a network of ridges enclosing numerous small plains and valleys. Many of these ridges are of greenstone, with intervening valleys of Palæozoic rocks, while some of the higher peaks are capped with quartz or syenite. When the geological structure of the island is thoroughly worked out and the whole surface accurately surveyed and mapped, we shall have an admirable illustration of the effects of denudation, controlled and modified by variations in the texture and position of the rocky framework, in producing a highly complex mountain system with its intricate tracery of ravines and river-valleys."—*Wallace*.

ABORIGINES.—The aboriginal population which was never numerous has now become entirely extinct, the last of the race, an old woman, having died in 1876 at the age of seventy-three. At the time of the colonisation of the island it is estimated that they numbered six or seven thousand. These people were in many respects a peculiar race, quite distinct from the Australian natives, and more resembling the races of Melanesia. They were shorter and stouter than Australians, with flatter noses, but the great difference was in the hair, which instead of being fine and silky was rough and woolly like that of most of the African and Papuan tribes. Their distinctness from the Australians is further proved by their total ignorance of the two characteristic weapons of that country—the boomerang and the throwing-stick. They used no weapons but a spear thrown by the hand, and a club. They had no shields. Their huts were as rude as those of the Australians—mere open shelters from the rain and wind. They had no clothing, no pottery, and no agriculture. Although living on an island and everywhere near the sea or navigable rivers, they had no boats, and only a few tribes on the south and west coasts constructed rude rafts propelled with common sticks in place of paddles or oars. Their only other manufactures were baskets and string. They were long believed to be ignorant of the art of making fire, as they were so very careful never to let it become extinguished; but "fire-sticks" similar to those used by most savages have been found among them, and it is therefore more probable that the women were made to keep up a constant supply of fire, in order to save the men from the considerable labour and delay of procuring it by friction in a country where suitable, dry, and

easily ignited wood was not always to be found. They were not cannibals, and do not appear to have treated their women with the same reckless barbarity as the Australians. They burnt their dead, and are said to have had a distinct belief in a future state. Although so low in all the material indications of civilisation, there is reason to believe that they were far higher than the Australians both intellectually and morally. When the last remnant of them were living on the islands in Bass Straits, they showed not only an aptitude but a positive love of learning. They became cleanly in their habits and neat and orderly in their dwellings. The men became industrious; they made roads and worked in the fields, and they took great delight in games such as cricket, dancing, swings and marbles. The women learnt to sew, and made mat dresses for themselves and their families; and all this is said to have been done without compulsion or pressure, but of their own free will. Taking all these things into consideration, we cannot but believe that here was a race with capacities for advancement which never had an opportunity of development till too late. Their first introduction to civilisation was through rude sealers who visited the coasts and the vilest convicts who escaped into the interior. Their country being occupied by white invaders, they made war against them in vain. Even the mistaken kindness of the more humane settlers and of the Government became their ruin; for the gifts of clothing they received, in addition to that which they captured in their numerous successful raids on the houses of the early settlers, worn for a time and then lost, bartered or thrown aside, rendered them susceptible to cold, and thus brought on the lung diseases that, more than any others, proved fatal to them. Thus has passed away an interesting race, whose affinities are a puzzle to the anthropologist. Their origin will probably ever remain an unsolved enigma. The last man, William Hanne (King Billy,) died at Hobart Town on 3rd March 1869, aged thirty-four years. At the first settlement of the colony the Aborigines numbered some thousands, but from the time of the massacre at Risdon in 1803 till 1832 war was ruthlessly waged between them and the colonists. In 1830 an attempt on a gigantic scale called *The Line* was made to drive the Aborigines into a corner of the island. It signally failed, not one being captured, but the exhibition of numbers and power is thought to have had some influence on the blacks and to have led to some extent to the success of the efforts of Robinson. In the year 1830 he undertook the part of conciliator or pacificator, and after five years of untold dangers and hardships, with the assistance of some friendly blacks, was successful in gathering in the whole of the remains of the Tasmanian race, who were placed on South Bruné Island. From here they were transferred to Gun Carriage Island, and eventually the remnant, reduced to forty-four souls, was transported to

Oyster Cove, a few miles from Hobart Town. In 1854 they numbered but sixteen, and from that time they gradually died off. At their several settlements efforts were made to Christianise them and teach them the arts of civilisation, but the results were not very encouraging, and the change of mode of living and other causes had a detrimental effect and considerably hastened their end.

THE SOIL.—In a well-written account of the colony recently published it is stated that there is much variety in the nature of the soil of T., according to locality. In some places it is poor, with hardly alluvium enough for cultivation; in others it is remarkably rich, yielding luxuriant crops to a very indifferent style of farming. The central plateau affords a great extent of fine pasture, and the alluvial soil of the lower plains and valleys, derived chiefly from the disintegration of the trap rocks, is exceedingly fertile. As a rule most of the European grains, fruits and vegetables can be cultivated and brought to perfection, and some kinds of tropical plants also thrive in certain localities. Tasmanian wheat and barley have long held a high reputation, although, in common with other Australian Colonies, the farmers have of late years suffered severely from the ravages of "rust," and in one or two uneven seasons frost has very materially affected the crops. Of the soil generally it may be said the basaltic formation prevails in unbroken sections all over the island, and as a rule is good friable land, easy to work, dry lying, suitable for all kinds of crops grown, and also a good soil for artificial grasses and clover. Another and more lasting kind of soil for repeated croppings is the alluvial clayey nature overlying the numerous river flats, and in some localities prevailing on the hill sides and uplands of broken country in irregular patches. This class of land gives a splendid permanent pasture. A third variety is a sandy loam of a light nature, easy to work, and is the best wheat-growing soil, but does not hold grasses or clover for a series of years.

POPULATION.—The population of the colony by the census of 7th February 1870 was 99,328—52,853 males and 46,475 females, being more than four times the population of W.A. and almost the same as Q. in 1869. On 31st December 1878 it was calculated that the population was 109,947—males, 58,036; females, 51,911. During the year there were registered 3502 births, 1700 deaths, and 866 marriages. The professions, trades, or occupations of the people by the census of 1870 were as follows:—Army and navy, 169; artisans and mechanics, 4473; civil servants, 615; clergymen, 129; domestic servants, 4319; farmers, 4837; farm labourers, 10,310; hawkers, 151; lawyers (including barristers, solicitors, and attorneys), 71; licensed victuallers, 408; labourers, other than agricultural and mechanics, 3701; merchants and bankers, 102; miners and gold-diggers, 179; medical profession, 81; stockholders, 594; schoolmasters and schoolmistresses, 558; shopkeepers,

1001; sailors and others connected with the sea, 879. The remainder are too numerous to be classified, and comprise tradesmen of all kinds, manufacturers, clerks, compositors, and others. As regards birth and nationality, 59,119 were native born, 1793 were born in other colonies, 37,145 claimed the United Kingdom as their fatherland, 506 were Germans, 235 belonged to the various European countries excepting Germany, 143 were Americans, 128 were born in the East Indies, the remainder for the most part belonging to various British dependencies in both hemispheres. The total number of houses or dwellings was 20,364, of which 7844 were brick, 12,421 wood and iron, and 99 canvas, 18,048 being occupied, 2146 being empty, and 170 in course of erection.

EDUCATION.—The higher branches of education are under the management of a Council; the lower under that of a Board. There are seven public schools in Hobart Town, three in Launceston, and at least one in every country township, supported by the Government, and open to all, under a Board, under whose supervision is the distribution of all moneys voted by Parliament for the purpose of public education. In 1878, 164 schools in all were in operation, the average number of scholars on the roll being 8297, and the average daily attendance being 6032. There were on the rolls 12,458 scholars, taught by 112 male teachers, 146 female teachers, and forty pupil teachers and paid monitors; the average cost to Government of each scholar was £2 13s. 9½d., the average expenditure per child being £3 16s. 4d. The average cost to Government of each scholar (including cost of administration) was £2 17s. 6½d. From these schools exhibitions are attainable by examinations in each year to one of the superior schools, of which there are four—Horton College, High School, Hutchins' School, and the Church Grammar School. These exhibitions are thirty-two in number and vary from £16 13s. 4d. to £20 a year. During 1879 thirteen in all were awarded. The Council of Education annually confers two scholarships and the degree of Associate of Arts on such candidates as have attained the prescribed standard. In 1879 there was one successful for the scholarship; twenty-two passed for the degree of associate. To the successful candidates and to them alone are open the Tasmanian scholarships of which two of £200 per annum each, tenable for four years at a British university, are offered for competition every year. The attendance of children at school is compulsory under a fine of £2, unless it can be shown that the child is being privately educated, or is prevented by sickness or other valid cause from being present. There are four ragged schools, all in Hobart, with an average attendance of 391.

AGRICULTURE.—The leading crops are wheat, oats, barley, potatoes, peas and beans. Hops are also largely and profitably cultivated. Fruits of all kinds grow luxuriantly, including cherries,

plums, quinces, mulberries, peaches, apricots, walnuts, filberts, almonds, figs, gooseberries, strawberries, raspberries, currants and the grape. Fruit preserving forms an important branch of industry. The Tasmanian export of jams and preserved fruit in 1879 amounted to 3,915,881 lbs., valued at £100,000. 142,252 bushels of green fruit were exported, valued at £51,519. The statistics for the year 1879-80 show that the number of acres under cultivation was 366,911, of which 45,191 were in wheat; 6571 in barley; 37,259 in oats; 5958 in peas; 353 in beans; 186 in tares; 9762 in potatoes; 2048 in turnips; 124 in carrots; 1120 in mangold-wurzel; 78 in onions; 3553 in artificial grasses; 35,638 in hay; 578 in hops; 6559 in gardens and orchards; 1198 in green forage; 117,666 in permanent artificial grasses; 26,287 under bare fallow, 66,399, all other cultivated land. The yield of the principal crops is thus stated:—Wheat 1,042,999 bushels; barley 182,753 bushels; oats 1,065,847 bushels; potatoes 31,103 tons; hay 54,079 tons; hops 738,616 lbs. The average yield per acre was:—Wheat 23'08 bushels; barley 27'82 bushels; oats 28'60 bushels; potatoes 3'18 tons; hay 1'51 tons; hops 1280 lbs. The live stock was:—Horses 24,593; horned cattle 129,317; sheep 1,835,970; pigs 38,610; goats 2278; mules 4; asses 11. The yield of fruit during 1879 was:—140,277 bushels of apples, 19,340 bushels of pears. The agricultural machinery employed on farms and stations comprised 102 engines of 775 h.p., 94 clod-crushers, 150 cultivators, 11 hay elevators, 531 horse-hoes, grubbers and scarifiers, 90 mowing machines, 162 subsoil ploughs, 276 double-furrow ploughs, 133 reaping machines, 157 reaper and mower combined, 29 sowing machines, and 187 threshing machines. Of the total area of the colony 4,193,445 acres have been alienated, either by sale or grant. 2,023,013 acres are held on depasturing leases; annual rental being £8360.

MINERAL AND OTHER RESOURCES.—The colony is divided into two districts, called the "Western Mining District" and the "Eastern Mining District." The mineral resources of the colony, which had been neglected for many years, received a great impetus at the end of 1872 by the discovery of extensive deposits of tin ore at Mount Bischoff, in the north-west quarter of the island; and about the same time attention was directed to the extensive deposits of iron ore, especially on the banks of the River Tamar. Tin has since been found spread over a considerable extent of country in the opposite, or north-east corner of the island, and has now become one of the most important products of the colony. Though during 1879 the yield fell off, the yield of pure tin from the Mount Bischoff ore is said to have been from seventy to eighty per cent., the average being about seventy-four per cent. In 1876 the value of tin in ore and ingots exported was £100,000; in 1877 it was £296,941; in 1878 it was £316,311. Gold mining has become a recognised industry, and the returns

from some of the lately-opened fields have been very encouraging. The precious metal has been found widely scattered over the northern portion of the island, both in the alluvial and in quartz veins. The auriferous region has been described as embracing the following localities:—The Pieman River, the Hellyer diggings in the bed and on the banks of the river of that name, Anderson's Creek, and Brandy Creek, Nine Mile Springs, Den Diggings, Back Creek Diggings, Laura, Pipers River, Denison Diggings, Thisle, Waterhouse, and at Mangana and the Black Boy goldfields. The first discovery of gold it is said was on the Tullochgorum estate, near Fingal shortly after the Victoria diggings were opened. The gold mining statistics for 1878 were as follows:—Number of miners 1050, of whom 545 were engaged in alluvial and 505 in quartz. Value of plant £46,000, £2000 alluvial and £44,000 quartz. Yield of gold from the alluvial 11,462 ozs. of gold valued at £45,750, an average of £3 19s. 10d. per oz.; from quartz 13,787 ozs. from 15,085 tons of stone, valued at £54,250, an average of £3 18s. 8d. per oz., average yield being 17 dwts. 12 grs. crushed, at an average cost of about 9s. 6d. per ton. For the year 1879 the statistics are 2060 miners of whom 1535 were engaged in alluvial and 525 in quartz. Value of plant £60,200, £5200 alluvial and £55,000 quartz. Yield from the alluvial 37,750 ozs. of gold valued at £146,500, an average of £3 17s. 7d. per oz.; from quartz 22,405 ozs. from 15,334 tons of stone valued at £84,395, an average of £3 15s. 4d. per oz., average yield being 1 oz. 18 dwts. 7 grs. per ton. Up to 30th June 1879 the yield of gold from the year 1866 is approximately estimated at 48,753 ozs. 15 dwts. 2 grs. of the value of £191,181 14s. 5d. from the alluvial, and 72,181 ozs. 3 dwts. of the value of £285,816 14s. 5d. from the quartz. A lode of bismuth of great extent has been discovered at Mount Ramsay, and pronounced by Ulrich to be one of the richest if not the very richest in the world. Lodes of copper and lead have also been discovered. A lode of antimony two feet thick has been found at the 120-foot level in the Waratah Company's claim. It assayed 28·8 per cent. of antimony, 24 per cent. of lead, and silver in the proportion of 7 ozs. 9 dwt. 8 gr. to the ton of ore. Diamonds have been found at Flinders Island. Coal is abundant at Mount Nicholas and Douglas River, in the north-east of the colony; also at Hamilton in the centre, at the Mersey in the north-west, at Jerusalem and at Gardiner's Bay, a locality about fifty miles S. of Hobart, where a four-feet seam is now at work. It has analysed 61·4 per cent of pure carbon. In addition to these there are extensive coal mines at Port Seymour which are not now worked: this is a bituminous coal. A seam of bituminous coal has been found near the Sandfly Rivulet and is now being worked. There are also extensive deposits of anthracite coal at Port Arthur and New Town, with which the city of Hobart

Town is partially supplied. During 1878 there were raised in all 12,311 tons. Limestone is abundant and of excellent quality. Large quarries of stone admirably suited for building purposes are in work, and it is exported largely to Melbourne where many of the principal public buildings are constructed with it. It is a compact, fine-grained white or brown freestone. The Law Courts, Melbourne, are built with freestone from the Orford and Okehampton quarries. During 1876 the following mines or quarries were being worked:—1 bluestone, 4 coal, 2 flagstone, 8 freestone, 1 iron ore, 3 lime, 2 limestone, 1 slate, and 2 tin ore. The quantities raised in 1879 were—2500 tons of ironstone, 9514 tons of coal, 8500 cubic feet of flagstone, 123,221 cubic feet and 20 tons of freestone, 12,900 bushels of lime, 1824 tons of limestone, and 5791 tons of tin ore. There are 57 companies engaged in mining pursuits, of which 24 are for gold, 1 for iron, 32 for tin, 1 (the Emu Bay) is a prospecting company, and 1 is for tin smelting: the shares range from £1 to £50, and the capital from £600 to £250,000. Timber is plentiful, the wood of the Eucalyptus, or gum tree, being of great value for ship-building purposes, railway sleepers, and house work, and all purposes where strength and endurance are required. The pine and the wood of many other trees are well adapted for furniture, fittings, and in-door work generally. Wattle bark is largely exported for tanning purposes. At the Melbourne Intercolonial Exhibition in 1880 the exhibits from T., showing the value and extent of its resources, received marked attention. The Tasmanian iron has been found to possess some remarkable properties, one of which is that steel made from it is as malleable as soft Swedish iron. It appears to be extensively distributed, but has not been turned to practical account owing to the ore being impregnated with chromium, which has greatly depreciated its value for manufacturing purposes. The slate quarries are now turning out slates of excellent quality. Near Brown's River is a shot tower, the manufacture of which is fast superseding the imported article, and is in good demand in the neighbouring colonies.

ELECTRIC TELEGRAPHS.—A line of telegraph exists between Hobart Town and Launceston, between Launceston and Deloraine, and also extends to Bothwell, to New Norfolk, and other places. In April 1869 telegraphic communication was established by means of a submarine cable between T. and V.

RAILWAYS.—The lines of railway in working are the Launceston and Western Railway connecting Deloraine, Westbury, Longford, Perth, and Evandale with Launceston; and the main line of railway from Hobart Town to Launceston. The Launceston and Western Line was constructed by a company at a cost of £450,000 (or excluding interest £429,604, being £95·47 per mile,) of which £50,000 was raised by shares, the remaining £400,000 by Government debentures bearing 6 per

cent. interest, the interest partly re-guaranteed by the railway district. A further sum of £60,000 at 5 per cent. was subsequently raised to complete it. The line was formally opened by the Governor on 10th February 1871. On 3rd August 1872 the line was taken over by the Government of the Colony and is now under the control of the Minister of Lands and Works. The length of the railway is forty-five miles, the gauge being 4ft. 8in. The Main Line Railway extends from Hobart Town to Launceston 133 miles. The Mersey and Deloraine Railway, to connect the Mersey River with Deloraine, was partially opened on 1st January 1871; eighteen miles only were completed, leaving twelve miles to connect it with Deloraine. It was constructed by private individuals; but from insufficiency of capital and other causes the undertaking collapsed. The question of purchasing and completing the line was under the consideration of the Legislature in February 1880, but the Bill to authorise the purchase was thrown out.

REVENUE, EXPORTS AND IMPORTS.—The revenue for 1879 (not including loans) was £375,367. The Customs realised in 1879 £199,688. The exports for 1879 were £1,301,897. The exports of wool alone for 1879 amounted to 7,385,002 lbs., of the value of £407,227, and of tin £303,203. The imports for 1879 were £1,267,475. The other principal articles of export are bark, bran and pollard, butter and cheese, flour, fruits (preserved and green), gold, wheat, oats, barley, hides, skins and leather, hops, horses, sheep, sperm and black oil, fruits, vegetables, and colonial brewed ale. The export of hops amounted to £26,512, and of fruit and jams to £151,802. In 1879 the exports amounted to £11 14s. 10½d. per head of the population, and the imports to £11 7s. 11d. For the first six months of 1880 the imports amounted to £659,236, and the exports to £832,193. During the same time there were exported £115,606 value of gold, and tin to the value of £161,638. The debt of the colony at the end of 1879 was £1,786,800, which has been incurred for the following purposes:—Public works, including railway, £1,305,429; immigration, £194,000; to commute State aid to religion, £100,000; payment of an old debt to Imperial Government, £30,500; debentures for deficiency in revenue, £156,871. The principal part of these debentures is issued at 6 per cent. per annum, payable half yearly, and the remainder at 4 and 5 per cent. The amount of interest paid during the year was £91,838. The indebtedness per head of the population is calculated at £15 16s. 11½d. The expenditure (excluding services provided for by loans) in 1879 was £402,295. In his Financial Statement, made on 18th August 1880, the Treasurer stated that the present year (1880) began with a deficiency of £7712. The estimated revenue for the year was £430,770, and the expenditure £418,192, leaving a surplus of £12,578, and deducting the deficit at the beginning of the year it would leave £4866 of

surplus to begin the year 1881. The revenue for 1881 was estimated at £435,070, and the expenditure at £434,971, which would leave an estimated surplus of £10,099. The amount proposed for public works was £275,000, including £120,000 for the Mersey Railway. It was proposed to raise a 4 per cent. loan of £567,000 for works and the redemption of debentures.

MANUFACTORIES AND INDUSTRIES.—The climate is especially adapted to malting and brewing and also to the growth of hops. The Tasmanian brewed ale is that which is chiefly drunk in the colony, and an export trade is carried on with N.S.W. and V. There are eighteen breweries, twenty tanneries, four soap and five candle manufactories, eight jam-boiling establishments, fifty-two saw mills, thirty-five agricultural implement works, four brass foundries, fourteen coachbuilding factories, eighty-one fellmongeries, twenty-two steam flour mills, thirty-seven water mills, three potteries, two tin smelting works, and there is also now one manufactory of cloth, tweeds, blankets, &c., from Tasmanian wool, which has been stimulated by the payment of a bonus of £1000 by Parliament. The articles manufactured are of excellent quality.

GOVERNMENT.—The constitution was settled by the local Act of 18 Vic., No. 17. By this Act a Legislative Council and a House of Assembly are constituted, called the "Parliament of Van Diemen's Land." In 1871 an alteration was made by the addition of one member to the Council and two members to the Assembly (Act 34 Vic., No. 42.) The Legislative Council is composed of sixteen members, who must be natural born or naturalised subjects not holding offices of profit or emolument from the Crown (except responsible ministers,) and not less than thirty years of age, elected for six years by all natural-born or naturalised subjects of the Crown of full age, who possess either a £30 freehold, a leasehold of £200 yearly value, or are officers in the army or navy not on active service, or have a degree of some university, or are in holy orders, or are medical practitioners. The House of Assembly consists of thirty-two members for whom no special qualification is required save that of being of the age of twenty-one years and subjects of the Queen, and who are elected for five years by £7 householders or leaseholders, or freeholders of estate of the value of £50, or selectors who have paid up to the amount of £50, and all subjects holding a commission in the army or navy, or possessing a degree, or in holy orders, or receiving a salary of £80 a year. The elections are conducted on the ballot system. The legislative authority rests in both Houses united, while the executive power is vested in a Governor appointed by the Crown. The Governor is by virtue of his office Commander-in-Chief of the troops in the colony. He is aided in the exercise of the executive power by a Cabinet of responsible ministers, consisting of four official members—the Colonial Secretary, the Colonial Treasurer, the

Attorney-General, and the Minister of Lands and Works. A Minister without a portfolio has occasionally been included. The Members of the Cabinet must have a seat in either House of Parliament.

HISTORY.—I. *Early Navigators*.—Tasmania, as stated in the preceding article, was discovered by Tasman in 1642, and named after the Governor-General of the Dutch East India possessions. In 1772 its shores, left apparently untouched for so many years after the first discovery, were visited by Marion, the French navigator. He anchored, as Tasman had done, in Frederik Hendrik Bay, and landed with a party, but departed again hastily after an encounter with natives; and recorded his being unable to procure water, or to find a tree fit to make a mast of, thereby giving ample proof that his search was very superficial. In the same year Cook, in the *Resolution*, and Furneaux, in the *Adventure*, on their voyage of exploration towards the South Pole, became separated during a fog. Cook sailed to N.Z. Furneaux touched at V.D.L., discovered Adventure Bay, sailed along the East Coast, and then also made for N.Z. Cook, on his third and last voyage to the Pacific, visited the island himself, anchoring in Adventure Bay, where he left some pigs. The edition of his voyages published in London in the last century describes the delight of his officers with the spot, and mentions "stately groves, rivers, and lawns of vast extent," with "thickets full of birds of the most beautiful plumage, and various note." In 1789 John Henry Cox in the brig *Mercury* attempted to enter Adventure Bay, but being driven to the eastward, discovered Oyster Bay. Bligh touched at V.D.L. in 1788, and again in 1792, when he planted some fruit trees, fig, pomegranates and quinces. In 1792 Rear-Admiral Bruné D'Entrecasteaux, in the ship *Recherche*, accompanied by Captain Huon Kermadec in the *Esperance*, having been sent out by the French Government to ascertain the fate of La Perouse, discovered the channel which bears the Admiral's name, and found that it extended to the Storm Bay of Tasman. They entered and named the Huon and the "Rivière du Nord" (now the Derwent.) Their charts are said to be the finest specimens of marine surveying ever made in a new country. La Billardière, the renowned botanist, was naturalist to this expedition. Up to this period the island was believed to form part of the "Great South Land," but in 1798 Bass made in a six-oared whale-boat from Port Jackson, a voyage of exploration lasting eleven weeks, during which he satisfied himself of the existence of a dividing channel; and on his representations Governor Hunter authorised Flinders to accompany him in the *Norfolk*, a colonial sloop of twenty-five tons, for the purpose of confirming the supposition. They then discovered Port Dalrymple (named after Alexander Dalrymple, hydrographer to the Admiralty,) and passing along the coast to a peculiar headland "like a Christmas cake," which they called

Circular Head. The extreme N.W. point they named Cape Grim; and observing the mountains noticed by Tasman when he visited the coast, they gave to two of them the names of his vessels, *Heemskirk* and *Zeehaan*. Point Hibbs was named after the master of their little sloop, and on their return to Point Jackson, Governor Hunter, at the desire of Flinders, bestowed the name of Bass on the important strait which had become known through Bass's intrepidity and enterprise.

II. *First Settlers*.—In 1803 Lieut. Bowen was sent from Sydney in the *Lady Nelson* for the purpose of making an auxiliary settlement in V.D.L. connected with that of Port Jackson. He selected the spot previously pointed out by Flinders as especially suitable for such an undertaking, and landed with his small party at Risdon, on the Derwent. This little pioneer band was greatly augmented the following year by the arrival of the comparatively numerous body of civil and military officers, marines, and convicts who removed from Port Phillip, ostensibly on account of the unfitness of that country for occupation; but the fallacy of this assumption has been fully proved. This second detachment on arrival from Port Phillip landed at Sullivan's Cove, now the port of Hobart, under the command of Lieutenant-Governor Collins. The *Lady Nelson* was then dispatched to Port Dalrymple, and surveyed the entrance of the Tamar. In consequence of the favourable report made, a small party was sent thither from Port Jackson, under Colonel Paterson, to form a settlement, in October 1804. On the banks of a small stream called Humphrey's Rivulet, about four miles north of Hobart, it was that these first settlers planted their homesteads. Four persons fixed themselves there, each receiving from the Government 100 acres of land. The names of these founders of the colony, as they stand in the first page of the oldest land register of the Survey Office, are Edward Miller, Leonard Fosbrook, Mathew Bowden, and J. M. Johnson; some, if not all, of whom were persons holding important posts in the Government establishment of the day. From these small beginnings the colonisation of the island progressed steadily, though not rapidly. The new settlement on the west bank of the Derwent was named by Collins after his patron, Lord Hobart, but for many years was usually spoken of as the "Camp." Subsequently the county, at first including half the island, was called after the same nobleman. The northern settlement, formed by Colonel Paterson, was seated on the western shore of the Tamar, and called York Town. From this spot the greater part of the new establishment was removed in 1806 to the junction of the North and South Esk Rivers. The Tamar was traced, and named by Colonel Paterson after a Cornish river, and the valley of Launceston after the chief town of Cornwall, in honour of Governor King, whose father was a draper in the latter place. Both as a traveller and naturalist, but more particularly as a

botanist, Paterson is remembered by the scientific world. He directed the Government botanical establishment at Parramatta, and the repository of native shrubs intended for the gardens at Kew. He planted trees at York Town, some of which are said to have been growing there within the past few years. Port Dalrymple, as the northern settlement was called, was not under the government of Hobart until 1812. The first communication between Hobart and Launceston was opened by Lieutenant Laycock and his party; they were nine days on the route, and their arrival at Hobart excited great astonishment. The orders issued by the Home authorities in 1803 for the removal of the settlers from Norfolk Island (which had been colonised in 1788,) not having been complied with, were peremptorily repeated in 1808 by Mr. Windham, then Secretary of State, and Captain Bligh, directed Captain Piper to compel the colonists to evacuate the island, and even to shoot anyone who might retreat to the woods to avoid embarkation. They were conveyed to V.D.L. chiefly in the *Estramina*, *City of Edinburgh*, and *Sydney*; 254 arrived on 15th October 1808. On the determination of the Government being announced, the settlers manifested great repugnance. The elder people declared they would not quit the country; it was, however, the decree of an irresistible will. The inhabitants were offered a settlement in V.D.L. or N.S.W.; mostly they chose the former country. They received from the Government whatever would contribute towards reconciling them to the change. Vessels were provided for their removal, their possession in land was doubled, and it was freed from all conditions and reservations. They received cattle as loan, and they were rationed as new settlers from the public stores. That the change was beneficial to the rising generation can hardly be doubted; but the effect on the parents was generally painful. Time was required to equal the cultivation of the spot they had left, compared with which even V.D.L. seemed blank and barren. Years after, they spoke of the change with regret and sadness. On the arrival of the *Sydney*, Collins looked narrowly into the probable resources at his disposal, and sent Joseph Holt to examine the land on the Derwent, with a view to future location. He proceeded along its shores, until a ledge of rocks obstructed the passage of his boat; then ascending an eminence not less in apparent height than the Dromedary Mountain, "I sat down," he writes, "on its top, and saw the finest country eyes ever beheld." This was that extensive district which, from the previous residence of its occupiers, was named New Norfolk. The spot whence he surveyed the subjacent land he called Mount Casha. The settlement was early involved in great difficulties. The hoe, the usual implement of husbandry, effected but a slow and discouraging progress; supplies from Port Jackson were forwarded in small quantities, and were soon altogether interrupted. In 1806 a disaster occurred

which reduced the elder colony to severe privation. The tempting fertility of the land bordering on the Hawkesbury, the Nile of this hemisphere, induced the petty farmers, whose homesteads dotted its margin, to overlook its dangers. An inundation, remembered as "the great flood," exceeded all former devastations; vast torrents, of which the origin was unknown, descended from the mountains, and pouring down with prodigious violence, suddenly filled and overflowed the channels of the river; and rising to the height of sixty and eighty feet in a few hours, swept away the stacks of corn, the live stock, and even the dwellings. A vessel approaching the coast saw fragments of the floating ruins many miles distant from the shore. Thus, lately possessing a superabundant store, the poor suffered extreme destitution, and the price of maize and wheat rose to £5 and £6 per bushel. Unable to succour the colony, the Government left it to its own resources, and for several years the scarcity continued with various intensity. The kangaroo hunters were the chief purveyors of food. The officers who were allowed servants sent them to the woods and sold their spoil to the Government. Considerable profits were made by the more successful; the commissariat allowed one shilling and sixpence per pound; and the foundation of some fortunes were laid by persons whose servants were faithful and expert. A marine, assisted by two convicts, delivered to the king's stores 1000 lbs. of kangaroo per month, and continued in this occupation for several years. A few coarse biscuits were distributed while they lasted, but the substitute for bread was the dried and pounded flesh of kangaroo. The Government, unable to feed, could no longer task the prisoners; to lessen the pressure they were sometimes permitted to disperse in search of subsistence, and thus laid the foundation of those lawless habits which afterwards brought the colony to the verge of ruin. The *Sydney* had been chartered to India for wheat, but was lost, and the colony was disappointed of the expected relief. When the calamity became known a second effort was made. Colonel Paterson while Acting-Governor of N.S.W. contracted with Captain Bunker of the *Venus* to bring a cargo of wheat from Bengal. It was not until 1810 that she anchored in the Derwent; the dread of famine was removed, and wheat was now valued at twelve shillings a bushel. The change of seed enabled farmers to clear their ground of that mixed and inferior grain which had disappointed all attempts at agricultural independence. Whilst he was at Bengal, the captain of the *Venus* received from the Governor two prisoners, supposed to be castaways from a vessel seized at Port Jackson. Stewart, formerly a lieutenant in the navy, secretly contrived a plan to take the *Harrington*, a vessel richly laden, and provisioned for a long voyage. The wind blew fair as she lay in Sydney harbour, a tempting prize; embracing the favourable movement,

Stewart called together several companions whom he could trust, and submitted his project at the instant proper for its execution—the first successfully attempted by prisoners. Thus, before suspicion was awakened, he had seized a boat, hurried on board, mastered the crew, and was scudding before the breeze. But at sea his good fortune forsook him; the *Harrington* was recaptured by the *Greyhound*, and both ships were lost on the coast of Luconia. These pirates were permitted to land at the Derwent and were left behind by the *Venus*. They were found at the house of Garth, a settler, by soldiers sent to seize spirits secretly landed from the vessel. Mistaking the errand of the soldiers, one of these men called on his comrades to resist them; and being enraged by a refusal, he fired and inflicted a mortal wound. Such complicated crime was not extraordinary; but the kind of force necessary in the civil government, and the shelter afforded to outlaws, were symptoms of social disorder which soon after assumed an alarming character. During the administration of Collins the progress of the colony was barely perceptible. There were no roads in the interior; no public buildings; the house of the Governor was a mere cottage, too mean for the accommodation of a modern mechanic. When the transfer from Norfolk Island commenced at the close of 1805, stock belonging to the Governor-in-Chief was purchased by George Guest who sold the sheep at £5 per head, and was repaid in cattle. The first Tasmanian house stood on land adjoining the Macquarie Hotel; it was built by Lieutenant E. Lord, of wattle-and-dab; its windows were like the portholes of a vessel. That it was the first constituted its chief claim to distinction; it was considered as an achievement of civilisation—a trophy gained upon the wilderness. All were not so well lodged; yet such houses are soon reared. Posts, joined by wall-plates, fixed in the ground, woven with wattle rods, plastered with mingled clay, sand, and wiry short grass, and whitened, a grass-thatched roof, a chimney of turf piled on stone, a door and a window, and the cottage is finished. A few acres of land had been cultivated at New Town by prisoners in charge of Clarke, the superintendent; cattle had arrived from Bengal and sheep from Port Jackson; but the progress of the settlement had hitherto been slow. In N.S.W. gangs of men stripped to the waist laboured together, and were exposed to rigorous discipline common to slaves. These methods of tillage were introduced into V.D.L., where as yet there were no fields prepared for the plough, nor beast of draught to facilitate human toil. The chief overseers were not skilled in cultivation; one had been a shoemaker, the other a tailor; and while they were expecting large returns, they were ignorant that the full ears which promised an abundant yield were smut, not grain. This early failure was attended with disastrous results. In 1810 Collins attempted to establish a newspaper, *The Derwent*

Star and Van Diemen's Land Intelligencer. Though but a quarto leaf, with broad margin and all the contrivances which dilate the substance of a journal, it was much too large for the settlement, where often there was nothing to sell; where a birth or marriage was published sooner than a paragraph could be printed; where a taste for general literature had no existence, and politics were excluded. The second number contains a rather pompous account of Governor Macquarie's inauguration at Sydney. The next issue, besides a Government order or two, describes the feat of Barclay the pedestrian, a thousand miles in a thousand hours; the wonderful longevity of Joseph Ram, a black of Jamaica, who died in his 140th year; then the greatness of Daniel Lambert, whose body weighed 52lbs. fourteen times told, and who was sent by an inclined plane into his grave. Then follow a eulogy on the Governor's profession, one trial, one ship, two births and one marriage. It was the misfortune of Collins to be involved with the parties responsible in the deposition of Governor Bligh. This remarkable deviation from the ordinary conduct of British soldiers has been attributed partly to the composition of the military force raised for that colony, and partly to the temper of Bligh. The officers merged the military character in the mercantile spirit, and were accustomed to enjoy privileges in virtue of their commissions which they converted into a monopoly of trade. The distance of N.S.W. from the centre of commerce induced the Crown to provide for the settlers the miscellaneous articles which are usually kept only by the shopkeepers. At Port Jackson there were public magazines stored with every requisite for domestic use, such as potters' ware, utensils for the kitchen, and the implements of farming. These were issued at stated prices, rather less than such commodities cost in Europe; but to prevent them becoming the objects of speculation an official order for every issue, specifying the article was necessary. Such methods of distribution gave satisfaction, notwithstanding ample room for partiality and corruption. On the arrival of Bligh he found the improvident settlers discontented and poor, completely in the hands of the martial dealers. Perhaps from a love of justice he attempted to rescue them from the grasp of these intermediate agents, who bought their produce at a narrow price and gave them in exchange goods bearing an enormous percentage. Bligh permitted the farmers to draw from the public magazine whatever was necessary for private use, and took their engagement to deliver their grain to the stores at the close of the harvests. This interruption to the customary dealings of the officers naturally provoked them. Bligh reciprocated their aversion and resented their disrespect. When Bligh arrived at Hobart Town he was received by Collins with the respect due to his station. He was, however, soon followed by dispatches, which informed the Lieutenant-Governor of the movements at Sydney. Collins, as Bligh

stated, intended to arrest him; at all events he re-embarked, and the settlers were indicted from holding communication. A free man, Belbin, was flogged for the infraction of this order; but afterwards received a grant from the Crown for his loyalty. George Guest espoused the same side; the vessel was ill-provisioned, and he secretly drove down his cattle to the beach, where some were slaughtered for the use of the *Porpoise*. Bligh returned to Port Jackson, though the time for his honorary restitution was passed; he was received with respectful formality. A proclamation had already been issued, prohibiting suits of law for injuries suffered from the usurping Government, and giving indemnity and protection to all who had acted under its authority; but Bligh was empowered to carry home all who might be able to throw light on his deposition. This order must have terminated the government of Collins had he survived. This was the last important occurrence in the eventful life of Collins. He died on the 24th March 1810, in the fifty-sixth year of his age, having held the administration six years and thirty-six days. His death was sudden; except a slight cold there was little warning of its approach. He died whilst sitting in his chair and conversing with his attendant. His funeral was celebrated with all the pomp the colony could command, and 600 persons were present. The share he accepted in the responsibility of the deposition of Bligh disturbed his tranquillity, and it was thought hastened his end. Collins was buried in the church-yard of St. David's at Hobart Town. To provide a temporary place for public worship, a small wooden church was erected on the spot, and its altar was reared over his grave. This building was blown down in a tempest, and its materials being carried off left the resting-place of Collins long exposed to the careless tread of the stranger. Sir John Franklin, always generous to the memory of official worth, reared a monument bearing this inscription:—"Sacred to the memory of David Collins, Esq., Lieutenant-Governor of this colony, and Lieutenant-Colonel of the Royal Marine Forces. On the first establishment of the colony of New South Wales he was employed as Judge-Advocate. And in the year 1803 he was entrusted by His Majesty's Government with the command of an expedition destined to form a settlement at Port Phillip, on the south coast of New Holland, but which was subsequently removed to Van Diemen's Land. Under his direction as Lieutenant-Governor the site of this town was chosen, and the foundation of its first building laid in 1804. He died here on the 28th March 1810, aged fifty-six years. And this monument, long projected, was erected to his memory in 1838 by direction of His Excellency Sir John Franklin, K.C.H., K.R."

III. *Governor Macquarie*.—On the demise of Collins, the government devolved on Lieutenant Edward Lord, until the arrival of Captain Murray, of the seventy-third regiment. The Governor-in-Chief (Macquarie) visited V.D.L. during Murray's

administration. This auspicious event was the subject of great exultation. Macquarie was received with all possible formality and tokens of gladness; a salute from a battery of no great power; an illumination in the small windows of the scattered cottages; and addresses delivered by the delegates, not bound to declare the number of their constituents. Nothing remarkable is remembered of this visit, except that Macquarie traced the future city. He complained of the utter neglect of right lines in the erection of dwellings, which advanced or retreated according to the whim of the builder. The centre of the projected town he called St. George's Square; in this he intended to rear a church and town hall, and the quarters of the main guard; the open space he designed for a market. The streets which intersect each other he called by the names which still distinguish them: Liverpool-street, after the Prime Minister of that name; Macquarie-street, after himself; Elizabeth-street, in honour of his wife; Argyle-street, of their native country; and Murray-street, in compliment to the officer in command. The plan sketched by Macquarie has not been absolutely followed, nor has it been improved. He ordered the erection of a signal staff on Mount Nelson, named after the vessel which brought him to port and conveyed him safely to Port Jackson. The settlers on the Derwent expressed a fervid admiration of his devotedness in thus venturing to face the dangers of the visit; especially accompanied by his consort—so they distinguished Mrs. Macquarie. The Governor merited their gratitude, for his hand was liberal. In February 1812, Colonel Geils became acting Lieutenant-Governor, and remained until the arrival of Colonel Davey. Geils devoted great attention to agricultural pursuits, and first formed at Risdon a considerable farming establishment. Ordered to India with the troops under his command, he forwarded his youthful sons to the Cape of Good Hope, thence to be conveyed to England. The colonists heard soon after with deep commiseration, that the vessel in which they re-embarked was lost.

IV. *Governor Davey*.—Colonel Thomas Davey, the second Governor of V.D.L., arrived on 4th February 1813. His manner of entrance indicated somewhat of his peculiar character, for the weather being warm he carried his coat on his arm. His subsequent demeanour was characterised by great eccentricity; and on what principle he could have been selected as the presiding power over a reformatory settlement is one of those enigmas which only an intimate knowledge of red tape could solve. He took pleasure in practical jokes and rough humour; his countenance was strongly marked, and by a peculiar motion of the scalp he delighted to throw his forehead into comical contortions. He shared in common a taste for spirituous liquors, and was not unwilling to participate wherever he was welcome as a guest. As a marine he had been present in many important actions, among the rest at the battle of Trafalgar,

His intended departure from Europe he concealed from his family, by whom it was discovered accidentally: they reached the vessel by extraordinary exertions, and in neglect for all the usual preparations for the voyage. The ship which conveyed his luggage was taken by the Americans during the war—for him a fortunate loss; indemnified by the largest grant ever conferred in the island (3000 acres,) for it was not intended that the captors could have made an extensive prize. Mrs. Davey, a lady of a meek and uncomplaining spirit, is spoken of with respect, and the Governor himself with kindness; for under a rough exterior was concealed a generous disposition. During Davey's government 200 female prisoners were brought down from Sydney in the brig *Kangaroo*; proclamation was made, and the settlers were invited to receive them. There was little delicacy of choice; they landed and vanished; and some carried into the bush changed their destination before they reached their homes. Yet such is the power of the social affections, several of these unions yielded all the ordinary consolations of domestic life. The conveniences of civilisation were not wholly neglected. The ports were opened for general commerce in June 1813. Messrs. Kemp and Gatehouse, E. Lord and J. H. Reibey supplied the colony with English goods, which were disposed of at great profits by the retailers. These also sent carts through the country laden with such commodities as a cask of rum, basket of tobacco, chest of tea, bag of sugar, and bales of slop clothing. Sometimes the gain was enormous, as the goods were often exchanged for sheep and cattle, and the lucky hawker returned to camp with a flock worth five times the value of his merchandise. Men who have since counted their incomes by tens of thousands and feasted princes at their tables made their first money by shouldering a peddler's pack through the Tasmanian bush. Before this time the settlers were frequently without the means of obtaining other covering than what they made for themselves out of the skins of animals, and coats of kangaroo and opossum fur continued to be worn long after the absolute need of them had ceased. The resources of the colony began to be developed at this time. Birch, an enterprising merchant, fitted out a vessel to survey the western coast in 1816. The same year Captain Kelly, long known as pilot and harbour-master in Hobart, discovered Macquarie Harbour and Port Davey. Captain Florence found a new species of pine, very highly valued by artificers. Birch was rewarded with one year's monopoly of the trade he had opened. The whale fishery was considerably enlarged; the plough was introduced, and gradually superseded the hoe; corn was exported; and a mill was erected. In February 1817 the foundation of St. David's Church was laid. Passage boats connected the banks of the Derwent. A Civil Court for the recovery of debts not exceeding £50 was established. In the same year a third attempt at the establishment of a newspaper succeeded; a

second, made in 1814, having failed like its predecessor. The rigorous censorship exercised by Government rendered the publication but little, if at all, more generally interesting than the *Government Gazette* of the present time. Still the advent of the *Hobart Town Gazette and Southern Reporter* marked an era in colonial advancement, and Andrew Bent, the publisher, when his first number appeared on the 1st June 1816 must have felt himself almost famous. When the severe restrictions at first imposed were removed by Sir Thomas Brisbane in 1824, the stream of eloquence so long pent up broke forth tumultuously, as a few extracts from the first leading article of Bent's emancipated paper will show:—"We esteem ourselves a BEACON placed by Divine graciousness on the awfully perilous coast of human frailty." "We view ourselves a A SENTINEL, bound by allegiance to our country, our sovereign, and our God. We contemplate ourselves as the WINNERS for the public." "We desire to encourage the cloudless flames of rectified communion, rejecting each effusion, however splendid, of degenerated curiosity and perverted genius, of misanthropical acerbity and calumnious retrospection." One feels almost overcome as one reads such bitter words, until the modesty of the closing paragraph restores self-possession. "The duties of our typographical province are performed by the proprietor and one assistant." The welfare of V.D.L. was about this time greatly retarded by the number, daring, and prolonged depredations of the bushrangers. In some districts the inhabitants offered a sanctuary to the criminals, and, as their scouts, gave notice of the approach of danger; while in others the settlers were driven before them. To check their ravages, Davey declared the whole colony under martial law; he punished with floggings persons, whether free or bond, who quitted their houses by night. Several offenders were captured, and suffered death. The inhabitants to the number of 600 expressed their approval of this stretch of power, but it was promptly disallowed by the Governor-in-Chief. On many previous occasions the same course had been pursued. To constitutional law the Lieutenant-Governor was both indifferent and a stranger. Davey, when he relinquished his office, remained for some time as a settler; he was not however successful. He returned to England, where he died on 2nd May 1823. His contemporaries speak of his character in terms of eulogy. The modern colonist will remember that the tastes of society have since that period been modified, even in Great Britain; and that character can never be fairly judged when separated from the circumstances in which it is developed. Then the town was a mere camp; the etiquette of office necessary when a community is advanced would be folly in its infancy.

V. *The Bushrangers*.—Bushranging commenced in 1813, but was suppressed pretty vigorously. By 1824 this practice had again attained a fearful

height. The insecurity of life and property, the murders, burnings of houses, stacks and crops, the robbery and destruction of live stock, must have seriously impeded the advance of the colony. The military officers and men took an active part in hunting down the most desperate ringleaders, and some of them became famous as gallant and successful thief-takers. Martial law made short work with those who were captured. Michael Howe, a merchant seaman, afterwards a man-of-war's-man, a deserter and highwayman in England, had escaped the gallows only by a legal flaw, and was transported to V.D.L. Being assigned as servant to a settler, he soon "took to the bush," joining an armed gang of twenty-eight runaway convicts, of whom he became second in command under one Whitehead, a desperado of the first water. This band became the terror of the country. They had good intelligence of any armed force in pursuit of them or of any property open to pillage; for the low settlers and convict stockmen, either from fear or inclination, connived at and assisted these outlaws. Whitehead being shot in an attack on a house where a party of the 45th Regiment were lying in ambush, Howe became the leader, and he maintained his authority by his superiority in mental and bodily vigour, and by cutting off those of his followers who stood in his way. By stealing horses, and performing flying night marches, they pounced upon unprepared victims, sometimes a hundred miles from the spot where they had been heard of a day or two before. Proclamations, offers of pardon and passages to England, rewards of money, strenuous exertions by the troops, the police, and the loyal inhabitants, treachery among themselves, the bullet and the gibbet, gradually thinned the ranks of Howe's villainous retainers. One day, hotly pursued by a party of the 46th, and accompanied only by a faithful black girl who had been the partner of his perils for some years, Howe—finding that she retarded his flight—fired at and wounded the poor creature, who in falling was captured by the soldiers, the ruffian escaping only by throwing away his arms and his knapsack. Putting aside the brutality of this act, its impolicy was very soon apparent, for she, who had hitherto followed his steps with the fidelity of a spaniel, now tracked them with the fierce sagacity of the bloodhound; and, acting as a scout to the military, so harassed the flying and solitary bandit, that he resolved to surrender, on terms, to the authorities. His terms were accepted, and giving himself up to an officer of the 46th, he was imprisoned at Hobart Town. This was his second surrender to Government. On the first occasion he quickly broke his arrest, and was off to the woods again. Meanwhile the gang had been reinforced to about twenty men, and several sharp encounters took place between them and the soldiers, in one of which an officer was badly wounded. Howe gave but little of the useful information that he had promised to Government, and yearning for a life of crime and excitement, he

once more escaped to the bush; and once more highway and house robberies, cattle lifting, extortion of money and arms by threatening notices, burnings, violence and murder were rife in the land. At this time Howe, in his correspondence with the authorities and others, styled His Majesty's representative the Governor of the Town—himself the Governor of the Rangers. A hundred guineas reward was offered for his capture and that of a brother bandit named Watts, and eighty and fifty guineas were offered for the live or dead bodies of seven or eight rogues of inferior degree. In course of time all were killed or taken, excepting the two first. Watts then resolved to sacrifice his comrade, and with a shepherd named Drewe, who had been on friendly terms with Howe, laid a plan for his capture. Accordingly, at daylight one morning these men, well armed, approached the spot where Howe harboured. Drewe concealed his musket in a thicket. Watts "cooey'd" and Howe came up—but the villains so distrusted each other as to stipulate that the prining of their guns should be knocked out simultaneously. While employed in making a fire to cook some food the two traitors flung themselves upon Howe, threw him down, tied his hands, and disarmed him of his gun and two knives. They then marched their prisoner—worth £50 a-piece to them—towards Hobart Town—Watts in front, Drewe behind him, with loaded arms. He was snug enough one would have thought; but suddenly Howe, who possessed immense muscular strength, snapped his bonds like tinder, and with a concealed dirk stabbed Watts in the back. He fell, and Howe seizing his firelock, shot Drewe through the head. The wounded accomplice contrived to escape and hide himself in the bush before the arch-ranger of His Majesty's colonial woods and forests could reload, for the purpose as he afterwards said—"of finishing him." But his own race was well-nigh run. An additional hundred guineas were offered for the death or capture of the robber and murderer. His existence was now like that of a wild beast. Solitary and savage, clothed in kangaroo skins, and overgrown with hair like another Orson, he obtained food and ammunition, his only requirements, by robbing distant shepherds' huts. In spite of the high rewards few relished the idea of risking an encounter, either single or double-handed, with such an antagonist. At length a kangaroo hunter, named Warburton, and one Worrall, a transport mutineer of the *Nore*, concocted and carried into effect a plot for taking him. A private soldier, named Pugh, a determined fellow was selected to assist them. Warburton was to induce Howe, by a promise of a supply of ammunition, to come to his hut, where the two others lay concealed. Driven by want, but under strong suspicions of foul play, he entered the door with musket cocked, observing which Pugh instantly fired. "Is that your game?" said Howe coolly, and returning the soldier's shot he ran for his life. Neither shot had taken effect, nor was

one fired by the mutineer at the flying outlaw better aimed. Howe was trying to load his piece as he ran, when his two foes overtook him, and brought him to bay. A furious though unequal combat with clubbed muskets then took place, and resulted in the death of this famous brigand, who, having his skull beaten in by the blows of his two powerful assailants, dropped and expired without a word or a groan. Thus fell Michael Howe, the bushranger, and with him the practice of bush-ranging itself, in V.D.L. Lest natural admiration of brute courage should incite a feeling of pity for his fate this notice may be closed with one sentence of his history :—"During his long career of guilt, Michael Howe was never known to perform one humane act." On one occasion fourteen of these men escaped from Macquarie Harbour in a boat, and landed on the coast about twelve miles from Hobart Town, where they formed a secret retreat, from whence they could issue and pounce on the settlers, whom they robbed, and in many instances murdered. Two of the most daring were selected as leaders, from whom they were known as Brady and McCabe's gang of bush-rangers. Their first depredations were for the purpose of obtaining arms and ammunition, which they succeeded in doing, and soon became the terror of the island. In their sanguinary career they were most cruel towards those masters who were severe upon their assigned servants and had them flogged for misconduct; consequently the prisoner population sympathised with them, and aided them with provisions and timely information. There was a dash of romance about many of their acts that showed an inclination to imitate the exploits of famous highwaymen in England. On another occasion a party of eight soldiers of the 40th regiment of infantry, quartered at Hobart Town, were dispatched under the command of Lieutenant Gunn, of the Madras infantry, to go in quest of Brady and his gang. This appears to have been known to that redoubtable bushranger, for he had the effrontery to intimate that he would be at Sorell Town on a certain day and a certain hour. Lieutenant Gunn—who was a very tall man, standing, it is said, six feet seven inches—paid little heed to this piece of bravado, and on that day scoured the neighbouring country with his men but could not get a glimpse of his enemy. The soldiers returned wet and weary to their temporary quarters in the gaol, and Gunn went to a friend's house. In less than an hour a man came to the door and requested to see him concerning the bushrangers. Suspicious of foul play, he approached the man with a loaded musket in his hand, when the villain discharged the contents of a rifle at him, shattering his arm from the wrist to the shoulder, and he fell apparently lifeless. The man, supposed to be Brady himself, thereupon proceeded with his gang to a house where a party of ten gentlemen were dining. They marched in and captured them, ordering them, upon pain of death to walk before them to the

gaol, where the soldiers were, calculating that they would not fire upon their hostages. When they reached the gaol the soldiers were taken by surprise, their hands and legs tied, and the whole party kept in durance for two hours, under an armed sentinel at the gate, who was told to shoot them if they moved, while others of the gang robbed the stores. This they effected, and decamped with several pack-horses laden with supplies. One gentleman at last ventured to the door, but on looking round observed the armed bushranger. An hour afterwards one of the townspeople, ignorant of the affair, was passing, and walked up to the sentry asking him what was the matter, but received no answer after repeating the question. On closer examination of this formidable-looking personage, he discovered he had been addressing a post dressed up as a dummy, standing "at ease," with musket and fixed bayonet. The captives then ventured out, laughing heartily at the bushrangers' exploit in so successfully deceiving them. The foregoing account of an exploit by these lawless men illustrates the better side of the picture; but it is only fair to state that many of the men became outlaws in consequence of retaliation for cruelties they had suffered at the hands of severe masters. In those days the lash was the instrument of punishment resorted to, often on the slightest occasion, for chastising offenders, especially by the retired military and naval officers, who were so accustomed to its use, in keeping up discipline in the services to which they belonged, that they did not spare it on the prisoner population under their irresponsible control. The slightest provocation or saucy answer from an assigned servant, was the signal for his conveyance handcuffed to the adjoining magistrate, who almost invariably sentenced the wretched prisoner to twenty-five or fifty lashes there and then, with a lash of heavy-knotted whiplcord, that drew blood from his bare shoulders at every wale, until the victim presented a sickening sight. As there was seldom any discrimination in awarding this punishment, frequently on the bare assertion of the master, without enquiry into the cause of offence, the educated and more intelligent class of prisoners suffered equally with the boorish and ignorant. It was men of the former stamp that chiefly formed the gangs of bushrangers, and hence they were a match for the cleverest of the police and military, whose efforts to capture them they eluded not only for months but for years. The circumstance which chiefly favoured them was the mountainous nature of the country, covered with almost impenetrable forests, affording secure and secret fastnesses for their abode, while the fears in some cases and sympathies in others of the prisoners, servants on the farms and stations, secured them from their pursuers and furnished them with food. Besides a feeling of revenge against the free community generally, and a desire to retaliate on certain task-masters, the motive which first led many to become bushrangers was that of trying to escape from the island altogether.

Very few, however, perhaps not one in fifty, succeeded in doing this, and many were given up by the masters of the vessels on board of which they managed to secrete themselves. The difficulty of escaping, and the stringent laws of Arthur, which empowered any settler to shoot down a prisoner in arms, rendered these desperadoes utterly reckless; so that for many years no one travelled without being armed, and every farm throughout the country was barricaded at night in case of attack. Thus while on the one hand the free colonists benefited from prison labour, on the other the moral and personal evils counterbalanced the material good. At the same time it is only justice to state, that where the convict servant of ordinary character was assigned as shepherd, ploughman, or mechanic, to a discriminating master of kindly disposition, no employer could be better served; and in case of danger he or his family were protected by his people from the depredations of the bushrangers. Many cases have been recorded by such colonists of devotion and disinterestedness, by both male and female prisoners, to them in times of emergency, when life and property were imperilled, not only at the hands of bushrangers but hostile aborigines.

VI. *Governor Sorell*.—William Sorell, third Lieutenant-Governor, landed on 8th April 1817. To restore safety to the colony was the first duty of the Governor; on his assumption of office he called the inhabitants together and, enabled by their subscriptions, he offered large rewards, and thus inspired both the soldiers and the constables. In less than three months the greater portion of the bushrangers were destroyed or captured. During Sorell's administration, the colony suffered no serious disturbance from outlaws. This display of rigour was followed by judicious precautions; he ascertained more frequently the distribution and employment of the prisoners of the Crown, and removed many temptations to disorder and crime. It was the practice, established first a few months after his arrival, to muster the whole population annually. Notice was sent through the districts requiring the attendance of the several classes, who accounted for their families and their stock; the name, the residence, and civil condition of every inhabitant became known. Sorell thus ascertained the increase of cultivation and cattle, and whatever indicated progress. The landing of settlers direct from Great Britain was an important event: their efforts were experiments, and their achievements were prophetic. The political philosopher may trace in their errors, trials, and successes, the lessons afforded by experience for the instruction of nations. The rapid advance of modern colonisation tends to underrate the first efforts of our predecessors. The first colonial boat-builder founded a great commercial navy; the first shepherd held in his slender flock a treasure of unimaginable worth. The arrival of many emigrants led to the exploration of the country. The hunters were usually the

pioneers, but beyond the general features of the scenery, they afforded little information; wild cattle were the better guides. To provide a settlement for strangers, Sorell explored the region lying between the Shannon and the Clyde to its Junction with the Derwent; free from timber, and within twenty miles of navigable waters. At this district were located several distinguished settlers, including many retired naval and military officers. Here the same land regulations were in force that prevailed in N.S.W. According to the means of the person taking up land he was entitled to any quantity not less than 320 acres, or half a square mile. The ratio of capital to land was in the proportion of one square mile, or 640 acres, for every £500 sterling. But an important clause in the act was the definition of what was capital, namely: stock of every description, implements of husbandry and other articles which may be applicable to agricultural purposes; likewise any half-pay or pension which the applicant received from the Government. On these liberal terms many retired officers in the army and navy availed themselves of the regulations, and became the leading settlers in the work of colonisation. Indeed, long after their pioneer labours were over, this element in the body-politic preponderated above any other in the colony, and distinguished its social condition from that of N.S.W. From this circumstance also the tone of the upper class of society was rigidly maintained, especially where there was no medium class to blend them with the prisoner community, as in Australia. Between the ex-military or ex-naval officer and the labourer there was a wide gap. Hence the discipline of the one was intolerable to the other, which led ultimately to a state of outlawry and brigandage among escaped felons unexampled in the history of Australian colonisation. The manner in which these officers turned their "swords into ploughshares" was very simple, and will be best described by one of themselves, Lieutenant Jeffreys, R.N., in his account of the country:—"The author, having fixed upon a spot, was supplied by the Governor with three or four convicts (labourers,) to whom were added a ploughman and overseer, both free men. The site of his intended farm was previously well-known to his overseer. These men were provided with three weeks provisions, and such tools and implements as were necessary to their labour. Having a cart to carry their tools, &c., they arrived at the spot about four o'clock in the afternoon. It was out of the author's power to accompany them, but as they themselves related the story, the ploughman was appointed cook, and whilst he was making the necessary arrangements for refreshment, the rest with their axes cut down such timber as was requisite to erect a temporary hut. This they completed and rendered perfectly water-tight before sunset, when they all sat down to such a repast as the cook had provided for them. Their meal consisted of the hind-quarters of a kangaroo cut into mince-meat stewed in its own gravy, with a few

rashers of salt pork—this dish is called a ‘steamer.’ They added to that a sufficient quantity of potatoes and a large cake (damper) baked in the wood-ashes of the fire. These people have often declared that they never in their lives ate a meal with greater relish and appetite than they did this supper. Afterwards the grog went merrily round, and the plains and valleys rang with three times three, in ‘Success to the Captain’s farm!’ A small fire having been made at the foot of the hut they retired to rest, and after a refreshing sleep rose at daylight to renew their labours. In a few days the plan and foundation of a garden were laid out, after which they all set to work to build a more commodious house for themselves and their master. This house consisted of two rooms, occupied by the overseer when his master was not there, and a large kitchen and sleeping place for themselves. In a very short time the author had the satisfaction to see twenty acres of land broken up, and about two hundred acres fit for the plough. In doing this it was not necessary to cut down more than 500 trees. In this manner it is possible for hundreds of settlers, at a very moderate expense, to establish themselves in this delightful part of the globe, the abode of peace, plenty, and rural happiness.” Since this incident occurred on the banks of Pittwater, although the condition of the colony has gone through many phases, social, political and material, the farms have continued their progress without alteration as the abodes of peace and plenty, with a hospitable welcome to the traveller. While the retired naval officers verified the proverbial saying that “sailors being accustomed to plough the deep invariably take to ploughing the land,” so the military officers seemed to prefer sheep and cattle grazing. For these purposes they had to import stock, at first from N.S.W., and afterwards from Europe. The average temperature of V.D.L. being colder than any part of A. (except on the Maneroo Plains, near the Australian Alps,) this consideration affected the quality of wool and the breed of sheep. Consequently English bred ewes—chiefly Teeswater—were crossed with Spanish rams, producing a moderately fine wool, with a larger fleece, which made up in quantity for deterioration in quality. Although the climate affected the wool in this manner, the increase was not diminished; if anything the sheep were more prolific than on the mainland, as they regularly dropped their lambs within the seven months, seldom having less than two, frequently three at a birth, but they were not allowed to rear more than two. This rapidity of increase soon spread the settlers’ flocks over the limited pasture lands of T., and notwithstanding the fact that the grass was richer and denser than on the pastures of the older colony they had to sow English grasses in moist places to feed their stock. However well adapted the Australian grasses are to the climate, they afford but small nourishment in proportion to the area as compared with those of Europe.

Where the latter may feed three sheep to an acre the former often requires three acres to a sheep. The result was that sheep fell in value and pasture lands rose, until at last not an available spot was to be found for increase on the island. Hence the settlers were forced to cross Bass Straits for new pastures in A. As these pioneers of Tasmanian colonisation penetrated into the interior they were the discoverers of new streams, hills, valleys and plains; and like their more renowned predecessors in exploration, they, each in his way, gave these geographical features a “local habitation and a name.” There is much room for criticising the incongruity of local names in these countries, where there is no affinity with the places they are named after. Native names are preferable, which in A. are both euphonious and characteristic of the indigenous people. In T. it would appear that the early settlers were sadly at a loss to find names for new places. It is related in the country that within a certain district they had recourse to the only two books the community could boast. One of these was the Bible, and from it they named the Plains of Jericho, the River Jordan, and Jerusalem Plains. The other book was the “Arabian Nights’ Entertainments,” from which the valley of Bagdad was named. So that the traveller in T. may traverse the delightful Plains of Jericho until he comes to the River Jordan, and passes through the Valley of Bagdad on his way to Jerusalem. Besides the “gentlemen farmers,” as they were called, many non-commissioned officers, free emigrant farmers of small means, and emancipated prisoners settled on small grants of land, and succeeded as well as their wealthier neighbours. Those who had a previous knowledge of agriculture or grazing not only outstripped the amateur farmers, but many laid the foundations of large fortunes by their practical knowledge. As an instance:—For many years the value of the wool was so depreciated, from its bad condition and want of attention to the sheep, that few thought it worth while to clip the fleeces, often throwing skin and fleece away, or using them as litter for pigs. At last one practical sheep-farmer collected these skins, took off the wool and washed it; he was thus enabled to give four-pence per pound for greasy wool. When it was cleaned and properly packed in bales, it fetched from a shilling to one shilling and six-pence per lb. in the English market. This enterprising settler amassed a large fortune, and by his example encouraged others to wash the fleece on the sheep’s back, after using medicine to cure the cutaneous disease. This largely increased the profit from stock, which previously had no value save for the carcass. Even that value was only comparative, as actual money in the shape of gold or silver coin was rarely seen; for a system of barter prevailed in the early days of the colony. So many sheep, bullocks or pigs, were bartered for a horse, or served to liquidate a merchant’s bills. Six sheep at one time were equal to a gallon of rum,

and a horse was worth two or three hundred acres of land, valued at half-a-crown an acre. During this rude system of commerce, where the metallic currency was scarce, a paper currency was in circulation, of promissory notes from sixpence to twenty shillings, issued by any person who thought his credit good enough to warrant his attempt at banking. This kind of money was called "currency," to distinguish it from His Majesty King George III.'s coin, and was of a depreciated standard, however good the issuer's credit. From lack of specie during the time of war with France, when gold was at a high premium in England, Spanish dollars became a standard currency both in notes and metal, and at one time the latter became so scarce that a piece was struck out of the middle, about the size of a shilling, for which sum it passed, and was called a "dump," while the mutilated coin was called a "ring-dollar," as legal tender for four shillings, both stamped with the king's head. This bastard money was not plentiful, as the only source from whence it could be obtained was at the commissariat, where the supplies to that department were monopolised by four or five contractors. This was the largest and most lucrative business in the colony, and it increased in proportion as the prison population was augmented from the mother country. It was through the fostering means sent for the maintenance of her delinquent children that the mercantile community of Hobart Town became at one time the wealthiest in Australia. As already pointed out, that locality had very limited sources of wealth within itself; it was the government expenditure, derived from the British treasury, that enriched the free settlers, while the labour of the prison population made the streets and roads of the capital of T. While the material prosperity of the colony was thus advancing with rapid strides, the moral and social condition of the community was retrograding; not only among the felon portion, assigned or emancipated, but amongst the free settlers, not excluding those who had held the king's commission. Profligacy was tolerated within the walls of the Government House; and as few of these retired officers were married men, they selected mistresses from among the female prisoners. No doubt the absence of virtuous women, in their own station of life, led to this state of demoralisation, for it is recorded that Mrs. Fry, that good and benevolent woman, hearing of the disparity of the sexes among the free population, sent out twelve respectable, though poor ladies, who were married immediately on landing, and became the most exemplary wives and mothers in the colony. This lax state of society existed during the Governorship of Sorell. His successor, Arthur, cleared out the Augean Stables left by his predecessor, and restored the character of the colony to a more respectable status. In performing this task he encountered much opposition from those who preferred a loose state of society. Of these were many influential individuals, who carried their opposition into

politics, and banded together to thwart Arthur in carrying out his stringent measures for the better government of the colony. About three years previous to Arthur's accession to office, coal was discovered on Tasman Peninsula, and it was determined to form a penal settlement at the spot, for the purpose of working the coal, and at the same time establish a place of secondary punishment for crimes committed by transported offenders in the colony. Another settlement of the same character was formed at Macquarie Harbour on the west coast, where these pioneers were employed cutting timber for building purposes. From these settlements it was that the prisoners contrived to escape, and betook themselves to the mountains as bushrangers. The narrow grants and wretched homesteads of the emancipist cotters, the sole farmers at that time of this immigration presented but little to please. The settler, whose imagination pictured the rustic beauties and quiet order of an English farm, saw unfenced fields of grain, deformed with blackened stumps; a low cottage of the meanest structure, surrounded by heaps of wool, bones and sheepskins; harrows and water-carts amidst firewood; mutton and kangaroo strung on the branches of trees; idle and uncleanly men of different civil condition but of one class; tribes of dogs and natives. No green hedges, or flowery meadows, or notes of the thrush or nightingale; but yet there were the park-like lands, the brilliant skies, the pure river; and above all, the untainted breath of the atmosphere. In 1820 there were only two estates, those of E. Lord and Colonel Davey, on which fences were erected; and the destructive incursions of cattle were subjects of many complaints; yet in that year £20,000 had been obtained for wheat exported to Sydney. The first crops were prolific; the early settlers chose the more fertile and open plains; and many selected sites for their dwellings on natural lawns of surpassing beauty. The dispatch of vessels direct from England rapidly increased the population; in one year (1822) 600 settlers entered the port, and by the capital which they invested, and the habits of decency and enterprise they exhibited, gave a new tone to the colony. A succession of publications drew attention at home to the capabilities of V.D.L. It was described in the *Quarterly Review* for May 1820 by a friendly pen, which stated that during three years a detachment of 100 men had not lost three, and that Hobart Town had been sixteen months without a funeral. For several successive years new books were published describing the fertility of the soil and the beauty of the climate. These generally contained a theory of pastoral increase—a geometrical progression towards wealth. The increase was, indeed, rapid beyond oriental precedent. Between 1810 and 1820 it was estimated at fifty-fold. The adaptation of these colonies for the growth of wool first drew the attention of several gentlemen of Hamburgh, whose importation afterwards promoted the improvement of our flocks. The position

of V.D.L. favoured its settlement. Vessels bound to Port Jackson often touched at the Derwent to discharge portions of their cargo; and weary with the length of their voyage, emigrants listened to the persuasions of the colonists, and the hints of the Lieutenant-Governor himself. The advantages offered to settlers, so late as 1818, included not only grants of lands but loans of stock and seed; and a price for wheat, long standing at ten shillings per bushel, and for meat sixpence per pound. The settlers were entitled to rations for themselves and their convict servants for six months. It was stipulated that the stock should be replaced by the increase, and the wheat repaid at the harvest. Such engagements were, however, rarely fulfilled. No suits could be prosecuted by the Crown in the local court, and vague threats of disfavour were the only means of recovery; these were understood as formalities. The Crown, by the prohibition of distillation, prevented a consumption of grain, and until a fixed price was given corn had been sometimes of no value whatever. A partial market was assured, to prevent the total neglect of agriculture. The patronage, of course, led to official corruption; many officers received wheat from their servants in commutation of labour, and some of more than usual inferiority was thus admitted by a Launceston commandant, a refugee Frenchman, who threatened to transport the storekeeper for calling in question its quality. The commissioner Bigge recommended the bounty should be entirely abolished, distillation permitted, and supplies purchased by tender. A deficiency could be no longer apprehended. There were 7400 inhabitants at the close of 1821, who possessed 15,000 cultivated acres, 35,000 horned cattle, 170,000 sheep, 550 horses and 5000 swine. With such resources the danger of famine finally disappeared. The herds were composed chiefly of Bengal cattle, imported an early period; but the emigrants introduced the most valued of the English breeds, which have entirely supplanted the early stock. The herbage and the climate are equally favourable to the increase of cattle. The interior of the country being quiet, tickets of occupation were granted to settlers, who were enabled to establish large herds and flocks on the lands of the Crown. The scarcity of provision in N.S.W. soon created a considerable demand for the produce of this country, and in 1820, meat to the value of £10,000 was purchased by the Crown for exportation. Macquarie, when his administration was drawing to a close, came on a tour of inspection to V.D.L. He arrived in the *Midas*. The squally weather, which prevented his immediate landing, gave time to prepare for his reception. He disembarked on 24th April 1821, saluted from the battery, and by the military, who lined the road to the Government House. At his former visit in 1810 the population did not exceed 1500. A few scattered and miserable huts separated by thoroughfares but half recovered from the forests, then constituted the capital, which had now acquired something of

an English aspect. There were 426 houses and 2700 souls. Few scenes are more pleasing than those which, assisted by memory, display the growth and triumph of industry. The gratification of all parties was visible; and a general illumination closed the day. It was a day of pardons and bounty; when the prisoner received his liberty and the settler his heritage; every inhabitant who had no plaint to prefer, had yet thanks to pay. The bachelors of Hobart Town gave a public ball to the Governor. One hundred and fifty sat down to supper, and the gentlemen danced together till the morning. On 29th June Macquarie sailed in the *Caroline*. He was accompanied to the water's edge by a large concourse of people, and carried with him applause which his amiable vanity prized, and which his beneficence desired. Macquarie inserted in the *Sydney Gazette* the details of his progress and observations. Whatever he described, he lauded; the architectural taste of the private buildings, the handsome church, the commodious military barracks, the strong gaol, the well-constructed hospital, the enterprise and industry of the people, their spacious harbour, their battery, signal post and pier are all distinguished with the minuteness of an auctioneer's catalogue, and nearly in its phrases. During his progress he gave names, among which many remain memorials of his love of country: Staffa, Ulva, and Olmaig, Perth, Campbell Town, Oatlands, Strathallen Creek, Roseneath. The townships of Sorrell, Brighton, and Elizabeth were designated by him; the last in honour of his wife. His own name is found everywhere. The wool of V.D.L. was not an export until 1819. The original stock of sheep were introduced by Colonel Peterson—a mixture of Teeswater, Leicester, and Bengal breeds. Sorrell imported some Merino lambs from Macarthur's flock in N.S.W. These were distributed amongst the settlers, and from that date the wool of the island became known to commerce. In 1819 a small quantity of wool sent home did not pay its freight. Henry Hopkins saw it lying in the London Docks in the worst possible condition. But the success of Macarthur's enterprise in sheep-breeding cheered him on. In 1821 he sent home twelve bales, the whole export of that year, bought at 4d. per lb. and sold in London at 7d. per lb. The venture in 1821 only fetched £88. In 1823 wool was exported to the declared value of £4399. In the third year of Sorrell's administration £20,000 was obtained for wheat exported to Sydney, and £1000 for salt meat. At the end of 1821 there were 170,000 sheep in the colony, 550 horses, 35,000 head of cattle and 5000 swine. The *Britannia*, a vessel the property of Messrs. Enderby and Sons first discovered the whale fishery. On doubling the south-west cape of V.D.L. the crew saw sperm whales; in their progress to Port Jackson they fell in with prodigious shoals as far as could be seen from the mast-head. On arriving at Port Jackson the captain secretly

informed the Governor, who facilitated his preparation for a cruise. The sailors however did not conceal their observations, and two other vessels, the *Mary Ann* and *Matilda*, sailed one day before the *Britannia* and the *Salamander*, on 1st November 1791. On their departure they encountered bad weather, but saw whales in great plenty. The attempt was for the moment unsuccessful. Great expectations were formed by the colonists, who anticipated that the port of Hobart Town would become a rendezvous of fishermen. This fishery pursued subsequently with so much vigour, was of little immediate value to V.D.L. The duties payable on exports from the colonies were both excessive and unequal; especially in oil the difference amounting to almost absolute prohibition; being twenty times greater than by London ships. The settlers could only procure for their own consumption or the Indian market. The whalers often carried on their operations in sight of the towns, and heaps of whalebone at that period lay on the eastern shore. Of the first whale taken in the Derwent, Jorgen Jorgenson declared himself the captor. The trading pursuits of the inhabitants were fettered by the privilege of the East India Company. The act of Parliament authorising its charter prohibited the employment of vessels less than 350 tons between England and N.S.W.; the small coasting trade, was, therefore, solely eligible to the people of these colonies except in vessels unsuitable to the extent of their commerce. Thus, even the Mauritius was closed against the corn and the meat of the country. This law was repealed in 1819, and thus vessels of any tonnage could be employed in the colonial trade. In the islands of Bass Straits sealing was pursued with such vigour, that it was comparatively exhausted at an early date: small vessels were employed in the dangerous navigation and were not unfrequently lost. Few instances of nautical disaster and personal misfortune have surpassed the case of Captain Howard in 1819. He was robbed of an iron chest containing money and jewels to a large amount. Next, the *Lachlan*, his property, was stolen by convicts. He freighted the *Daphne* for India, and sailed with two women and a boy besides the crew. They anchored at Kent's group, and Howard landed. The brig, some hours after, was observed to drift; the wind blowing hard on to the shore, her destruction was inevitable. The long boat was laden, and leaving behind the passengers and some seamen, Howard after great efforts, reached the Derwent. Under his direction, the *Governor Sorell* was dispatched to receive the people left on the island. Meanwhile the *John Palmer* entered the group, took off the women and the boy and a bag of 400 dollars left in their charge, and was lost with the whole of her cargo. Nor was the *Governor Sorell* more fortunate. The seamen of the *Daphne*, who left the island in a boat, saw on the N.E. coast of Cape Barren the binnacle and other fragments of that vessel, in

which Howard perished. The same fate seemed to attend his property after his death. He had freighted the *Frederick* and the *Wellington* with sheep and cattle for the Isle of France, a market which then offered large gains. After some delay they reached the Northumberland Islands, off which the stock all died from want of room and the influence of the climate. Unwilling to proceed without cargo, the captain detained the vessels for spars. Here the *Frederick* was wrecked and twenty-two of the crew were drowned; but the chief officer, one woman and a boy reached the *Wellington*. They then proceeded to Timor, constrained on the passage to subsist on the preserved hides of the cattle. From Timor they proceeded to Batavia; the captain died, the crew dispersed, and the vessel was taken under charge by the Orphan Chamber, her register being lost and her owners unknown! A calamity still more singular is also worth recording. The *Surrey*, Captain Raine, left the Derwent in 1820. Having heard that men were detained at Ducie's Island, he went there in search of them. The men came to the beach, but they could scarcely articulate from exhaustion. They had belonged to the *Essex*, a whaler. One day a whale of the largest class struck the vessel, and broke off part of her false keel; she then went ahead of them a quarter of a mile; and turning back met the vessel with such a tremendous velocity that she was driven back at the rate of several knots; the sea rushed in at the cabin doors; every man on deck was knocked down, and the bows were completely stove in. The sailors were obliged to abandon the vessel, and after visiting several islands were found by the *Surrey* as described. The strong inclination to trade common to emigrants, was in these colonies a passion while the settlers were of the lower class. The want of coin induced the Government to pay the debts it incurred in rum, which, commonly valued at £1 per bottle, passed from hand to hand. The commissariat receipts were however the chief medium of exchange; they were acknowledgments of the delivery of goods for the use of the Crown. They were paid by the settlers to the merchants, who on the appointed days presented them for consolidation, and received in return bills on the Lords of the Treasury. Every trader issued his own notes. In Hobart Town these were issued in great profusion. Often of the lowest value, both in amount and in credit, they kept afloat by the risk which their refusal involved. When presented in small quantities they were usually paid. A trader rejecting his neighbour's bills would be harassed by his revenge. This was however done in some instances. A large issuer of notes in Launceston was staggered by a sudden demand for payment. To maintain his credit he borrowed dollars, and gave additional notes as security. A few days after they were returned, and the same dollars were again borrowed by the unfortunate financier. The run was devised by

his clerk, who managed by such manœuvres to obtain a large bonus for negotiating a loan of coin. The credit of these notes depended greatly on the Naval Officer, a sort of collector; if admitted in payment of duties they were current everywhere. The criminal courts continually exhibited frauds consequent on these small issues. The issuers however had many chances in their favour. The issuers did not always know their own notes, but great numbers were destroyed by persons intoxicated or were lost or worn out. The meaning of payment in currency they interpreted as giving one note for another, or four shillings for five shillings! The colonial dollars were mutilated to prevent their exportation. In 1810 dollars were imported from Bengal. To make a smaller coin the centre was struck out, and these were valued at 1s. 3d.; the ring retaining its full current value. The Crown paid the dollar as five shillings and received it as four shillings, thus gaining twenty per cent. in exchange for bills and in the settlement of accounts. An injustice so shameful became the subject of parliamentary reprobation, and was ultimately suppressed. In 1824 the *Samarang* imported £100,000 of British silver, and the Lords of the Treasury directed that British coin should be paid to the troops, and taken in exchange for Treasury bills. The establishment of the V.D.L. Bank (1823) was the most effectual remedy for many financial difficulties. The traders obtained a charter from Sir Thomas Brisbane; the capital was divided into shares of 200 dollars each, and its direction was committed to a local board. The issues of individuals were finally suppressed by Act of Council. The detection of many frauds enabled the dishonest, with a show of right, to dispute payment. They were sometimes recovered in the Court of Request. Justice was once secured by Mr. Howe in the following manner:—The defendant was requested to select the notes he admitted to be genuine, and then to hand both parcels to the bench; these being marked were dropped purposely, and the defendant unsuccessfully attempting the same division once more, showed that his repudiation was fraudulent, and he lost the cause accordingly. The manners of a people are seen in the law courts. A series of trials arising from the same transaction included a considerable portion of the settlers, and illustrated the trading habits which prevailed. Mr. Gunning being indebted to Mr. Loane, a merchant, agreed to pay him in cattle; this agreement was superseded. Fearing, notwithstanding, that his claim would be damaged by a general insolvency, Loane took with him seven men and swept from Gunning's premises a herd of various ownership. For this he was called in question by the police as a felon; in retaliation he instituted actions for malicious prosecution. Crossley, an emancipist lawyer, issued summonses and instructed the officer to arrest contrary to standing orders; but Timms the Provost-Marshal, to exhibit a spectacle, captured the Police Magistrate proceeding

to Government House. The whole settlement was involved in actions arising out of the debt, rescue and criminal charge, either as parties or witnesses. The Provost-Marshal was dismissed for "drunken arrogance." These trials occurred in 1821 during the circuit of Judge Barron Field, who was induced by the representations of Commissioner Bigge to hold a session in the settlement. The first minister of religion resident in the colony was Knopwood, who came out as chaplain to Collins' expedition. In the absence of clergymen it was customary for the magistrates to conduct public worship, or where that was not possible, to assemble the prisoners and accompany the inspection with a few words of advice. About 1820 the attention of the London Committee of the Wesleyan Mission was aroused by their agent stationed at Port Jackson to the spiritually destitute condition of "a settlement called the Derwent, two weeks sail distant." In May of that year the Rev. B. Carvosso on his voyage to N.S.W. touched at Hobart Town, and was cordially received by Knopwood, who introduced him to the Governor. He preached from the steps of a dwelling-house, his congregation being partly within and partly without, and his wife leading the psalmody. His text was the words: "Awake, thou that sleepest!" West adds that the colony required such addresses. Carvosso's description of the inhabitants is that they were kindly but dissolute. "At New Norfolk," writes West, "and at Pittwater, with a population of several hundreds, no religious services had been performed. A seriously-minded soldier, by diligent inquiry, found out a settler said to be religious. To converse with this person he took a journey of fifteen miles, and found him swearing!" Some Methodist soldiers of the 58th Regiment obtained a room for worship in Collins-street, Hobart Town, where eight persons met on 29th October 1820. Mr. Noakes and Sergeant Waddy were the leaders of this little band of Christians. A mob without assailed the house with fury, drowning their prayers and hymns with shouts and hootings. But the Governor interfered and intimidated the disturbers. In a little time the congregation numbered 300 persons, and fourteen persons enrolled themselves as members. The first Sunday-school was opened on 13th May 1821. Sergeant Waddy was sent to India, where he died. A prisoner named Donne—but whose real name was Cranmer, and a lineal descendant of the great archbishop of Henry the Eighth's time—much helped the rising Christian community. He is mentioned with respect in the early records. In September 1821 the Rev. Mr. Horton arrived. He found the settlement in a miserably low moral condition. He writes: "The wretchedness of Launceston is past description. Of the deaths at New Norfolk all except two are attributed to drunkenness." David Lord gave Horton a plot of ground to build a chapel. Subscriptions to the amount of £400 were obtained. But the money was all expended on the walls, and for a long time the building

remained uncompleted. Two years afterwards the Rev. Ralph Mansfield with some assistance from the Government and the Wesleyan society in England, finished the structure. Mansfield remained in the colony until 1825. A considerable immigration of religiously-disposed persons took place in 1822, drawn to the island by the accounts sent home by Carvosso. Knopwood was superseded as principal chaplain by the Rev. William Bedford, a zealous minister. The Presbyterian Church was founded in 1822 by the Rev. Archibald Macarthur. About this time a branch of the Bible society was founded. The Rev. John Youl, formerly missionary at Tahiti, was appointed chaplain at Port Dalrymple in 1819. Previous to his arrival no minister of religion had ever visited the district. Launceston had no resident minister of religion till 1824. The first place of worship in the town was used alternately as a court-house, a sleeping place for prisoners and a stable. "The disposition of Youl," writes West, "was amiable, and his professional reputation unblemished. Placed in a station of little promise, he cultivated the minds and affections of the young, and discountenanced vices he could not extirpate." The first Roman Catholic priest established at Hobart Town was the Rev. Philip Connolly. In spite of the low state of religion and morals a hospitable reception was generally accorded to ministers of religion by the residents in the country districts. At the time of the *Emerald's* arrival the landing-place at Hobart Town was Hunter's Island (named after Governor Hunter of N.S.W.), now the "Old Wharf," and at high tide people used to pull off their shoes and stockings, tuck up their trousers, and walk from the island, where ship's boats landed them into "Camp." As an instance of the small value attached to the possession of land in these old days, we may cite the cases of Mr. Meredith and Mr. Gregson, who having town allotments of ten acres each, situated in Davey-street, given to them by Government, declined to take up the grants, because, if they did so, they must comply with the conditions, and erect paling fences round the ground. At that time a town allotment could often be bought for a keg of rum, and the value of the property did not appear to warrant the outlay. So limited at that time were the supplies of the commoner articles, that eleven poor wretches, condemned to death, remained unhung for want of rope when the *Emerald* arrived, from whose stores the necessary quantity was obtained, and the awful sentence carried into execution. From this period the history of T. becomes more prosaic and business-like; the romance of discovery and early colonisation is merged in the matters of fact which are found in Blue Books and Parliamentary Records.

VII. *The Separation Movement.*—In July 1823 the Imperial Parliament enacted a "Law for the better Administration of Justice in New South Wales and Van Diemen's Land, and for the better Government thereof." This Act was to expire at

the close of the Parliamentary session of 1827. By it the old courts, with their military functions were superseded, and a Supreme Court was erected, whose jurisdiction extended to causes criminal, civil and ecclesiastical. It was also provided that the King might erect V.D.L. into a separate colony. The Act gave rise to a debate in the Imperial Parliament, in which Wilberforce, Mackintosh and Canning took part. The settlers generally were desirous that the separation from N.S.W. should take place. Governor Sorell however was opposed to the proposal. He deemed the measure premature, as tending to augment the expenses of government, and to deprive the people of the advantages of an appeal to the older colony, and of participation in that more liberal system of government a larger community could demand. A public meeting to petition for separation was held at Hobart Town, at which the resolutions were carried by acclamation, and the only dissentient (R. L. Murray) was rather roughly handled. The petition was forwarded to the King through Edward Barnard, the Colonial Agent in London. The petition failed of its object, doubtless because of the Governor's opposition. Towards the close of Sorell's administration the commerce of the settlement was greatly aided by the establishment of a company at Leith in Scotland, with a capital of £100,000, for the purpose of exchanging British commodities for colonial produce. The first vessel despatched was the *Greenock*; it was followed by others, including the *Triton*, Captain Crear. By these ships a large number of highly respectable immigrants arrived, "whose moral worth and successful enterprise," writes West, "have established their families amongst the chief of the land." But the shipments provoked the anger and broke up the monopoly of the local merchants. Sorell's administration ended in May 1824. It was in colonial estimation very successful. The Governor was popular by reason of his familiar manners and his easiness of access. His fine countenance attracted the confidence of the stranger. The settlers, to testify their regard for him, petitioned against his recall, and presented him with a testimonial of the value of £750. On his return to England he received a pension charged on the colonial revenue of £500 a year, which he enjoyed from 1825 till his death in 1848 at the age of seventy-four. The aspect of the island at this time was not inviting to strangers; but the current of colonisation was set in, and the ultimate superiority of the colony compared with all others became an article of Tasmanian faith. On this subject the agricultural societies maintained a war of papers. Barron Field, chief justice of N.S.W., was the champion of that colony, and dwelt on its vast forests, its wool, its boundless pastures and rivers. The president of the Tasmanian agriculturists urged all which became his position in defence of V.D.L. At that time protective laws had furnished them with more formidable weapons.

VIII. *Governor Arthur*.—Colonel George Arthur, fourth Governor, succeeded Sorell in May 1824. He had been formerly Superintendent at Honduras in the West Indies, and had acquired the reputation of an officer of inflexible and energetic disposition. He was a trusted associate of Wilberforce and Stephen, and the other leaders in the great anti-slavery movement. His arrival in V.D.L. did not excite any enthusiasm. He replied coldly to the customary address of welcome. He took occasion to express his conviction that the moral example of the free population was essential to the improvement of a class less favoured, and that while employing his authority for the general welfare he was resolved to maintain the rights of the Crown. These sentiments were not very acceptable to the free colonists. The Governor resolved on discountenancing all domestic immorality, and this fact gave rise to much opposition to him. He dismissed from the public service persons living openly immoral lives, and placed all of that class under a social ban. "However lasting the utility of this rigour," West adds, "its immediate consequences were irritation, resistance and contempt." This reserve of manners and austerity of rule contrasted unfavourably with the easy and unaffected manners of Sorell. In truth, Arthur seems to have regarded his position as simply that of superintendent of a penal settlement, and the mouthpiece of the Secretary of State. The state of the prison population, though considerably ameliorated by Sorell, was far from satisfactory. Left much at their own disposal from the hours of labour till their return, they were masters of that portion of the time most suitable for dissipation and crime. The extent of their depredations and the deliberation with which they were performed indicated an extensive confederacy. The subordinate police, prone to contrive with offenders, was ill regulated and insufficient. Goods were carried off in masses, bags of sugar and chests of tea were abstracted from the stores, cart-loads of property were swept off at once. The habits of the populace were daring, profane and intemperate, and to coerce such materials into order required the utmost vigour and discretion. The Chief Justice, John Lewis Pedder, brought from Great Britain the charter of the Supreme Court, which was proclaimed in the market-place on the 7th May 1824. On the 24th the court opened for business, and Joseph Tice Gellibrand presented his commission as Attorney-General. In his opening speech he declared his resolution to adopt the maxims of the illustrious Hale. He eulogised the jurisprudence of his country and especially trial by jury, but the military uniform which appeared in court, if it did not lessen its utility, deprived the institution of its grace. The first person tried was named Tibbs, for killing a negro, who whilst watching for thieves was himself taken for a robber. The first prosecution for libel was at the instance of R. L. Murray, formerly a captain in the army. The establishment of a

Supreme Court seemed to be the signal for an outbreak of disorder and violence. Many prisoners escaped from confinement, and for a long period a succession of depredators alarmed and pillaged the colony. The settlers promptly tendered their assistance to the Government to garrison the town or scour the bush. An account of the chief bush-rangers and their deeds has been already given. The unsparing sacrifice of the robbers captured gradually terminated the practice of bushranging, and the colony enjoyed a long period of comparative repose. The duties levied by order of the Government were collected by the Naval Officer, who received a commission of five per cent. on the amount. Dr. Bromley, surgeon to the First Fleet, subsequently made seven voyages to the colonies, when he obtained the appointment. The infrequent examination of the accounts led to undetected pilfering, and in 1824 a defalcation of £8269 was reported by a jury of merchants appointed to make an audit. Dr. Bromley's integrity was not impeached; his servants had been guilty of almost daily peculation. The percentage system was abolished, and the offices of collector and treasurer were separated; Jocelyn Thomas was nominated to the former and Mr. Hamilton to the latter. Smuggling was still carried on to a large extent despite increased activity on the part of the customs officers. The merchants of Hobart Town were deeply offended at the imposition of a duty on their imports higher than that fixed by Governor Brisbane at Port Jackson, and petitioned Arthur to equalise the charges. The reply of the Governor was a contemptuous refusal. A dispute between Arthur and Gellibrand, the Attorney-General, led to the dismissal of the latter by the Governor on the alleged ground of unprofessional conduct. The dispute excited much interest in legal circles, both in the colony and in the old country. The appeal of Gellibrand to the profession completely vindicated his conduct, but he was not reinstated in his office. His successor was Joseph Hone, brother of the celebrated William Hone, author of the *Everyday Book*, *Table Book* and *Year Book*. Hone's gentleness of disposition won him universal respect. In December 1825 Governor Darling visited the island and proclaimed the independence of the colony. The announcement was followed by a time of much festivity. While he was present Darling was entitled to govern, but when he set sail Arthur, who had been previously addressed as "Your Honour," assumed the authority of Governor-in-Chief and, responsible only to the Home Office, became "Your Excellency." The Legislative and Executive Committees were appointed. In 1827 the island was divided into police districts, so that the prisoner population might be brought more directly under the control of the Government. This was a great improvement in the internal discipline of the colony. Prior to that time instances of harsh and unjust treatment of prisoners by their employers were very frequent, and the lash was in incessant

occupation. A proposal made by Commissioner Bigge to change the site of Hobart Town to Brighton was favoured by Arthur, but the protests of the merchants, who had a large amount of property invested there, prevented the removal. Up till 1824 Georgetown had been the capital of the northern side of the island; but Bigge determined that Launceston should thenceforward be the site, and the penal establishment was accordingly removed thither. A grant of 250,000 acres of land was made by the Home Government to the Van Diemen's Land Company in 1825; and in 1826 their first settlement was formed under Edward Curr at Circular Head. One of the persons in the service of this company was a convict named Jorgen Jorgenson, whose life of adventure was very remarkable. He had been a seaman with Grant and Flinders. Sir William J. Hooker, the celebrated botanist who, when a young naturalist, met with Jorgenson in Iceland, said that his talents were of the highest order, but his moral and religious character was of the lowest. "He was seaman, explorer, traveller, adventurer, gambler, spy, man of letters, man of fortune, political prisoner, dispensing chemist, and King of Iceland—and was transported for illegally pawning the property of his lodging-house keeper." The adjustment of titles to land granted by the various Governors was a vexed question during the whole of Arthur's administration. Many of the limits of the grants had been defined by an expedient said to have been practised in Ireland. A string was tied to a dog's tail, and when the dog stopped running that was taken to be a mile! Thousands of acres had been thus measured off and endless confusion resulted, until finally, in 1831, the Caveat Board rectified the claims made. In 1825 G. T. Howe established the *Tasmanian* newspaper in Launceston, and in the same year, in connection with Dr. Ross, started the *Government Gazette* in Hobart Town as the official rival to Bent's paper, the *Hobart Town Gazette*. The strife between Bent and Arthur was long and fierce. The Governor resolved to extinguish the liberty of the Press, and in 1827 he got an Act passed by the Legislative Council giving him unlimited power of suppression. Bent was refused a license to publish his paper, the title of which was the *Colonial Times*. Bent next tried the publication of a monthly magazine at the price of five shillings a number; but this did not succeed. The Governor's despotic conduct roused the colonists to remonstrate, and the Secretary of State (Lord Goderich) disallowed the Act for suppressing the liberty of the Press. Bent however was indicted for a libel on the Governor and fined £500. In 1829 two journals were started in Launceston—the *Advertiser*, by John Fawkner, and the *Cornwall Press*, by S. Dowsett. The quarrels of Arthur with the Press was continued till the end of his administration. He was charged with employing spies, and some facts that transpired in the courts favoured the charge.

IX. *The Black War*.—The incidents of the Black War have been already narrated under that head and that of "Robinson;" but as forming a chapter in V.D.L. history may be here briefly recapitulated. When Arthur assumed the Government in 1823 it was expected that among the stringent measures he initiated something would be done to suppress the war of races going on between the settlers, convicts, and natives. But these expectations were disappointed, and for seven years the colony continued to be in a state of anarchy. At last it became necessary for the Government to take some decisive measure for the suppression of this native warfare and the restoration of peace to the island. After consulting with his advisers, Arthur projected a scheme of a Quixotic character, to try and drive the whole surviving native race from the interior of the country to Tasman Peninsula as if he were driving a battue of deer. For this purpose he called on all the colonists capable of bearing arms to join the available military and police force, and form an army stretching across the country inhabited by the natives and drive them before it. By this means a force of about 4850 men was mustered, armed with guns and ammunition from the public stores, while the expenses of the expedition were to be disbursed out of the commissariat treasury. This was in 1830, when the commercial affairs of the colony were very dull. All the colonists readily engaged in the affair, as it would circulate a good deal of money amongst them. On 1st October the force was marched into the interior of the island, sufficiently far from Hobart Town to be north of the districts occupied by the hostile natives. Here they were formed into a line, stretching east and west, over hill and dale, mountain and valley, forest and plain, until they formed a complete *cordon* of military posts moving towards a common centre. As they advanced, this line extended sometimes to sixty miles, where the country was sufficiently open to admit of their spreading. At others it became narrowed to half that width, when they had to pass through dense forests and thickets. It was estimated that there were at least 1800 natives in the island, and that this mixed army had surrounded nearly the whole of them. On they marched towards their goal almost sure that the enemy would be captured on the peninsula. Scattered over such an extent of country it was no easy matter to provision this motley army, while the rough country they had to traverse wofully damaged their boots and clothing. Excepting a few faint-hearted volunteers, the colonists stuck to the main body; and after six weeks toil and privation by flood and fell, this *cordon* narrowed to the rallying point at East Bay neck, where the peninsula is only half-a-mile wide. Here the regulars were sent on to secure their game after such a formidable battue, which cost about £30,000, never doubting but that they would find the frightened aborigines crowded towards the extreme point of land. They returned with *one*

old woman and a sick man. Of course the natives slipped through their lines while they advanced, and returned to their camping grounds after the grand army had passed on. Great ridicule was bestowed on the result of this expedition, which realised the old adage of the mountain labouring and bringing forth a mouse. The ragged appearance of the army, with toes and elbows peeping out in their nakedness, caused much amusement. But all agreed that it was a capital campaign, as so much money had been spent, and the fortunes of many previously needy colonists were laid. The failure of this expedition rendered the aborigines bolder than before, and they committed depredations on the settlers in the rear of the army sent out to capture them. In this emergency Robinson came forward and proposed a scheme of winning over the natives by gentle means, promising them food and clothing if they would come into Hobart Town where they might be safely guarded or sent to some place of security. The success of Robinson's scheme, and the ultimate extinction of the native race, have been already narrated.

X. Close of Arthur's Administration.—When the Constitutional Act approached its term the colonists determined to seek not only for trial by jury, but for a voice in the Legislature. A petition adopted by a meeting held in 1827 was confided to a deputation, who were instructed to forward it through Arthur, and to entreat his concurrence with its prayer. A time was fixed to receive them; but when at Government House they were met by a blundering message postponing the interview for one hour. Deeming themselves and their constituents slighted, they declined a second attendance. Arthur published a vindication of himself. He stated that business of great importance with Mr. Curr had prevented his examination of the documents; he had requested the delay only to prepare himself for the audience, and regretted that the colony were deprived of his friendly offices by an unreasonable caprice. This paper fell into the hands of the deputation a few hours after the vessel had sailed with despatches for the Secretary of State. They considered this a manœuvre contrived to stifle their defence, and instantly dispatched a fast sailing boat to pursue the ship with an exculpatory letter. The hostility of Arthur to the petition was well understood, and there were many others who did not sympathise with its object. Sir John Owen presented it to the House of Commons without a word. The Ministers expressed their desire to grant free institutions so soon as the colony was ripe to enjoy them, when Mr. A. Baring (Lord Ashburton) remarked that colonies are never ripe for free institutions until they get them. Mr. Marshall, the shipping agent, attempted to form an association in London in 1828 for the protection of these colonies. All persons commercially or otherwise interested were eligible for membership. A correspondence was projected with the leading colonists,

and it was assumed the British Government would readily attend to representations emanating from such a course. The scheme did not obtain the support it merited, and the scattered colonial interests could never be combined for a joint action. The partisans of Arthur ridiculed the plan, and it came to nothing. The Constitution Act, which became law on 25th July 1828, differed in many of its provisions from the last. Under the former Act the Attorney-General could refuse to file a bill, and exercised this discretion in a case of libel. The new law authorised the court to permit an information to be exhibited by any person, and the Attorney-General was bound to indict except in felony or capital prosecutions. Jennings, a solicitor, claimed the interference of the court against the Attorney-General, Montagu. One Savery, who had been transported for forgery, was sued for a debt; but Montagu, who had been a passenger with the debtor's wife and felt interested in his welfare, stayed proceedings by verbal guarantee. When Jennings attempted to enforce the agreement Montagu replied that he was more to be affected by the sun than the wind, and added, "I know how to defend myself against a person ten times more able or wicked than yourself." The Judge decided that the Attorney-General was not bound to sign a bill of indictment against or to prosecute himself. The indemnity due on a returned bill of exchange was decided by the court (1826,) on a friendly suit, "*Cartwright v. Mulgrave*," at the expense of the merchants. It was deemed proper to give a high compensation, both as solace for disappointment and to discourage a careless issue of bills. The plaintiff paid £112 currency for £100 sterling, calculating that £120 currency would be required in London for the £100 sterling. The assessors fixed 25 per cent. to cover all losses, and the sum has been allowed by the Supreme Court on all similar cases to this day. In 1827 Captain Dillon of the *Research*, an East India Company's ship, the discoverer of the relics of La Perouse, visited Hobart Town. He was prosecuted for assault and false imprisonment by Dr. Tytler, a gentleman commissioned by the Asiatic Society to conduct the scientific enquiries the voyage might favour. He was seized, confined to his cabin, threatened with the lash, and guarded by New Zealand savages, among whom were two called by Dillon "Prince Brian Boru," and "His Excellency Morgan McMurrah," who espoused the quarrel of the captain, and offered to grill and eat the unfortunate physician. The jealousy and violence of Dillon strongly indicated insanity, and Dr. Tytler represented his fears to the second in command. This opinion became known to the captain, and led to the assault and imprisonment, from which the doctor was released by a writ of *habeas corpus*. The Chief Justice, in pronouncing judgment, explained the absolute power and stringent responsibility of a captain in the

management of his ship's company, and sentenced Dillon to fine and imprisonment; but the latter was remitted in consideration of his enterprise. In 1827 the public treasury was robbed of £1400. The thieves entered at night, while the sentinel was on guard, and the rifled chest was found hidden under a tomb in the adjacent burial ground. Three persons and the sentinel were tried for the offence; but on the second day the Crown Prosecutor was not in his place. The truant lawyer was enjoying a breakfast, while the court and prisoners were watching the door of entrance. The patience of the Judge gave way, and he directed a verdict of "not guilty" to be entered. The Crown relieved the Treasurer from his responsibility for the loss. On the trial of Salmon and Brown for murder at Macquarie Harbour in 1829, a military jury exhibited that institution in no pleasing form. They disagreed on their verdict; Lieutenant Matheson, conceiving that the facts did not sustain the indictment, declined to convict. His co-jurors were unanimous; and after three days and nights he submitted. On the Saturday evening the men were sentenced, and executed on the Monday following. Their confession left no doubt of their guilt; they had committed murder that they might escape from misery; but they asserted that the principal was Browne, and the accessory Salmon—the reverse of the indictment. During their long consultation the jurors were allowed refreshment; but on Friday evening several resolved to elope. At a late hour they broke past the astonished constables and returned to their homes. They were however recalled by the Sheriff and kept under stricter watch until the trial ended. Amusements of the turf, officially patronised in other countries, were discouraged in this. From an early date occasional matches were made for large stakes; but in 1827 races were regularly established at Ross. The course was lined off, a stand erected, in which about fifty well dressed people were spectators. The riders were equipped in different coloured clothing, and as they darted along, obscured at intervals by foliage, the scene was picturesque and animated. A race was contested by Messrs. Gregson and Hardwicke, which the latter lost. Arthur probably had no great taste for such pleasures; but he ascribed his unwillingness to support them to their tendency to excite the prison population, and seduce them into disobedience and crime. No regulations or punishments could hinder their haunting the tents, or deter from intemperance and consequent miseries. Happily, dissension disappeared in the presence of distress. Arthur's name is on the list of subscriptions for the family of Captain Laughton who, having lost his property by shipwreck and fraud, was drowned on the coast. Arthur gave twenty guineas, and thus fixed the high scale of colonial benevolence, which no vicissitude of public affairs has abated. The largest private subscriber was Captain Carne of the *Cumberland*, not less unfortunate than

Laughton. When no tidings were heard of the vessel, it was supposed she had foundered; but in 1828, Captain Duthie, of the *Bengal Merchant*, threw light on her fate. He had found the *Clarinda*, Captain Crew, at Rio, who had been boarded in lat. 8° S. The pirates chained him to the deck while they robbed the vessel; he saw a bucket on which he could trace the word *Cumberland*. Some of the pirates proposed that Crew should walk the plank, but were resisted by the captain. A little black boy shipped by the *Clarinda* at the Cape De Verde Islands remembered the pirate vessel as often seen in that port. In what form the *Cumberland* perished is not certainly known. Pirates executed in England for other crimes were supposed to be guilty of this; more than a hundred and fifty perished by their violence. Some they cut down, and others they cast overboard. They were driven to the port of Cadiz by a storm, and attempting to negotiate a bill they were detected. A ship of war conveyed them to Gibraltar, where several suffered; others were forwarded to England and condemned there. The story of the capture was long a standing topic in the unarmed merchantmen that passed her track. As the emigrant afterwards approached the supposed latitude he heard with bated breath the fate of the *Cumberland* whenever a strange sail darkens the horizon. In 1828 the Government determined to establish a school at New Norfolk, called the "King's Grammar School." The members of the Government were the board of guardians; the master was in holy orders. This effort was also frustrated. Such attempts were not however lost; they were in reality not only the pledges, but the causes of final success. But the establishment of the King's Orphan School in 1828 was successful. It was chiefly designed for the numerous children whose parents were unable to support them, who had deserted, or who were dead. It was placed under the guidance of a committee, and afforded protection to many children who must have sunk under the influence of a vicious example. In the absence of natural ties the settlers have often displayed a parental tenderness in educating the children of the outcast and the stranger. The public institutions which multiplied at this period tended to mitigate the spirit of party. In 1826 several tradesmen met to project a Mechanics Institute. In 1827 they called a meeting of the inhabitants, who having chosen Gellibrand their chairman, organised the institution; the Governor was invited to be patron; the Chief Justice was chosen president, and James Wood appointed secretary. Dr. James Ross, called the "Birkbeck of Tasmania," delivered the first lecture on 17th July on the "Science of Mechanics." The second was on "Astronomy," by Gellibrand senior; Hackett gave one on "Steam Engines;" Giblin, senior, one on "Astronomy," and Dr. Turnbull on "Chemistry" completed the course. James Thomson gave lessons in geometry to a youthful class. These

efforts languished during the absence of the secretary in Great Britain; but in September 1829 the former lecturers reappeared; contributions increased, and a library and apparatus were obtained from England. In 1830 two hundred members were enrolled, and the institution was promoted by all classes of society. Among its supporters Dr. Ross occupied the first place. He was a man whose name will be ever mentioned with respect. His political career does not receive unqualified praise; as a partizan of Arthur he sometimes sanctioned by his pen what it is difficult to vindicate; but he contributed to the intellectual advancement and external reputation of the colony beyond any person of his day. Dr. Ross was the son of a Scotch advocate; educated at Aberdeen University, he was some time employed as a planter in Grenada, where he became an advocate of negro freedom. He afterwards established a school at Sevenoaks in Kent; but his family kept pace with his fortunes. He determined to emigrate and arrived in V.D.L. in 1822. Some error in the shipment of his goods, upon the schedule of which he claimed 2560 acres, deprived him of one-half. He chose his location on the Shannon, and called his cottage the "Hermitage." Here he was vexed with the incursions of cattle, the perfidy of his servants, the dread of bushrangers, and the visits of the blacks; and he willingly accepted the office of Government printer, which Bent had lost. The *Courier*, his newspaper patronised by the Governor, obtained a large circulation, and in 1830 published 750 copies. He wrote with great facility and copiousness. In a letter to a friend, he said: "I write my articles, engrave my vignettes, set the types, adjust the press. Sometimes I set up a few lines myself, and dictate at the same time to one or two of my compositors. Sometimes I write three lines of a sentence for one, three lines of a sentence for another. I teach my own children, nine in all, at the same time that I write paragraphs." A genial spirit, except when troubled by political anger, usually sparkles in the writings of Dr. Ross, and in such they are rather unfair than bitter. Wherever Arthur disliked, Ross opposed. He denounced the emigration of the poor, and Archbishop Whately charged him with baseness in supporting the penal system of transportation; but no colonist would question his sincerity. Dr. Ross retired from his literary labours in 1837, and not long after closed his earthly toils. In his last address to the public he said, "independence of spirit has been my motto; freedom my watchword; the happiness of my fellow-men my object; and the truth of our religion my buckler and consolation." Such was the account of himself; and may be left as his merited eulogium for posterity. An association with objects more extensive and more ambitious in organisation was projected by John Henderson, a surgeon from Calcutta, in 1829. It was denominated the "Van Diemen's Land Society." The members proposed to collect and diffuse

information respecting the natural history, produce, mineral wealth, statistics, condition and capabilities of V.D.L. The Governor accepted the office of patron of the society, and its establishment was celebrated by a public banquet. In his account of the institution, the founder and president relates that, although it enrolled the heads of departments and the most respectable settlers, he found himself surrounded by spectators rather than coadjutors, who, in the absence of "selfish interests" and personal advantage could not be stimulated to toil. Dr. Henderson, whatever his science, was disqualified by his censorious dogmatism to rule. His work was an outline of projects which entered into every imaginable department of political economy, and contemplated a social revolution. The charter of the V.D.L. Bank having expired, it became a joint stock company and enlarged its capital to £50,000, ten per cent. being charged upon discounts. The Tasmanian Bank was a private one, of which the Gellibrands were the proprietors. The limited business carried large profits, and the purchase of bills not passed in the regular course of discount yielded large returns. The Derwent Bank, established chiefly by persons connected with the Government, was opened for business on 1st January 1828 with a capital of £20,000. At the same time the Cornwall Bank, with £10,000, was established by the merchants of Launceston, and the facility of monetary transactions increased on every side. The arrival of considerable investments from India brought rupees into extensive circulation, and they formed a great proportion of the current coin. The large imports of English goods, and the increase of promissory notes, alarmed several persons connected with trade. An advertisement signed by John Dunn offered a quantity of shares in the Derwent Bank on liberal terms. At a meeting of shareholders, Dunn maintained that the liabilities of the community were dangerous, and twenty times greater than the circulating medium. It was replied that bills were chiefly multiplied by re-sales, and that the cash of the consumer would be transmitted through the whole mercantile chain. The V.D.L. Bank discovered a singular fraud by the cashier in 1828. Amongst the large accounts which were unlikely to be drawn he debited the cash which he employed as a private discounter of bills. The sudden presentation of an unexpected draft led to an examination, and £2000 were found deficient. The money was refunded, except a trifling amount, and prosecution waived. The interest of the officers of the Government in the Derwent Bank occasioned complaint. The risk, liabilities, and antipathies of trade were deemed unsuited to their duties. At the Governor's request the relation was disguised, but it was not dissolved. The state of trade at this time wore a deceptive aspect. Dr. Henderson reckoned the actual profit of the colony at one and a-half per cent., while Prinsep, a barrister of Calcutta, described every branch of

business as a path to opulence. In 1829 a merchant sold £1500 worth of goods at an advance of fifty per cent. and a credit over three years bearing fifteen per cent., amounting to £2250 in all. A glut sometimes reduced the value of merchandise below London price. The increase of capital and the opening of cash credits facilitated the operations of the settlers, but tempted many to ruin. The Government rewarded the rapid improvement of estates, the erection of substantial dwellings, farm buildings and fences, by grants of land in extension. To secure the proffered boon the settlers accepted the assistance of money-lenders, whose claims at length absorbed the proceeds of their toil. During a progress through the colony the Governor visited many establishments, and distinguished the enterprising agriculturist with special favour. On his return to head-quarters he expressed the pleasure his inspection had afforded; and noticed in a public order Gatenby, of the Isis, as a "good old English yeoman," and an example of enterprise and skill. Well assured that His Majesty was desirous that the character of a plain, upright farmer should meet with encouragement and reward, he added to the settler's grant 1000 acres. The "Gatenby farmers" were henceforth noted as a favoured class, and many anxious for the same recompense borrowed, enclosed and improved, until they had not a rood of land to call their own. The most distinguished money-lender was Sheriff Ferreday, whose ordinary charge was thirty-five per cent., or less with ample security. After a few years he returned to Europe, having realised £20,000 by usury. At his death he devised a portion of his wealth to Oxford University to found a scholarship. He suffered much vituperation, probably with little comparative justice. "His Bible," said Gellibrand, "is his bill-book and his gold his god," a quotation from Burke highly relished at the time. The Treasury was again robbed in 1832. It was observed that the office papers were deranged; constables were stationed to watch, and a sentinel was placed at the door. The sudden examination of the chest by the Governor discovered a more serious transaction. It appeared that capital had been borrowed from the chest without authority to the amount of some thousands; the money was however restored. No public care could reclaim these funds from their tendency to escape, and they were not deemed sure until out of the custody of the Government. The Secretary of State directed the public cash to be deposited with the banks. The Treasurer was not authorised to retain more than £10,000 of paper, and the V.D.L. and Derwent Banks each received charge of £10,000 in cash. During six years the revenue had risen from £30,000 to £60,000. Notwithstanding a very liberal official expenditure, the surplus funds in 1831 amounted to nearly £10,000. The interior communication was facilitated both by the business of the police and the cheap labour in the hands of the Crown. The post of

Sorell's time was a private speculation, conveyed on foot, afterwards on horseback. On 19th June 1832 a "cheap and expeditious conveyance to and from Launceston" was announced. The owner, J. E. Cox, drove tandem, at the rate of forty miles a-day; only one passenger was accommodated, at a fare of £5. The practicability of the journey was then the subject of considerable betting. In 1827 and the two following seasons N.S.W. suffered serious droughts, which increased in severity. Rivers were exhausted, and their beds left dry. Not only the want of rain was felt, but a withering blight, travelling in a defined current over the cultivated districts, cut off their harvests. In two years the cultivation of wheat in V.D.L. increased from 20,000 to 30,000 acres, and the average price of wheat at Hobart Town was eight shillings per bushel. This stimulated further production, and tended to avert from V.D.L. the distress which over-speculation and scarcity produced in N.S.W. This dearth was followed by two plentiful harvests and a depression of prices. The farmers of N.S.W. entreated Governor Darling to establish a corn law, to check importation. In declining the project he attributed the successful competition of this country to the superiority of its wheat and facility of transit; and hinted that the elder colony was indebted to foreign supplies for its subsistence. The penal character of the colony at this period was constantly indicated in the entire spirit of legislation. Thus a house could be broken into at night, when a person suspected as an absconder was expected to be found there; whoever engaged a convict, though in ignorance of his civil condition, incurred the penalties of "harbouring." Publicans were liable to fines for supplying such persons even with common refreshment. Any man might arrest another whom he chose to fancy a prisoner at large. These deviations from the practices of society in its regular state were occasionally vexatious, but not commonly. The settlers being acquainted with each other, and the servants usually known to the constables, prevented those practical evils, otherwise inevitable. At the accession of Arthur the country about the Clyde and Shannon was stocked with numerous herds, and from their bulk the lands on which they fed were then called the Plains of Bashan. The herdsmen acquired great skill in tracking and driving the cattle. Their stations were in advance of the located districts, and opened many fine patches of country. Their horsemanship was celebrated; they galloped amidst the trees, now stopping, now leaning to the right or to the left; avoiding obstruction and escaping collision with wonderful agility. They lived a half-savage life; were the reckless oppressors of the natives; often the accomplices of the bush-rangers, and accused of many crimes. To brand the cattle, they were driven within an enclosure seven feet high, and when exhausted by hunger, one man armed with a pole threw a

loop round the horns, another entangled the legs, and the beast was branded with a heated iron; then turned into the woods, or driven to market. Little caution respecting the rights of ownership was observed; several were capitally convicted, when probably they were careless rather than deliberately criminal. The larger herds belonged chiefly to gentlemen of different families but of the name of Lord. In describing their depredations, it was said that a party of the E. L's, D. L's or the R. L's had made an excursion. The complaining farmer was told that he might impound, but not maim them; but a troop of horsemen were required for this purpose. "The glorious 23rd of May." Such was the day and month of 1831, separated by those who witnessed its achievements to everlasting renown. The excitement of the campaign against the blacks had absorbed political animosities, and brought all parties together; but by this time the popularity of the Governor was spent. The struggle for parliamentary reform agitated Great Britain, and the colonists determined to attempt the recovery of their rights as Englishmen. So lively was the interest in the affairs of Europe, that the tricolour was mounted by more ardent politicians. The last wave of revolution, which had scattered thrones, rippled on these shores. A meeting was called by the Sheriff, and the principal speakers were the Gellibrands, Crombie, Cartwright, Dunn, Abbott, F. Smith, Meredith, Lascelles, Gregson, Jennings, Kemp, Hewitt, and Lowes; of these none were so conspicuous as Mr. Thos. Horne (a relative of the Great Horne Tookey) afterwards puisne judge and who was described as the "honest barrister" by the admiring press. "If crushing," said the learned civilian, "is to be brought into operation no doubt I shall be crushed. Let them crush me and they will associate my name with the record of this meeting, which history will preserve to the latest period of time." The object of the movement was to bring under the royal notice the government of the colony and to demand trial by jury and a Legislative Assembly. The petition to the King was entrusted to the custody of Mr. Sams, who was proceeding to Great Britain. Whether it ever reached the throne was a matter of dispute; some said it had been committed to the deep, with much solemnity; others that it had passed from the messenger to the hands of a merchant, who disregarded its fate. It obtained no reply. The colony had just reason to complain at the time. The Supreme Court had been closed for many months; the business of the Legislative Council detained the Judge and Attorney-General from their proper functions, and for nearly two years no gaol delivery had occurred at Launceston. Two persons, father and son, charged with cattle stealing, had been two years awaiting trial, when they were both acquitted. The evidence against them was of the slightest description, yet during their detention domestic calamities had overtaken them. The delay was still further extended by the issue

of a new charter, and with the usual incaution of the Secretary of State. This charter arrived 1831; it nominated Mr. Pedder chief justice and Alexander Macduff Baxter puisne judge. It made no provision for continuing process begun in the late court, and required colonial legislation to cure the defects of its details. Baxter, the puisne judge elect, had been Attorney-General of N.S.W. His relations with Darling had not been cordial, and he was disgraced in the eyes of the public by domestic differences; his wife was insane and he himself was intemperate. Just before he left Sydney for V.D.L. he was bound over to keep the peace and was declared insolvent. On his arrival the royal warrant for his induction had not reached the colony, and after some delay he returned to N.S.W., and thence to Great Britain, where he died. Baxter ascribed his ruin to his grant from the Crown; he employed persons to look after his estate, and they conducted him to beggary. The Lieutenant-Governor resolved, if possible, to exclude Baxter from an office which he could only dishonour, and passed an act pronounced by the lawyers a piece of "doubtful and dangerous legislation," by which the clause of the charter requiring two judges was expunged, thus constituting the court of one. The Act of Parliament, however, authorised the measure; the Council had power to repel or annul a patent until the pleasure of the Crown was known. The Act was approved, and remains among the laws. Occasions might occur when the course of justice would be arrested in a small community by requiring many officers to constitute a court. The reformers were not disheartened by their failure; they assembled again the following year at the request of the Hornes, Gellibrands and the Gregsons. The effort was unavailing. In 1834 it was renewed with still more earnestness; the former parties re-enforced by many important accessions maintained the popular cause. Repeated disappointments excited some bitterness, which was expressed in strong terms. Mr. Thomas Horne reminded the Home Government that they would make "a dissatisfied and turbulent people, ready to use their power and assert their rights if necessary by force of arms." He advised the oblivion of minute grievances, and said "were the angel Gabriel to propose one measure and Satan another, if he considered Satan's the most politic he should have the honour of adopting it." But neither importunity nor threatenings prevailed. These efforts were renewed in the following year; but in 1835 some of the chief advocates of a Legislative Assembly deprecated the penal institutions of the colony, and proposed that all convicts, on their arrival, should be set free; of this plan Mr. R. L. Murray was a distinguished advocate. A case occurred in which a young man, Robert Bryan, was tried on two separate indictments, and such was the evidence, that many unprejudiced persons concurred in the verdict; yet the witnesses against him were open to suspicion. It was commonly asserted that he was sacrificed, if not by the

contrivance with the concurrence of the Government. The trial was reported by the *Colonial Times*. The editor, Henry Melville, pointed out in strong language the suspicion of unfairness; the dependence of the jury; the presence of the Governor at Launceston during the trial; the infamous character of certain of the witnesses; and the overruling a challenge of a juror by the prisoner. The remarks of Melville were carried beyond the tolerated bounds of public criticism; the Attorney-General, Stephen, induced the court to issue an attachment. The defendant was required to admit the authorship; this being done, the judge whose conduct he had censured pronounced the sentence. To judge, condemn, and imprison, at once and by the party offended, included all that tyranny could ask. Any reference to the proceedings of a court which the judge might choose to pronounce a libel might consign to perpetual imprisonment. A similar case at Newfoundland was discussed in the House of Commons, and the ministers joined the opposition in severely reprehending the practice. The papers published the debate, and Arthur slowly obeyed the signal and gave Melville his liberty. Motions for attachment have not often disgraced the administration of justice; they are relics of barbarous times. This process was issued against Fawcner, the editor of the *Launceston Advertiser*, who escaped by an apology; and it was moved for by the Attorney-General (Stephen) against Murray and Melville for calling an affidavit of the Solicitor-General to the effect that a fair trial could not be obtained in Bryant's case with a colonial jury—"an extraordinary document!" The judges dismissed the application, when Stephen remarked that he "thanked God he despised the observations as well as scoundrel-like motives which influenced them." A public meeting demanding trial by jury was held in 1834; an address was presented to Arthur by deputation. In urging the amendments of the law they referred to the extraordinary powers possessed by the Government. Arthur, in reply, professed a liberal desire to gratify their wishes; but denied that he possessed extraordinary powers or that "they required to be watched with more than usual jealousy." He had however deferred the establishment of British laws to the last possible moment, and certainly possessed great powers; on the whole, more capable of perversion than any ever known in a British colony. The Attorney-General, Stephen, was desirous of substituting for the assessors a jury of seven instead of twelve. His project was opposed by Mr. Kemp, and indeed very generally disapproved. It was argued that the chances of influence multiply as the number of jurors are decreased, and that the national practice was the only safe guide. The amount of discussion that attended the dispute was prodigious: pamphlets and letters without end. The prejudice of the people was however on the right side; although there is nothing sacred in an

even number, the retrenchment must have increased the facility of corruption. The law as it ultimately passed removed the danger by giving either party a right to demand a jury; and to the party against whom the application was made a choice between a petty and special jury; but three-fourths were taken as the whole after six hours' deliberation. This act was framed in virtue of an order of council by the King in 1830. It provided that in criminal prosecutions where the Governor, or any inferior officer, civil or military, could be interested in the result of a trial, a jury taken from the special jury list should try the issue. Towards the close of Arthur's administration many not prone to party strife were anxious for its termination. The meetings to petition were more frequent and assumed a more genial character. As the causes of dissension became better understood the patronage of the Governor ceased to be considerable, and no colonist was a lover of unprofitable despotism. These sentiments prevailed in both penal colonies. A "political association" was formed in V.D.L. A standing Council was organised under the auspices of certain leading politicians, who discussed the measures deemed necessary to amend their social and political condition. Thomas Horne, the secretary of this body, opened a correspondence with the Governor, and endeavoured to direct his attention to its complaints. Arthur declined recognising his credentials without an express sanction from the Crown. The association however carried on its debates. The Council deliberated in public; the members were assembled in the body of the hall and spectators were admitted to the gallery. Their proceedings were reported in the newspapers, but with party colouring. By Dr. Ross they were turned into bitter ridicule; his remarks were retorted with cruelty and insult. A storm collected around him he could not disperse, and he laid down his pen soon after with expressions of ill-concealed anguish. The recall of Arthur, long anticipated by his enemies, at length arrived. Some months before he had been informed by the Secretary of State that "having continued him in his Government for the unusual period of twelve years, the Crown intended to name his successor." On the recommendation of Mr. Huskisson the duration of an ordinary Government was limited to six years. Special reasons withdrew V.D.L. from the operation of this rule. The Ministerial changes at the seat of empire left Arthur's influence unimpaired. The variations of national policy rarely reached his sphere. Unwelcome orders he managed to modify or evade. The difficult nature of his duties, the distance of his Government from supervision, and the weakness of the free population enabled him to assume and maintain for many years a discretion all but unlimited. He repressed the outrages of the lawless and restored comparative tranquillity. Under his auspices the chief town, which he found consisting of a few frail dwellings, assumed the aspect of a commercial city. Many he received in chains were established in social happiness; many

immigrants who arrived with slender resources had risen to opulence. In 1836 the revenue had increased from £16,000 to £106,639; the imports from £62,000 to £583,646; the exports from £14,500 to 320,679; mills, from 5 to 47; colonial vessels, from 1 to 71; churches, from 4 to 18; the population had risen from 12,000 to 40,000; and every branch of public and private enterprise exhibited the same general aspect. It would be absurd to ascribe to Arthur even the main credit of these results; they were the effect of that spirit of industry which ever characterises the native of Great Britain and which nothing can wholly extinguish. Nor was this prosperity without alloy. The unproductive improvement encouraged was sometimes unhealthy. The settlers were deeply involved: the valuation of property was raised beyond reasonable calculation. The pleasing delusion was cherished by the members of the Government whose official and private interests concurred to dupe them. Happy were they who sold. Arthur left many who, acquiring his favour by the extent of their outlay and the vigour of their enterprise, were laden with debts from which they never recovered, and a prey to perpetual solicitude. West thus sums up his estimate of Arthur's administration:—"A just estimate of Arthur's administration must include all the peculiarities of his position and the complicated interests he held in trust, whether they relate to the Imperial Government, the free, or the bond. The measures best for the colony were not always compatible with the design of its establishment. Nor must we forget that, in surveying the past we have lights which rarely attend the present; that much which experience may amend it is not possible for wisdom to foresee. The primary object of the Crown in colonising this island was accepted by this Governor as the chief aim of his policy. The settlement of free men he considered but subsidiary to the control and reform of the transported offender; their claims, their duties, and their political rights were, in his view, determined by their peculiar position. They were auxiliaries hired by royal bounties, to co-operate with the great machinery of punishment and reformation. As the representative of the Crown, he stood off from the colonies in their sympathies and ultimate views. Employed not to build up a free community of Englishmen, but to hold in check the criminality of an empire, with him the settlement was an institution requisite to the effective execution of penal laws. Such he found it; such he desired to mould its growth, and to prolong its destination. Thus, except in the capacity of employers, he regretted the arrival of free men, and warned the ministers of the Crown that by their encouragement of emigration they were destroying the value of bond labour, the dependence of the settlers, and the adaptation of the island for the purposes of a prison." In the course of his administration Arthur had most places at his temporary disposal; he

filled them wherever possible with his friends, and he left his nephews in the highest appointments within their professional capacity. Arthur drew out a minute detail of official subordination. The duties prescribed for his officers were defined with laboured exactness, and the reins of control met in his hands. Everything was referred to himself, and his instructions were definite and generally irrevocable. Many persons appointed by the Crown were dismissed or thrown off by his contrivance. Accident placed many officers in his provisional gift. Baxter, a judge elect; Gellibrand, an attorney-general; Ferreday, a sheriff; Thomas, a treasurer; Burnett, a colonial secretary; O'Ferrall, a collector of customs; and many in lower station, relinquished or lost their appointments by the determination of his inflexible and unflinching will. The forfeiture was sometimes obviously just; but it was a maxim of his Government to fill the departments with persons who knew no patronage except his own. Among them were candidates for the same gifts who looked for fortunes beyond the limits of their duties; they cultivated farms, became competitors for prison labour, and speculators in commerce. The Supreme Court and the newspapers were often occupied by their recriminations; sometimes they exchanged challenges and sometimes writs. The colonists in opposition saw, not without some gratification, dissensions which seemed to weaken the common enemy, and the press was often enriched by the malice of official pens. Many were, however, too wise to quarrel; their quiet industry enabled them to combine the public and private employments without scandal and with success. They were indeed accused of peculation; but specific charges were generally rebutted, and can now only be noticed as a rumour, and dismissed as detraction. The industry of Arthur was constant; his attention to the details of his Government, and his perseverance as a despatch-writer were universally admitted; a large proportion of his time he spent in his office, and toiled with an assiduity which would have been fatal to ordinary men. It was commonly stated that he was not very accessible; but he willingly heard those whose education and habits qualified them to suggest. Persons of every rank were admitted to an audience on a slight pretence. He was quick in estimating the characters and capacities of all who approached him. The great works of Arthur were attributed by his opponents to sinister motives; those most frequently mentioned were the new wharf at Hobart Town, the road to Richmond, and the Bridgewater causeway. Arthur benefited by his fore-knowledge. The imputations of personal injustice or corruption were not unfounded; what he gained, others did not lose, except by the common risks of a sale. Thus the property of the Rev. Robert Knopwood whom he was said to defraud, was several times in the market; it was offered by advertisement many years before; its future

appropriation to commerce was predicted, and was described to enhance its price. It was offered by Knopwood to Mrs. Hodgson for £800; it was purchased by H. Jennings, a nephew of Gellibrand, a senior, without reference to Arthur; and was finally sold to his agent at a small advance. The new wharf rendered the purchase highly advantageous; but there was neither deceit nor oppression. But although many of his works will perpetuate his memory while the country lasts, they could only be justified by their connection with penal arrangements. The discipline prescribed did not admit of rapid movement or wide distribution. Huts were necessary for the convicts, houses for their offices and various stores; and it was only on extensive exactions that labour could be inspected with success. The waste of expenditure was rather apparent than real. The objects contemplated were not colonial, and thus if the local obligation is lessened the ground of complaint is diminished. During his Government Arthur became wealthy; his estates were numerous and their sale realised a large amount. That he acquired them improperly is not even capable of suspicion, that he applied clandestinely the means afforded by his office to improve them is equally destitute of evidence. Arthur held his last levée on the afternoon of his departure. Several hundreds were present, collected from all parts of his Government. He proceeded with the chief officers, civil and military, to the beach, where the 21st Fusiliers awaited him. Multitudes attended his progress; the wharf was crowded with spectators; a hundred boats surrounded the Government barge and followed him to the ship. The vessels in the harbour were decorated, and his numerous friends gave the usual demonstrations of favour. In these feelings many did not participate. Some followed him with hisses and groans, others illuminated their houses in token of joy. Some fell into the hands of the police, overpowered by their excessive gladness. Having gone through the ceremony of embarkation, he returned to his office, and spent the night in completing his last labours. Adverse winds detained the vessel, and he passed the Sabbath in sight of that country where his name can never be forgotten, and where monuments more durable than brass, formed by his care, will remain to the end of time."

X. *Governor Franklin*.—Before the departure of Arthur the brigade-major of the military district, Lieutenant-Colonel Kenneth Snodgrass, C.B., arrived at Hobart Town from Sydney. He was sworn in as Acting-Lieutenant-Governor on 31st October 1836. He had attained a military reputation in the Burmese war, of which he published a narrative. He was cordially received and his temporary relations were too brief to leave any impression on colonial affairs. The appointment of Sir John Franklin, Captain in the Royal Navy, and Knight of the Guelphic Order of Hanover, was announced by Sir George Grey in the House of Commons on the 13th April 1836. He was

accompanied by Captain Maconochie, late Secretary of the Geographical Society, and one of the Professors of the London University; and by the Rev. William Hutchins, in whose favour V.D.L. was erected into an archdeaconry. Franklin assumed the government on 6th January 1837. The nomination of Franklin was acceptable to the colony. His profession, his career and character, were considered auspicious. He had accompanied the illustrious Flinders on his voyage of discovery, and was at Sydney when the first party left that colony to colonise the island. During thirty-four years he had himself obtained great nautical renown; his intrepidity, his sufferings, his humanity and piety, had been often the theme of popular admiration, and were not unknown in Tasmania. The colonists were resolved to give him an appropriate welcome. He saw with astonishment the signs of wealth and activity in a country which he only remembered as a wilderness. Crowds followed him with acclamations; addresses couched in language of eulogy and hope poured in from every district. The progress of the Governor through the colony was attended with feasting, balls, and public festivities. On his entrance into Launceston he was escorted by three hundred horsemen and seventy carriages; the streets were thronged; the windows were crowded by fair spectators who shared the general enthusiasm. The private settlers received him with unsparing hospitality; he was both oppressed and delighted with the signs of popular joy. The hearty frankness of his replies was contrasted with the official coldness ascribed to his predecessor. He repeatedly reminded the colonists that although ambitious of their favour the duties of his station would probably oblige him to disappoint their desires. He assured them that he came among them without prejudice, and determined to "see with his own eyes, hear with his own ears and judge with his own judgment." On his return to the seat of Government Franklin addressed a despatch to Lord Glenelg, containing an exulting description of his tour. He had seen the colony in its holiday dress, and all parties had mingled their acclamations. He depicted with expressions of astonishment the easy circumstances and general intelligence of the settlers, and especially noticed their exertions to acquire religious and educational advantages. His Lordship replied that this report confirmed his estimate of Franklin's predecessor. In his first minute to the Legislative Council Franklin pronounced an eulogium on Arthur's services, and laid on the table a despatch of the Secretary of State of similar import. The feelings of personal respect with which the people regarded Franklin were greatly increased by the amiable and high-spirited character of his wife. Lady Franklin possessed in her own right a large private fortune, which she employed in the most generous and kindly manner; her counsel and her wealth were ever ready to promote prosperity and alleviate sufferings. And yet in spite

of all this personal esteem the experience of the new Governor among the colonists was far from being agreeable. Before the arrival of Franklin two nephews of Governor Arthur had been raised to very high positions. One of them, Montagu, was Chief Secretary; and during his uncle's government he had contrived to appropriate to himself so great a share of power that Franklin, on assuming office, was forced to occupy quite a secondary position. By some of the colonists the Governor was blamed for permitting the arbitrary acts of the Chief Secretary; while on the other hand he was bitterly denounced as an intermeddler by the numerous friends of the ambitious Montagu, who himself lost no opportunity of bringing the Governor's authority into contempt; and at length went so far as to write him a letter containing—amid biting sarcasm and mock courtesy—a statement equivalent to a charge of falsehood. In consequence of this he was dismissed; but Franklin, who considered Montagu to be a man of ability, magnanimously gave him a letter to Lord Stanley, recommending him for employment in some other important position. This letter, being conveyed to Stanley, was adduced by Montagu as a confession from the Governor of the superior ability and special fitness of the Chief Secretary for his post. Lord Stanley ordered his salary to be paid from the date of his dismissal; and Franklin had to submit to this insult to his authority. After the cessation of transportation to N.S.W. in 1840 hopes were entertained that T. would likewise cease to be a penal settlement; and, under this impression, great numbers of emigrants arrived in the colony. But, ere long, it became known that T. was not only to continue as before a receptacle for British felons; but was, in fact, to be made the *only* convict settlement, and was destined to receive the full stream of criminals that had formerly been distributed over several colonies. The result was immediately disastrous to the free settlers, for convict labour could be obtained at very little cost, and wages therefore fell to a rate so miserable that free labourers, not being able to earn enough for the support of their families, were forced to leave the island. Thus in 1844 whilst the arrival of energetic and hard-working emigrants was adding greatly to the prosperity of the other colonies, T. was losing its free population, and was sinking more and more into the degraded position of a convict station. Lord Stanley, Secretary of State in 1842, proposed a new plan for the treatment of convicts, according to which they were to pass through various stages, from a condition of absolute confinement to one of comparative freedom; and again, instead of being all collected into one town, it was arranged that they should be scattered throughout the colony in small gangs. By this system, it was intended that the prisoners should pass through several periods of probation before they were set at liberty; and it was therefore called the Probation Scheme. The great objection to it was that the

men could scarcely be superintended with due precaution when they were scattered in so many separate groups, and many of them escaped, either to the bush or to the adjacent colonies. At the time of Franklin's first visit to the northern part of the island the comparative resources of the two districts were as follows:—Launceston, 11,734 acres under cultivation, and 95,852 sheep; Hobart Town, 2769 acres, and 3107 sheep. The total live stock in the colony numbered 745,556 sheep, 82,249 cattle, and 6459 horses; with 69,662 acres in crop. Immediately the resources of Launceston were known, its trade increased so rapidly that it exceeded that of Hobart Town, notwithstanding its being the seat of Government. In 1838 the shipping numbered 188 vessels of 22,135 tons, carrying imports valued at £230,399, and exports, £262,183. At this time the population of Launceston was upwards of 8000; the town contained two English churches, one Scotch church, one Wesleyan chapel, one Independent chapel, and one Roman Catholic chapel, besides two schools for boys, two for girls, and one infant school. The total population of T. in the same year was:—Free, 23,040; convicts, 16,000. The former were classed religiously as:—Church of England, 16,000; Church of Scotland, 2500; Church of Rome, 2250; Wesleyans, 1280; Independents, 630; Baptists, 170; Quakers, 80, and Jews 130. Franklin had brought out with him as private secretary Captain Maconochie, who had a benevolent theory of his own, founded on the "mark" system, and set himself to collect facts. In his estimate of prisoners Maconochie, it is said, was equally deceived by a generous confidence and by his pity for human suffering. He embodied the results in a report and sent it home to the Colonial Office without having fully explained the contents of the despatch to Franklin. On its publication he was dismissed by the Governor, and stormy discussions followed the charges made against the settlers. Sir William Molesworth's select committee of the House of Commons had recommended that transportation to N.S.W. and T. should cease. It was determined to adopt a middle course, and Norfolk Island was selected for the new experiment. Maconochie was appointed by Governor Gipps Commandant of the Island, "to test the ideas he had propounded and to seek the success he had foretold." At once he removed all outward signs of the severest discipline. The gaol doors were thrown open, the gaoler loitered before the deserted prison, and the prisoners "yielded to the spell of a transient enchantment." The "mark" or reward system by which they could obtain freedom by good behaviour was explained to them, and they were exhorted and entreated in tones humane even to tenderness. In May 1840, 1800 prisoners on Norfolk Island were set for one day (the Queen's Birthday) absolutely free to join in a general festivity, at which sports and a theatrical performance took place. Glees and songs were sung, tobacco and rum were served out and three cheers

for Her Majesty and three for the Commandant rent the air. No accident occurred—the gaol was entirely unoccupied—no theft or disorder had disgraced the day. “Its novelty gave to Maconochie’s system the air of delirium; the disciplinarians of the ancient *regime* raised their hands with astonishment.” But Franklin’s expectations of a peaceable and prosperous rule were doomed to disappointment—the system of Machiavelian complication and intrigue which at that time pervaded the conduct of the Government hampered and baffled the simple-hearted honest sailor, and left him the victim of designing officials until the closing years of his sojourn in T., when he finally saw and broke through the entanglements drawn round him by covetous and evil counsellors. “His administration was eminently disinterested. He had no private speculations or secret agents, and his measures were free from both the taint and the reproach of corruption.” A contemporary writer remarks:—“The constant efforts of Sir John and Lady Franklin to arouse and foster a taste for science, literature, or art were more often productive of annoyance to themselves than of benefit to the unambitious multitude. The coarse and unmanly attacks made in some of the public papers on Lady Franklin, whose kindness and ability, even if not appreciated at their full value, ought at least to have met with gratitude and respect, were most disgraceful. Lady Franklin’s attempts to introduce evening parties in the *conversazione* style were highly unpopular with the pretty Tasmanians, who asked, ‘Why could not Lady Franklin have the military band in and the carpets out, and give dances, instead of such stupid preaching about philosophy and science and a parcel of stuff that nobody could understand?’” Many efforts had been made to obtain admission for the public during the sittings of the Legislature. The members had been long released from the oath of secrecy, and their votes, and even the substance of their speeches, were occasionally known. Franklin determined to throw open the doors of the Council Chamber in 1837, and expressed a conviction that the freedom of public discussion, founded on accurate knowledge, would confirm the measures or correct the wanderings of the Legislature. As the first sittings of the Council, the novelty of the privilege secured an attendance at the debates; but the desultory and heavy discussions soon tired the patience, and members pointed with exultation or regret to those deserted benches, where patriots had vowed to watch the course of legislation. A bill was introduced by Franklin, and passed into law in November 1837, which authorised the Governor to grant £300 to any congregation to provide a parsonage, and £700 for the erection of a church, or a sum not greater than the amount subscribed by the people. It directed the issue of a salary of £200 to any minister of the three churches whose congregation should be equal to eighty adults, or in towns to two hundred. The discussion

of this bill created considerable controversy; the ministers of the Church of England were especially opposed to its latitudinarian aspect, and Archdeacon Hutchins represented that the principle was wholly untenable on Christian grounds. Archdeacon Hutchins died suddenly in June 1841. His estimable private character and clerical zeal endeared his memory to many. The Hutchins Grammar School was erected as an appropriate memorial of his worth. The vacancy occasioned by his demise suggested the establishment of the diocese of T. This was founded by letters patent on 27th August 1842, when Dr. Francis Russell Nixon was constituted first Bishop. In 1840 the Legislative Council sanctioned the establishment of a college and the erection of buildings. The cost was variously estimated from £12,000. The Queen’s School, intended to be afterwards a preparatory institution, was first formed. The denominational leaning of the college awakened considerable opposition. G. P. Gell, of Cambridge University, was nominated principal of the college. The Government, by the advice of Gell and the Archdeacon, selected New Norfolk as the college site. On 6th November 1840 the foundation-stone was laid by Franklin, assisted by the Members of Council and heads of departments and Captains Ross and Crozier of the Antarctic Expedition. The year 1840 was the most prosperous year in the history of V.D.L. The revenue rose to £183,000. The imports were £988,000, and the exports £867,000. The chief difficulties in Franklin’s official career were in ameliorating the condition of the prisoners and dealing with the vast numbers of those who were poured into the colony. In the five years subsequent to 1840 nearly 20,000 persons were transported to the colony. The smiling aspect of the settlement underwent an entire change, and “the old free settlers,” says Sir Charles Dilke in his *Greater Britain*, “will tell you that the deadly shade of slave labour has not blighted Jamaica more thoroughly than that of convict labour has Van Diemen’s Land.” During the first year of Franklin’s administration nearly 14,000 snakes were killed in the island, and Lady Franklin paid nearly £700 for their destruction. The extensive land sales, combined with the demand for labour, induced Franklin to promote immigration. A vessel was dispatched to Adelaide, where many were suffering severe distress. The N.Z. emigrants were also dissatisfied, and many found their way to colonies where wages were high. This course was inconvenient, and excited great indignation among employers in S.A., who prevailed on the Government to pass a law intended to check emigration to V.D.L. Franklin disapproved of these methods of supplying the labour market, and proposed to devote £60,000 for the introduction of suitable working families from Great Britain. By many this movement was hailed with strong expressions of approbation as a pledge of social elevation of the working classes. The greater part of the settlers appointed Henry Dowling their agent; and

shiploads of emigrants were sent out in rapid succession. On their arrival a financial crisis reduced their wages. The Home Government changed its views, and resolved to continue transportation; the land fund, which had reached £50,000 in 1841, rapidly declined; and in 1843 Lord Stanley was informed that for years to come little revenue could be expected from the sale of land. The local officers, unable to pay the charge, were induced to dispute it, and they attempted to east on the agents of immigration the failure of plans disallowed by the Commissioners. They evaded the payment for one year. The claims of the shippers were instantly allowed by the Secretary of State with the usual interest, and Dowling, who had been aspersed by the Local Government, was amply vindicated by the Commissioners. The Colonial Secretary charged him with collusive sale of his agency to London shippers, and a fraud on the Colonial Treasury. Dowling protected his character by an appeal to the Supreme Court, when Horne the attorney-general admitted that the imputation was unfounded, but succeeded in convincing the jury that no malice is to be inferred from the tenor of a libel when the writer cannot be supposed to be influenced by mere personal animosity. Dowling lost by his agency more than a thousand pounds. An exceedingly useful class of emigrants arrived under the Commissioners, who readily sanctioned the applications, regard being had to the equality of the sexes. The Commissioners defended their opposition to the plans of the local Government. They asserted that private agents could never select labourers sufficient to freight a ship; and they inferred that transferable orders for the payment of bounty on the arrival of emigrants would be either matters of traffic, or that private persons, discouraged by the difficulties of their task, would abandon it in despair. For two or three years the emigrants were satisfied and moderately prosperous. The subdivision of town property was rapid. On every side small brick tenements multiplied. Every mechanic aspired to possess a dwelling of his own. But Lord Stanley's system of probation rapidly told on the condition of the workman. He stood aghast; he persevered for a time; he appealed to the Government for protection against convict competition. For one-fourth its actual cost his property passed into the hands of others; in Launceston especially many suburban neighbourhoods were deserted. The emigrants brought out at so much public and private cost were expelled to the adjacent settlements, to begin the world anew. One of those seasons of general distress to which small communities are especially liable pervaded the entire colonies (1841-4.) A variety of causes contributed to augment its pressure, and to involve the whole in commercial embarrassment. The imports of N.S.W. and V.D.L. exceeding £20 per head; the high price of grain, reaching 28s. per bushel; the enormous rate of interest, and the boundless

extravagance of credit and expense, produced a convulsion all but universal. The measures of the Government increased the pressure of these difficulties. The land sales by auction at Port Phillip were succeeded by the system of selling on special surveys at £1 per acre, and he who one year before had competed for his purchase found the next section in the hands of his neighbour at half the price he had given. The settlers in the elder colonies had speculated deeply. Stock and implements were transferred to the new country under cover of credit. Competition raised the value of bullocks to £30 per pair, of horses to £60, of sheep to £2, the wages of servants to £50 per annum. The Government had raised the minimum price of land, and thus those who were entitled to take up their surveys under a lower denomination hastened their purchases with borrowed money. The London merchants consigned immense quantities of goods on speculation, which were poured into the market; the promissory notes of irresponsible persons were taken by their agents; the fraudulent laid up for the crisis; insolvent estates were crowded into auctions; goods sunk below the expenses of the factor; dividends of a few shillings in the pound represented the assets of persons indebted from £50,000 to £100,000; and had not the chief losses finally rested with the London merchants and the English banks the disasters of the times must have long retarded colonial prosperity. The effects of this revulsion were soon felt in V.D.L., where peddling traders had thriven in momentary credit by the union of worthless names on their bills. As an instance — one hundred bushels of wheat, sold ultimately for £40, were transferred to a succession of speculating purchasers, who raised among them £1000 on credit of the exchange from one to another. The Governments of the colonies had exhibited remarkable miscalculation. In all, the Treasury failed to meet the expenses. The deposits formerly realised by land sales were withdrawn from the banks. Debentures were issued; new taxes were imposed. The commercial panic was in full career when the Crown renewed transportation to V.D.L.; and thousands and tens of thousands of British offenders were gathered on the island. The expenditure of the Government, though large, was chiefly confined to the Capital or fell into the hands of the merchants; but it is worthy of remark that, except one house all who could pretend to that rank maintained their position. The settlers were, however, deeply involved. They were mostly induced to purchase at the land sales by borrowed capital. They complained bitterly of the usury, to which their produce bore no comparison, and incessantly invoked the Legislature to limit the exactions of money-lenders. To aggravate these evils American flour poured into the colonial markets, drawing their cash and rendering agriculture profitless. The declarations of insolvency were daily. Whole streets of mechanics and traders followed each

other. A common liability to the same ordeal introduced a system of dangerous license; and men walked away with their creditors' property without molestation and almost without reproach. The statistics of these times afford a memorable warning to all: to the Government, that by enticing people to purchase the land the general revenue will suffer by their imprudence; to the banks, that by reckless advances capital will be sacrificed for nominal assets; and to British merchants, that by glutting every store with speculative consignments they render their exports of no value—that they ruin the shopkeeper, whose capital they destroy by the competition and sacrifice of their own. But the great resources of the colonies soon manifested themselves. A settler at Port Phillip discovered or applied the art of boiling down the surplus stock, so as to produce the tallow of commerce; and sheep worth 2s. 6d. rose to 8s. The discovery of the Burra Mines raised Adelaide from deep prostration. The opening of new tracts of country offered a vast field for successful enterprise; wool once more rose in price; the banks lowered their discounts to a reasonable level; the goods saved from the general wreck appeared in the shops of those who took the tide at its flow; and every colony exhibited the sign of returning vigour—all but V.D.L. The last three years of Franklin's administration were chiefly employed in arranging the details of the system of convict discipline, afterwards expanded by Lord Stanley to gigantic proportions, and described sufficiently already in this history. Accompanied by Lady Franklin, the Governor penetrated the western district of V.D.L. to Macquarie Harbour, formerly a penal station, to ascertain its fitness for a similar purpose, and some of the perils of his early life were renewed. His absence for several weeks awakened great anxiety, and his return was greeted with a general welcome (1842.) The appointment of Franklin to this Government was made at the instance of William IV., by whom he was greatly esteemed. It was the expectation of Franklin to find an easy retreat, like some of the military governments, where veterans enjoy the dignity of office without its toils. But he found himself doomed to encounter all the responsibilities of ordinary legislation and government, with difficulties peculiar to a penal colony. For this his former pursuits had not prepared him. His manner was often embarrassed and hesitating, and presented a contrast to the quiet vigour of his more able but not more amiable predecessor. The colony had attained that development when the public institutions require construction, and the popular will must in some measure regulate their form and spirit. The administration of the Governor was eminently disinterested. He had no private speculations or secret agents, and his measures were free from both the taint and the reproach of corruption. Such faults were sometimes imputed, but they were the staple slanders of writers without credit or name. His expenditure greatly exceeded his

official income; and while the plainness of his establishment and entertainments was the topic of thoughtless censure, the charities of his family were scattered with a liberal hand. The piety of Franklin was ardent, and his conscience scrupulous. His remarks in council on the sports of some idle boys in the government domain on the Lord's-day exposed him to the satire of scorners. An anecdote, on the authority of Captain Back, shows his harmless character in a striking light. The writer observes—"As an illustration of the excellent individual to whom it refers, I may be pardoned for introducing it here. It was the custom of Franklin never to kill a fly, and though teased with them beyond expression, especially when taking observations, he would gently desist from his work, and patiently blowed the half-gorged intruder from his hands, saying, 'the world is wide enough for both.' Manfully (an Indian chief) could not refrain from expressing his surprise that I should be so unlike the 'old chief' who would not destroy a single mosquito." The name of Franklin is indissolubly connected with the great problem of modern geography—the connection of the Polar Seas with the North Pacific Ocean. In 1818 he was first employed in this service, but returned without success. In 1820 he conducted an overland expedition to the Coppermine River. This party suffered every kind of hardship, from the loss of boats and the mutiny of their attendants: several perished, having eaten their old shoes and scraps of leather: yet Franklin recorded in his journal the following grateful expressions:—"We looked to the great Author and Giver of all good for the continuance of the support hitherto supplied in our greatest need." They completed a journey of 5550 miles. The narrative of this expedition excited at the time much admiration, as a rare example of intrepidity, perseverance, and elevated piety. In 1824 Franklin was entrusted with the charge of another expedition. They were attacked by the Indians, and the party was saved from destruction by the coolness and judgment of the leaders: they encountered storms, fogs, and cold, which prevented their reaching their destination. The efforts considerably enlarged the scientific knowledge of the icy region. On his return to England in 1843, it was to confide to Franklin a new effort to discover the north-west passage. Accompanied by Captain Crozier, he sailed in May 1845. The vessels—the *Erebus* and *Terror*—were furnished with provisions and artificial fuel for four years. They were last seen by whalers in Lancaster's Sound. In 1847 the long absence of Franklin and the 136 persons under his command awakened considerable alarm. English expeditions, both by land and water, a reward of £20,000 offered by Parliament, and the earnest co-operation of foreign Powers, did all that money, or daring, or affection could accomplish to solve the mystery of their fate. Though these efforts were not relinquished for years, the issue ceased to be regarded with hope; except by Lady Franklin,

whose exertions to rouse and prolong the search excited the sympathy and admiration of nations.

XI. Governor Wilmot.—Sir John Eardley Eardley-Wilmot, Bart., succeeded Sir John Franklin on 21st August 1843. His short and troubled administration, although crowded with incident, presents few events of permanent interest. Charged with the development of a gigantic scheme of penal discipline, founded on erroneous data, and imperfectly sustained by material resources, he was involved in the discredit of its failure; whilst some persons whose vanity he had not cared to conciliate, and others whose hypocrisy his ready wit had unveiled, conspired for his undoing, and by covert innuendo and malicious fabrications which obtained credulous attention instead of indignant rebuke from Mr. Gladstone, then Secretary for the Colonies, the cruel scheme succeeded, and destroyed its victim ere the truth could be declared. Wilmot received his appointment from Lord Stanley, whose political leadership he followed in his secession from the whigs, occasioned by the reduction of the Irish church. During successive Parliaments he represented Warwickshire, and for twenty years was the Chairman of the Quarter Sessions of that county—in England a post of some consequence. He inclined rather to the Liberal than the Tory section of the House, and supported most measures favourable to civil and religious freedom. On the question of negro slavery he was a coadjutor of the decided abolitionists, and on his motion apprenticeship, a milder form of slavery, was finally terminated. He contributed papers on prison discipline, and initiated a bill for the summary trial of juvenile offenders. Thus he appeared not unqualified to preside in a colony where penal institutions constituted the main business of government, and where many religious opinions divide the population. Wilmot landed at a distance from Hobart Town, and delayed his entrance on office to afford time for removal of Franklin's household. When he was sworn in, the town illuminated, and the usual excitement of novelty, were the appearance of public welcome. The open and affable address of the Governor attracted the people. He rapidly traversed the island. The agricultural knowledge he possessed, his promptitude in forming and expressing opinions, contrasted with the habits and manners of his predecessor. Those who were experienced in official life foresaw the dangers of a temper so free and of movements so informal. The opponents of the late Governor recommended the neglect of all the distinctions which had limited intercourse, and some persons never before seen at Government House were admitted to the closet, and boasted of their intimacy and influence. Scarcely had Wilmot entered office when an exercise of mercy brought him into collision with one of the judges. Kavanagh, a notorious bushranger, was condemned to death; he had fired on a settler, whose house he attempted to pillage. In giving sentence the judge remarked that he had seldom

tried a culprit stained with so great an aggregate of crime. Ten minutes before the time appointed for his execution the Governor granted a reprieve. Judge Montagu was indignant, and those who had suffered by the depredations of the robber shared in his feeling. The press, in commenting on the commutation, predicted that the culprit would not long escape the scaffold. He was implicated in the murders of Norfolk Island, and suffered death in 1846. Judge Montagu shortly after the reprieve tried four men for a similar crime, and instead of pronouncing sentence directed death to be recorded. He stated that the sparing of Kavanagh could only be justified by the almost total abolition of capital punishment. At a meeting of the Midland Agricultural Association Wilmot noticed these reflections, and declared that he would never inflict death in consideration of offences not on the records of the court, and that in this case robbery only had been proved. He thus early complained of anonymous attacks, and admitted that in offering these explanations he was outstepping the line of his situation. Topics of a far more agreeable nature were suggested by the special business of the day. He dwelt with great fluency on the advantages of agriculture, and dilated on the importance of independent tenants and an industrious peasantry. "You," he observed, "are to consider yourselves as the column of a lofty pillar; but, depend upon it, a tenantry form the pedestal—a virtuous, moral, and industrious peasantry the foundation on which that pillar rests. I see around me some of your largest proprietors, who this day are lords of wastes and princes of deserts, but who, if the system of tenantry be carried out as fully as it deserves, will become patriarchs; and the future Russells, Cavendishes, and Percys of the colony may be proud to date their ancestry from any one of you." This strain of compliment was returned by Mr. Kemp, the oldest of the settlers—so many years before distinguished in the deposition of Governor Bligh. He congratulated the meeting on the appointment of His Excellency, whose presence he compared to "the vivifying rays of the sun after a long cheerless winter, encouraging the ploughman to resume his labours with fresh spirit." The prevalence of bushranging, though far less than at an earlier period, induced the midlanders to project a yeomanry corps. They were to provide weapons, meet for exercise, and always stand prepared to answer a summons. They proceeded to the choice of a treasurer and secretary—Messrs. Keach and Leake, junior. They were however informed that the levying of armed men is the prerogative of the Queen. On reference to the Governor he declined to sanction their incorporation, while he praised their martial spirit. Bushrangers rarely move in numbers, and a military is not the kind of power best adapted to suppress them. On meeting his council on 21st October 1843, Wilmot expressed his admiration of the colony, its soil, its climate, and immense resources. He promised to consider the pecuniary difficulties

of the settlers, with a view to their alleviation. Referring to the appointment of a Comptroller-General, the chief officer of the convict department, he declared his cordial concurrence with the new discipline as a reformatory system; and, noticing the recent arrival of a bishop, he avowed his preference for the Episcopal Church, and in still stronger terms his attachment to religious liberty and equality. The salary of the Governor was augmented to £4000 per annum; the former uncertain but expensive allowances were withdrawn. Franklin had enjoyed £2000 per annum as salary, and the Government houses of Hobart Town, New Norfolk, and Launceston, a farm at New Town, and a large garden in the domain. The salary of the new Governor was given in full discharge of all demands. The beautiful gardens he determined to throw open to the public. Having accepted the office of President, Wilmot convened the Tasmanian Society, formed by Franklin, and presented a series of alterations in its organisation. He proposed that it should consist of a president, four vice-presidents, and a council of twelve, to be nominated by the Governor; and that at first it should be limited to fifty fellows. The project was distasteful to the original members of the Tasmanian Society, who objected to the summary increase of their body. Wilmot proceeded to incorporate those who concurred with his views as "The Horticultural and Botanical Society of Van Diemen's Land." They were then entrusted with the Government garden, and the appropriation of a grant of £400 per annum required for its cultivation. Wilmot received the Government in a condition most unfavourable to his tranquillity. The arrival of many thousands of prisoners had for a time quickened trade, and some months elapsed before they became competitors for the bread of the free mechanics. The universally low price of labour, the demand for dwellings, and the closing of a local branch, which liberated small capitals, occasioned a competition for town allotments, and set all classes to building. But this stimulus was soon exhausted, and workmen of every grade began to suffer distress. They found hundreds of passholders working at a price to them indeed ample, but on which a family would starve. The regulations introduced by Lord John Russell discouraged employments of prisoners in the towns, where they could easily indulge every evil inclination, and where they abated the value and respectability of labour; but such was the pressure of numbers on the colonial Government that its officers were glad to abandon all reformatory theories to get rid of the crowds which idled their time and burdened the British treasury. The free operative class appealed to the Government for redress. Wilmot replied by appeals to their humanity; he said that many prisoners of the Crown, influenced by bad example, ignorance, and want, had lost their liberty; that it would be unkind and unjust to obstruct their progress to competence and reformation. These excuses for a

policy which tended to depress honest workmen only convinced them that it was time to retire from the country. A more powerful class might have shown that the proper office of mercy is to shorten the duration of a sentence, and not to inflict punishment on unoffending families of freemen. A party of colonists chose Gilbert Robertson as their secretary, and formed an association to promote the amelioration of financial embarrassment. They nominated a "central committee," to prepare information for the guidance of the Government, and to watch over legislation. The difficulties of the agriculturists from the low price of grain induced them to look for artificial relief. With too much facility Wilmot gave hopes which he could not realise. The imposition of a heavy duty on N.S.W. tobacco, amounting to prohibition, and that just as it was reaching considerable perfection, led to the imposition of a duty on grain. It was the wish of the Tasmanian settlers to restore free-trade between the colonies, and to impose discriminating duties on the produce of foreign countries; but the harsh and ridiculous system of colonial Government, which discriminated between Australian and Canadian grain, compelled one British colony to treat another, its next neighbour, as an alien, and that while England demanded free admittance for English manufactures. The peremptory instructions of Lord Stanley were conveyed to the local governors in terms of intimidation. They were forbidden to allow any kindred colony the least advantage over foreigners, or to pass any Bill for that purpose, and were told that any evasion of this restriction would occasion the high displeasure of the Crown. The reason alleged for this interference was that colonies could not be expected to understand the treaties and trading systems of the parent state; as if any treaty should have hindered a commerce actually not more distant than the trade between London and Liverpool. Wilmot warmly espoused the claim of the Australian Colonies to share in the privilege of Canada, in favour of which the duties had been relaxed on colonial grain. Mr. Hutt brought their petitions before the attention of the Imperial Parliament; but he could not plead a political necessity, and the ministers were able to resist without the risk of a rebellion. They asserted that the distance made the concession of no practical value, while it would tend to augment the alarm of the English farmers. Thus, while they humoured the empty fears of their own constituents, they afforded another example of the futility of colonial petitions which however just it is convenient to disregard. To benefit the rural interest the Governor proposed a grand scheme of irrigation. An eminent engineer, Major Cotton, was employed to report on the subject, and suggested the detention of the waters of the vast lakes which overflow from the heights of the western mountains. A rate to be imposed on the various estates was to discharge the cost. Thus in those seasons of drought which

sometimes occur the low lands would be most increasingly fertile. The immediate object—the employment of probation labour at the colonial cost—detracted something from the charms of the project. Nor did it seem just that the settlers should risk the ultimate cost of an undertaking they could not limit. Wilmot earnestly recommended the scheme to the Home Government, but Lord Stanley hesitated until the evils of the probation system enforced a change, and lessened the labour at the disposal of the Crown. Had the men been employed on a work so popular they would have been withdrawn from the colonial eye, and the interest of their new labours might have extinguished the prevailing discontent. But while the Governor waited for instructions the men were idle, or employed in useless attempts at cultivation on barren land, of which the produce rarely defrayed the cost of the implements destroyed. In 1836 Mr. Spring Rice (afterwards Lord Monteagle) took advantage of a considerable local land fund to throw on the Council the police establishment of the colony occasioned by transportation. The sum then required (£14,000) was comparatively unimportant, and it was urged that the labour of convicts employed on public works at the cost of Great Britain, except £4000 for superintendence, was a sufficient compensation. But the charge for constabulary and prisons gradually increased to £36,000. The land fund, after deducting £97,000 expended for emigration, for the support of the aborigines, and the working of the land office, yielded in ten years a surplus of £207,000 carried to the general revenue; but during this time the charge for police and gaols exceeded £311,000. The increase of judicial expenses, and especially of witnesses, was proportionately great; and this last item in one year (1846) although most lighter crimes were disposed of in a summary way, rose to £6000. The execution of public works by the Crown had been the sole vindication of these charges. From this arrangement Lord Stanley departed, and in peremptory terms prohibited a spade to be moved but on payment from the colonial treasury. Thus at a season of commercial stagnation the benefit of convict labour was withdrawn, while the charges for police and gaols rose to one-third of the entire revenue of the colony, and in two years and a-half a debt accumulated to £100,000. Notwithstanding the obvious injustice of this burden, the treatment of the N.S.W. legislature gave slight hope of redress. Lord Stanley directed Sir George Gipps to obviate the threatened resistance of that council by hastening pardons to the prisoners, by withdrawing them from the service of the settlers, and by sending those not otherwise disposable to V.D.L. He was forbidden to relieve extreme financial difficulties by drafts on England, or draw from the military chest, although at the period an immense body of convicts remained long after transportation had ceased. The disregard of a more powerful colony led the people

of V.D.L. to infer that from a minister so unscrupulous no justice could be expected while evasion was possible. Wilmot was deeply embarrassed, but he determined to adhere to the instructions of the Secretary for State, whose distance prevented his perceiving the hopelessness of his project until that discovery was unavailing. The positive nature of these injunctions left no room for discretion. The Governor was commanded not to adopt any detailed regulations at variance with the scheme prescribed by the Crown, or to depart from its provisions without express authority. Wilmot resolved that the utmost extent of taxation should be tried rather than infringe the orders of Lord Stanley. A bill to raise the duties on sugar, teas, and foreign goods from £5 to £15 per cent. encountered an earnest but unavailing opposition. The bill was still more obnoxious from a clause, afterwards abandoned to levy the duty on the current value of goods at the market of consumption, instead of export, a mode which taxed all the expenses of shipment. Mr. Gregson proposed the rejection of an impost required only by the extraordinary pressure of convictism. Several of the non-official members voted with the Governor for the last time. A committee of the Council had been appointed to ascertain how the expenditure could be reduced and the revenue augmented. They enumerated various forms in which further taxation might be practicable. These were proposed by the Governor. Auctioneers, pawnbrokers, publicans, butchers, eating-house keepers, stage-coach and steam-boat proprietors, cabmen, and watermen, were to be subject to new or increased license fees. This project aroused the people to an unusual degree. On the day of public meeting a procession of cabs and waggons, decorated with flags bearing the inscription, "No taxation without representation," presented a novelty in colonial agitation. Mr. Kemp the veteran politician presided. The opposition prevailed, and the Governor resolved to withdraw the obnoxious measure. It would be difficult to discern a line beyond which taxation might not pass, if every trade and profession can be subject to arbitrary imposts levied by a legislature at the mere dictation of the Crown. So late as August 1844 the Secretary for State refused to entertain the claim for relief. He stated that the colony would be obliged to expend a sum nearly equal although all the convicts were withdrawn; for their sakes, he said, the island was colonised; they constituted the working population; and, he added, that in the military and naval protection, the support of the unemployed convict, and the capital and cheap labour poured into the colony, a fair proportion of expenditure was borne by the Crown. Pressed by extraordinary difficulties Wilmot again urged the injustice of these conclusions. He complained that not only India, China, and the Cape of Good Hope, but N.S.W. were pouring in felons of the worst description, who as pass-holders occasioned a vast

outlay for the suppression of crime. He told his lordship that for several years the land fund had totally failed, while the expenses of police and gaols, of judges and witnesses, had risen to £50,000. At this time the number of arrivals was 5000 annually, sent from every colony and dependency of the empire, as well as from the United Kingdom. There were between 3000 and 4000 pass-holders unemployed, 7000 in private service, 6000 about to emerge from the gangs, 8000 with tickets-of-leave or conditional pardons, and in all more than 30,000 unqualified to quit the island without the consent of the Crown. It had been publicly rumoured that rather than allow the Appropriation Act to pass, several members had resolved to resign. Captain Swanston, less prominent in opposition, waited on the Governor and earnestly advised him to forward another set of estimates prepared by Captain Swanston for the approval of the Secretary of State. He warned him that should he persevere a rupture would inevitably follow. In this interview the Governor expressed his determination to proceed. He forgot, it would seem, some of those forms of civility which no man can safely neglect, and Captain Swanston left him with a sense of personal affront—an immedicable wound. In this temper the Council met on 3rd October. Gregson called the attention of the members to a question submitted to Mr. Francis Smith, a barrister: Whether as chairman of a committee, the Governor had a deliberative and casting vote, and whether the quorum required by law at a meeting of the Council was requisite in committee; and thus whether the estimates were legally passed through the committee, the numbers present being less than one-third, and the Governor giving his double vote. Smith gave his opinion that the estimates were in law rejected instead of carried; but the Chief Justice considered the sitting of committee merely a convenient method to sift beforehand items afterwards to receive a legal sanction in the Council. The Attorney-General without notice was unprepared to give an opinion, and a motion of Gregson for delay was lost. The Colonial Secretary then moved the third reading of the obnoxious bill, when Dry rose to read a minute, signed by the members in opposition, objecting to the proceedings. This being rejected as irregular, Gregson proposed that the third reading should be delayed, that the members dissenting might bring forward other estimates. In urging this motion he rebutted the "disloyal" imputation, and referred the Governor to the unity existing in the country party in proof that inevitable necessity alone had prompted the co-operation of persons otherwise adverse. This motion being lost before the Appropriation Act could be carried, the Opposition quitted the Council. Those remaining did not constitute a quorum, and the legislative session was abruptly terminated. The *Gazette* of the 4th November announced that Charles Swanston, Michael Fenton, John Kerr, William Kermode, Thomas G. Gregson, and Richard Dry had resigned

their seats. The cause of the "patriotic six," as they were called, was eagerly espoused by the colony. To supply the vacancies which were occasioned by their retirement was the labour of weeks. The Governor defended himself from the charge of despotism, and declared that he would never interrupt the freedom of debate or attempt to force the compliance of the Council. The opposition press held up to scorn those disposed to accept a nomination, and gentlemen who did so were assailed with scandalous abuse—so easily is the noblest cause degraded by its friends. A more suitable expression of popular feeling was given on the return of Dry to his native town. He was escorted by a large concourse of people, and with all the usual tokens of public esteem. The father of Dry was exiled during the political troubles of Ireland in the last century, and after a respectable career attained considerable wealth. The son, the first legislator chosen from the country born, the colonists saw with pleasure consecrate himself to the cause of his native land. Gregson, the leader of the Opposition, was honoured in a more substantial form. A body of his admirers by contributions of large amounts raised a testimonial in the shape of 2000 guineas and plate with a suitable inscription. On no previous occasion had public sympathy so attended political controversy; and never was the legislative freedom of the country more earnestly desired. A bill for electing commissioners of paving and lighting for the city of Hobart passed the Council in August 1846, and although disliked as an indirect scheme of taxation, was not unpopular. The first election under it occasioned a keen competition and considerable excitement. It was the first instance of representation, but the bill made no provision for a scrutiny, and a returning officer declared the poll against the protests of the defeated candidates. In closing the session (September 1845) Wilmot announced his recall. Although not usual then to address the Council, he stated that he could not permit the members to disperse without acknowledging their assistance. A delusion for a time might expose a public man to popular injustice; but however misjudged, either during his lifetime, or after death, his character would require no other vindication than the truth would afford. He informed them that his recall was not occasioned by his differences with the late members, but was ascribed to an imputed neglect of the moral and religious welfare of the prisoners; and he added that the memory of their kindness would remain with him during the short remainder of his life. In his last address to the Council Wilmot alluded to the benign influence of time on a slandered reputation. This was soon after explained. Secretary Gladstone had accompanied the recall with a private letter which stated that rumours reflecting on the Governor's moral character had reached the Colonial Office of a nature to hinder his future employment. Nothing specific was stated, and no clue to enquiry given. Rumours

had long been current, and they were spread with activity. The *Atlas*, a Sydney journal, compared the Governor to the Tyrant of Capreae, and referred to his private habits with expressions of disgust. Remarks of a similar tendency appeared in a London periodical. It stated that the conduct of Wilmot excluded the respectable inhabitants of Hobart from his society, and made it impossible for ladies to enter his house. This was instantly rebutted by Sir John Pedder and other official persons, who declared their entire disbelief in these charges. Wilmot conjured Gladstone to state the time, place, and circumstances, and the names of his accusers, and the exact nature of their imputations. In reply, he observed that the persons who mentioned these rumours did not profess to support their credit by any statement of particulars, but to found them on general notoriety. He added, that it "was not in his power to convey what he had not received." No Governor was more unfortunate in his political position. He could only tax and restrain. There was nothing in his gift. To the substantial difficulties of the people around him he was unable to offer more than those general assurances which often exasperate rather than console. The state of religious parties increased his disquiet. He had to adjust the claims of churches to spiritual authority. In declining to erect ecclesiastical courts, Wilmot not only gratified many, but he followed the direction of his legal advisers. Wilmot, like most governors, considered himself the servant of the Crown, restrained in his discretion by absolute and specific instructions. Had Lord Stanley acted with prudence he would have left much to Wilmot's judgment; but just before he had dilated with vast perspicacity on the tendency of governors to act in behalf of the colonists, to forget Imperial interests, to misapply the funds and pervert the labour belonging to the Crown. The precision of his injunctions left no alternative but to obey. Had Wilmot at once declared the impracticability of Lord Stanley's schemes he might have been re-called, but the responsibility of an utter failure would have rested with his chief. The interested reports of his subordinate officers unfortunately enabled him to hold out hopes of success, which were never realised, and to furnish an excuse for his condemnation. The Governor was impatient of contradiction. He had been accustomed to debate; but the sarcasm which falls harmless on the floor of St. Stephen's Chapel in a colony cut to the bone. He forgot that the head of a government can hardly say too little of men or measures. In a conflict of words, to an executive chief victory and defeat are alike pernicious. The usual order had been given that the Governor, during his residence in the colony, should enjoy the complimentary distinctions of office. It was commonly understood that his stay would be prolonged; but he died soon after his retirement, on 3rd February 1847, in the sixty-fourth year of his age. The treatment

he had received from the Colonial Office, and his death far from the honoured sepulchre of his fathers and the scenes of his early political fame produced a general sentiment of regret. All the houses of business showed marks of mourning. A public funeral attended by the administrator and the newly-arrived Governor was thronged by the citizens. An ornamented Gothic tomb was erected in St. David's Burial Ground to the memory of Wilmot by subscription. It stands near the highway. His remains were interred close to the tomb of Collins. Charles Joseph La Trobe, Esq., Superintendent of the Port Phillip district, and subsequently first Governor of Victoria, superseded Wilmot (13th October 1846.) During his short stay as "administrator" he was employed in a careful scrutiny of the probation department. In performing this difficult duty he displayed exemplary activity and decision. He resolved to remove every officer chargeable with incapacity or neglect, and thus many were dismissed. This promptitude exposed him to imputations of harshness; but although it is probable he did not wholly escape errors of judgment the chief acts of his administration were amply vindicated by the facts he saw. The opinions he expressed sustained the colonial impressions respecting the convict system. While he suggested many improvements in its details he concurred with the general wish for its extinction. Latrobe never met the Legislative Council; and his Government being limited to the established routine left nothing to record.

XI. *Governor Denison*.—Sir William Denison, captain in the corps of Royal Engineers, succeeded Wilmot on 26th January 1847. He brought with him a high reputation for professional ability and administrative capacity. His arrival was welcomed by the better class of colonists as the inauguration of a new state of society. From his profession as an engineer acquainted with the construction of public works, he directed his attention chiefly to the improvement of Hobart Town and of the penal establishments throughout the island so as to employ the prisoner's labour, which was being rejected by the free colonists for that of the immigrants who were arriving in great numbers. In his effort he was most successful in utilising that labour for the benefit of the colony and for the convicts themselves. For example:—In Hobart Town he planned some docks, to be cut out of the government reserved lands and regulated the labour of the prisoners so that the active and well disposed men could lessen their term of punishment by industry. For this purpose he estimated what was a fair amount of work to be done in a day under the old system and all above that went to the credit of the labourer in reducing his time of imprisonment or labour on government works. Moreover he gave those men a certificate of good character, if they were entitled to a ticket of leave, so that they might the sooner obtain remunerative employment. The effect of this system was to get

on with such works as the docks quicker than it could have been executed by free paid labour. The material result was beneficial to the colony at large and the government in particular, who thereby sooner got rid of the men who were consuming the public stores. Soon after Denison's arrival an order came out from the Home Government for the re-instatement of the "Patriotic Six." The colonists encouraged by this concession vigorously set to work to obtain their two great desires—namely, government by elective parliaments and the abolition of transportation. It was found that between the years 1846 and 1850 more than 25,000 convicts had been brought into the colony; free immigration had ceased and the number of convicts in the colony was nearly double the number of free men. In all parts of the world, if it became known that a man had come from V.D.L., he was looked on with the utmost distrust and suspicion, and he was shunned as contaminated. On behalf of the colonists, a gentleman named McLachlan went to London for the purpose of laying before Gladstone the grievances under which they suffered; at the same time, within the colony, Pitcairn strenuously exerted himself to prepare petitions against transportation, and to forward them to the Imperial authorities. These representations were favourably received, and in a short time Denison received orders to inquire whether it was the unanimous desire of the people of T. that transportation should cease entirely. The question was put to all the magistrates of the colony, who submitted it to the people in public meetings. The discussion was warm, and party feeling ran high. There were some who had been benefited by the trade and the English subsidies which convicts brought to the colony, and there were others who desired, at all hazards, to retain the cheap labour of the liberated convicts. These exerted themselves to maintain the system of transportation; but the great body of the people were determined on its abolition, and the answer returned by every meeting expressed the same unhesitating sentiment—transportation ought to be abolished entirely. Accordingly, it was not long before the colonists were informed by the Governor that transportation should in a short time be discontinued. But Earl Grey was now preparing another scheme for the treatment of convicts; he wished to scatter them in small bands over all the British colonies, instead of concentrating them into one small island. In this way T. would receive a much smaller number; whilst he expected that the colonies would gladly avail themselves of the proffered convict labour. But the promise which he had now given to the Tasmanians was made before he had considered whether it was possible to keep it. Ships filled with convicts were sent out to the various colonies, but the prisoners were not allowed to land. In 1849 the *Randolph* appeared at Port Phillip Heads; but the people of Melbourne forbade the captain to enter. He paid no attention to the order, and

sailed up the Bay to Williamstown. But when he was preparing to land the convicts he perceived among the colonists signs of resistance so stern and resolute that he was glad to take the advice of Governor Latrobe and sail for Sydney. But in Sydney also the arrival of the convicts was viewed with the most intense disgust. The inhabitants held a meeting on the Circular Quay, in which they protested very vigorously against the renewal of transportation to N.S.W. W.A. alone accepted its share of the convicts; and we have seen how the reputation of that colony suffered in consequence. The vigorous protest of the other colonies had procured their immunity from this evil in its direct form; but many of the "ticket-of-leave men" found their way to V. and N.S.W., which were therefore all the more inclined to assist the Tasmanians in likewise throwing off the burden. A grand Anti-Transportation League was formed in 1851; and the inhabitants of all the colonies banded themselves together to force the Home Government to emancipate V.D.L. Immediately after this, the discovery of gold greatly assisted the efforts of the League, because the British Government perceived that prisoners could never be confined in the colony, when by escaping from it and mixing with the crowds on the gold-fields they might in a few days make their fortunes; and there was now reason to suppose that banishment to Australia would be rather sought than shunned. The gold discoveries in N.S.W. and V. attracted both free and bond from the colony, which subtracted further elements of capital and labour from its resources. Many of the most wealthy and enterprising merchants left Hobart Town and Launceston for Melbourne, where they ultimately became leading men in commercial circles. The proximity of Launceston to Port Phillip rendered the communication quicker and easier than with the neighbouring chief ports on the mainland. Moreover as it was the port of the grain districts of T., and the demand increased in Melbourne beyond all local supplies, the farmers in the surrounding country obtained high prices for their produce, and the traffic across Bass Straits was daily increased, both by sailing vessels and steamers. Besides agricultural produce, there was a large traffic in timber for building purposes and the construction of wharves, railways, and other works going on in V., so that an unusual amount of shipping was employed by the Tasmanian traders. In these vessels there was likewise a large passenger traffic, and that almost exclusively in one direction, towards the region of gold. From 1851 an exodus of the population took place which continues up to the present day. At first in the confusion produced by that event, there was not much discrimination in the class of people who migrated and many prisoners escaped in vessels from want of proper supervision. The respectable class who remained behind did not object to their departure or show any desire to direct the attention of the authorities to the fact. Indeed there is reason to

conclude that many ruffians were assisted in crossing the straits by a liberal allowance of cheap or free passages. Be that as it may, there are proofs that tickets-of-leave were seldom refused to any applicants who could show that they were eligible for its extension to Port Phillip, a privilege that was seldom granted in former times. Thus while T. was lessening her population and her resources, society was being purged of the convict leaven that previously had poisoned it. But the Victorians rebelled against the influx of these depraved people, who carried rapine and bloodshed through the province, and augmented the state of anarchy which the gold discoveries had produced on her quiet pastoral home. So frightful was the increase of crime from this cause that the Victorian colonists in defiance of the Imperial laws of the mother country, refused to allow these Tasmanian felons to land on their shores. Notwithstanding their efforts in that direction, an immense number of the most incorrigible prisoners left T. never to return. The effects of this voluntary deportation upon the social condition of that regenerated colony has been of the most beneficial description. A more peaceful and better behaved community does not exist in the Australian Colonies. The huge gaols and penitentiaries in Hobart and Launceston are either empty or turned into warehouses, while the interior of the country is entirely free from bushrangers. This continued withdrawal of capital and labour in a few years so impoverished the colony by reducing the value of landed property and raising the rate of wages that a revulsion ensued in the state of public feeling, and the loss of material prosperity counteracted the moral advantages obtained. Those who contended formerly for the continuance of transportation as the chief source of their wealth now pointed to the ruinous condition of their once flourishing towns. Hobart Town especially illustrated the altered state of affairs. Whole streets of houses became untenanted and deserted, and the splendid harbour with its docks and jetties no longer presented the bustle of commerce consequent on the arrival of transport ships and vessels with supplies for the government establishments. Launceston fared better as it shipped its produce to the gold colonies and kept up a profitable traffic with Melbourne. In the interior "the thirst of gold" withdrew many of the enterprising settlers from their farms to try their fortunes in the neighbouring colony. A stagnation prevailed in town and country which affected the pecuniary interests of every one who remained in the island; so that those who had rejoiced most at the circumstances which had combined to purge the community of its moral evils looked back with regret to the "old times" when the cause of these evils had enriched them, and as they had calculated, made them independent for life. Now however house property was a drug, and the small rents with difficulty obtained could no longer meet their

expenditure. Many landlords not only had to reduce their establishments but again to put their shoulders to the wheel and work for a living. In these days of humility many who had condemned Denison for fostering the convict system now withdrew their censures, and looked to him for government assistance to restore prosperity to the country. But his powers were no longer of that irresponsible and unlimited character they had been; the advent of the gold discovery and the cessation of transportation came at the time when a new constitution had been granted to the Australian Colonies conferring self-government upon them. Consequently the real power of the Governor was placed in the hands of his responsible advisers and the two houses of legislature elected by popular suffrage and vote by ballot, in whose power the control of the public purse and framing of local laws was centred. This local Parliament seeing the exodus of the colonists to the Australian goldfields endeavoured to arrest it by offering rewards for the discovery of the coveted metal in Tasmania. They argued generally that as the formation of the country approximated to that of V. it was logical to suppose that some portion of the island would prove to be auriferous. In order to ascertain the exact geological character of the districts which seemed to promise the existence of gold-bearing rocks, an invitation was sent to the Rev. Mr. Clarke of Sydney, a skilful geologist, who had written a pamphlet to prove that he was aware of the gold deposits in the Bathurst country long before Hargreaves' discovery, who evidently had profited by what Clarke had written about it in his printed statements. After diligent survey many places were pointed out as auriferous, and small specks of gold were washed out of auriferous soil, but no sufficient quantity was found to encourage people to venture working long at the diggings. For upwards of ten years "prospecting" was carried on by parties fitted out at the cost of the colony and their exertions met with variable success. The most promising district was found at Fingal, some distance from Launceston, where a good many ounces of gold have been washed out of the soil and gold-bearing quartz found to yield a fair percentage on being crushed. But even these indications failed to rouse the settlers from their apathy. At last Hargreaves was invited over from N.S.W. to explore these regions and he arrived in November 1864. On examining the districts already "prospected," he reported favourably concerning the quartz-mining resources and by experiment showed that with proper machinery it might yield a good profit. This buoyed up the hopes of the Tasmanians that their island had its payable gold mines and they looked forward to renewed prosperity from that source. It was in 1850 that T., like the other colonies, received its Legislative Council; and when the people proceeded to elect *their* share of the members, no candidate had the slightest hope of success who

was not an adherent of the Anti-Transportation League. After this new and unmistakable expression of opinion, the English authorities no longer hesitated and the new Secretary of State, the Duke of Newcastle, directed that from the year 1853 transportation should cease. Up to this time the island had been called Van Diemen's Land. But the name was now so intimately associated with ideas of crime, that it was gladly abandoned by the colonists, who adopted from the name of its discoverer, the present title of the colony, Tasmania. West sums up his estimate of Denison's Administration in the following terms:—"The opposition of Denison to the colonial will on transportation, his injustice to the Judges, and his sarcastic delineations of colonial character, narrowed the circle of his friends. In future times an opinion more favourable to his reputation may be expected to prevail. It will then be remembered that he promoted the advancement of science, fostered liberal education, increased the facilities of commerce, abated the practical evils of the convict department, advocated the principles of legislative freedom, and by a respectable private character sustained the moral dignity of Government. But even then it will not be forgotten that in perpetuating the convict curse he adopted any argument, however false, and tolerated any ally, however abject." In 1846-7 important additions were made to the educational means of the colony. An episcopal institution, called Christ's College, was formed at Bishopbourne. Scholarships were founded by the medical, military and clerical professions, and divinity scholarships endowed. Lord Stanley recommended the establishment of a proprietary high school, open on equal terms to all denominations, and promised the patronage of the Crown. The site reserved for this purpose at Hobart Town was granted by Denison to the Episcopalians for the Hutchin's School. This alienation was deemed unjust. Instead however of wasting time in unavailing complaints, the friends of education were convened by Henry Hopkins, an opulent merchant, when a prospectus was submitted by the Rev. Dr. Lillie and J. West. A thousand pounds were subscribed in the room, and in five weeks £5000. The first conspicuous object seen by the stranger on entering the river is the High School of Hobart Town, an edifice erected amidst enchanting scenery, on a site granted by the Crown, and possessing architectural attractions which have yet to be equalled in this hemisphere. The institution is managed by a council of nine, chosen by the shareholders. The rector, nominated by the London University, was the Rev. J. A. Froude, author of the *Nemesis of Faith*—a publication which led to his instant resignation. James Eccleston, appointed in his stead, survived the opening of the school one month. A thousand pounds were subscribed for his widow.

XIII. *Responsible Government*.—Governor Denison held office till January 1855, when his successor,

Sir Henry Young, arrived with the full powers of Governor-in-Chief, and the new Constitution in his possession. Denison was transferred to N.S.W. On taking his departure he was presented with an address by a section of the colonists, and a testimonial of the value of 2000 guineas. From this period to the present time the history of the colony is one of purely domestic politics. When the Legislative Council undertook the task of drawing up the new Constitution, it was arranged that the nominee element, which had now become extremely distasteful, should be entirely abolished, and that both of the legislative bodies should be elected by the people. Sir Henry Young filled the office from January 1855 to December 1861. During his time the electric telegraph was introduced, the division of the colony into municipalities took place, and the metropolis was lit with gas, and railway communication was initiated. Colonel Gore Browne was the next vice-regal representative, and remained in office till December 1868. In that month H.R.H. the Duke of Edinburgh visited the colony. In January 1869 Sir Charles Ducane, K.C.M.G., arrived in the colony. He mixed freely in the amusements and movements generally of the colonists, and his speeches on public occasions were always of the practical character that might be expected from his former position as a statesman and a country gentleman of England. During his governorship the opening of the Launceston and Western Railway took place. In July 1874 Mr. Weld, Governor of W.A., was gazetted to the Governorship of the colony, being sworn in on 13th January of the following year. He completed his term of office in the early part of 1880, and was succeeded by Major C. G. Strahan, C.M.G., late Governor of the Barbadoes and Windward Islands. Pending his arrival the government was administered by Sir Francis Smith, the Chief Justice, who was afterwards relieved by General Sir H. J. Lefroy. The later Governors were all men of ability, and very popular among the Tasmanians. After the initiation of responsible government in 1856 various reforms were introduced. By the very liberal Land Act of 1863 inducements were offered to those who wished to become farmers in the colony. For the purpose of opening up the country by means of railways, great facilities were given to companies who undertook to construct lines through the country districts; and active search was made for gold and other metals. But in spite of these reforms the population was steadily decreasing, owing to the attractions of the gold-producing colonies. No great amount of land was occupied for farming purposes, and even the squatters on the island were contented with smaller runs than those in the other colonies. They reared stock on the English system, and their domains were rather sheep farms than stations. Indeed the whole of T. wore rather the quiet aspect of rural England than the bustling appearance of an Australian

colony. But the efforts to throw off the taint of convictism were crowned with marked success; and from being a gaol for the worst of criminals, T. has become one of the most moral and respectable countries. In later years the population has begun to show a small increase, and now that the fortunes of all the colonies depend more on their general sources and less on the yield of gold, T. with its wonderfully varied facilities for production, has been able to lay the foundations of solid prosperity.

TASMAN'S HEAD is the southernmost point of Bruné Island in T.

TASMAN'S ISLAND, an island of T., situated off Cape Pillar in Tasman's Peninsula.

TASMAN'S PENINSULA, in T., is bounded on the N. by Norfolk Bay; on the W. by Storm Bay; and E. and S. by the ocean. Its principal capes are Cape Pillar and Cape Raoul. It has several fine bays. There is a smaller peninsula named Forrester's between it and the mainland. Deposits of coal have been found here.

TAYAN MOUNTAIN, a remarkable mountain of N.S.W., at the head of the Colo river; it is a well-known point in Mitchell's trigonometrical survey, being visible from the Wollombi hills and also from Honeysuckle hill on the Bathurst road.

TAYLOR'S ISLAND, in S.A., is the largest island in the N. part of Thorny Passage, and lies two and a-half miles N.W. half N. from Grindal Island. It is one and a-half miles long and has a small islet off its N. and another off its S. end. This island was so called after Taylor, a midshipman of Flinders ship, the *Investigator*, that gentleman having been one of the boat's crew who were lost near Thistle Island in February 1802.

TEBBUTT, JOHN (1834—) astronomer, is a native of N.S.W. An aptitude for mathematical studies turned his attention in early life to the study of astronomy, and he became a self-taught adept in that science. He constructed a small observatory, took observations, and contributed papers on astronomical subjects to the journals. In 1862 he was elected member of the Philosophical Society of N.S.W., and contributed to it several papers on astronomical and meteorological subjects. These are to be found in the published "Transactions" of the Society. The last of these papers contains a discussion of the longitude of the Sydney Observatory, based on lunar occultations observed at Windsor, and points to the conclusion that a considerable positive correction is required to the previous determination of longitude from moon culminations. On the resignation of the Rev. W. Scott in 1862, the appointment of Government Astronomer was offered to Tebbutt, but declined by him. In 1867 he received the Silver Medal of the Paris Exhibition Commissioners for his paper on the Progress and Present State of Astronomy in N.S.W. In 1869 the astronomical work at Windsor was deemed of sufficient importance to admit of Windsor being

adopted in the British Nautical Almanac as an astronomical station. It was also placed in the list of the "Astronomische Jahrbuch." Although not connected with the Royal Astronomical Society, that body continued to publish Tebbutt's contributions; and in 1873 conferred on him the fellowship of the Society. He contributed his share to the data furnished by the Australian Colonies in 1874, for the solution of the problem of the sun's mean distance from the earth. In addition to his numerous contributions on astronomical subjects, he is the author of *Sixteen Years Meteorological Observations*, the greater portion of which has been published and distributed by him.

TERMINATION ISLAND, an island lying to the S. of W.A., discovered and named by Vancouver in 1791.

THAKOMBAU (CAKOBABU,) the War King of Mban in Fiji, has during his eventful career shown himself a man of great resolution. In 1832 his father, Tanoa, was driven from his throne, and most of his family were murdered. He plotted in secret until his plans were ripe, when he defeated his enemies and revenged himself in the barbarous manner of his country. He was up to this time known as Thikinoru or the Centipede, but the title was then changed to Thakombau (Evil to Mban,) Tui Vita and Vanni Valu. He then took the management of affairs, but had many difficulties to contend with. At one time he was saved by the assistance of the King of the Friendly Islands; at another the American Government demanded a fine for losses incurred by Americans, and he only obtained the money from the Polynesian Company by selling 200,000 acres of land. After becoming a Christian he always protected the converts. He ceded the whole of the Fiji group to Great Britain for a pension in October 1874, when the Islands were formally taken possession of in the name of the Queen by Sir Hercules Robinson, who went over from Sydney for that purpose, in company with the Attorney-General Innes. In November 1874 he visited Sydney in company with his two sons, Timotee and Joseph Celnua, the latter of whom had been educated at Newington College, near Sydney. They were the guests of Sir Hercules Robinson, at Government House, and their presence in Sydney created considerable excitement.

THERRY, SIR ROGER (1800-1874) jurist, was a native of Ireland and was called to the Irish Bar in 1824. He was acquainted with George Canning, and edited the volumes of his parliamentary speeches published after that statesman's death. In 1832 he was appointed Commissioner of the Court of Bequests in N.S.W. He was a strong advocate of the claims of the Roman Catholics to equal privileges with the other denominations, being himself a member of that communion. In 1835 the office of Chairman of Quarter Sessions had become vacant by the

resignation of Foster, its former occupant, and the election of a new Chairman devolved on the magistrates of the colony. The only candidate was Therry. He was the favourite with the Governor's immediate supporters, but besides this circumstance, the Opposition party owed him a grudge on his own account. In 1833 an act of insubordination on the part of some assigned servants took place on the station of Major Mudie, at Hunter's River. A number of these men, deeming themselves grievously ill-used by the overseer and other persons in authority on the station, revolted during the sheep-washing season, went to the dwelling-place and seized the fire-arms there, rushed to the place where their companions were employed and discharged several shots towards the overseer, who saved himself only by rushing into the water and placing himself in the midst of the assigned servants, who were there at work. The refractory men made little effort to escape and were soon apprehended. They were tried at Sydney, and having been found guilty, and their crime being capital, six of them suffered death. The men did not attempt to deny their offence; but during their trial persisted in the statement that they had been goaded on to their crime by the tyranny and ill-treatment to which they had been subject at Castle Forbes, the name of the station. Therry defended the men on their trial, and exerted all his forensic ability in supporting the defence which the accused had unanimously put forward. The men were executed, but while the law exacted and received its due public sympathy was in favour of the victims, and a desire was generally manifested in the columns of the press and elsewhere, that if not in consideration of the memory of the six unhappy men who had yielded their lives, at least in mercy to the living and in justice to the character of the colony, an investigation should take place with the view to testing the truth of the allegations relative to the system of discipline which obtained at Mudie's establishment. The Governor yielded to this desire, and a commission of enquiry was appointed. The result of their investigation was a condemnation of the mode in which assigned servants were dealt with at Castle Forbes, and the Governor struck Mudie out of the commission of the peace. Then followed the usual amount of journalistic comment. The wordy warfare however was not confined to the newspapers. A pamphlet appeared bearing the signature of "Humanitas," which gave a detailed account of the inquiry, and commented in no mild terms on the owner of the Castle Forbes property and on the minions whom he employed in carrying out his system of discipline. This pamphlet was circulated in England as well as in the colony, and in both places excited considerable interest and discussion. In England the papers stated that if no other good resulted from the inquiry, and the subsequent publication of the pamphlet, they had the effect of disabusing the public mind of an idea generally entertained

at home that transportation to N.S.W. was no longer a punishment. Therry was looked on as being the author, or at least one of the concocters of this pamphlet, whether or not on sufficient grounds it is unnecessary to say. The Governor had instituted the inquiry and for his reason, besides this uniform protection of the poorer population, he had aroused the antagonism of the magisterial class. Therry was patronised by the Governor, and on this ground alone he was somewhat obnoxious to the magistrates; he was, moreover, generally supposed to be the author of a publication which had exposed, not merely an individual, but the large employers of convict labour generally, including the greater portion of the magistrates, to a certain degree of obloquy, both in the colony and in England. Hence on two grounds he had earned the enmity of the class whose principal members had now an opportunity of deciding for or against him. They set up in opposition to him C. D. Riddell, Colonial Treasurer, who was elected by a bare majority of votes. Riddell's election was duly gazetted, but the Governor resented the departure from official propriety which the treasurer had displayed, in allowing himself to be made the instrument of a hostile faction, by removing him from the seat in the Executive Council, which he held by virtue of his official position. In May 1842 Therry assumed, temporarily, the office of Attorney-general, on the occasion of Plunket paying a visit to the mother country. A service of plate, valued at £500, was presented to Therry by the public, in acknowledgment of the justice and efficiency with which he had administered the office of Commissioner of the Court of Requests. In 1845 he was appointed Resident Judge at Port Phillip, and held the office for some time. In 1846 he was appointed Judge of the Supreme Court, and Primary Judge in Equity in N.S.W. He retired from the bench in 1859, and returned to Europe. He published in England a book detailing his recollections of N.S.W., containing many anecdotes of families and private individuals. This work caused much excitement in some quarters, and the first edition of it was called in. A second edition with the objectionable portions omitted was then issued.

THIERRY, BARON DE. Early in November 1837 a strange character arrived in N.Z. in the *Nimrod*. This was the Baron de Thierry, an Englishman with a French title. He was by birth and education a gentleman, but a visionary. He proclaimed himself as the "sovereign chief of N.Z." He had met with Hongi at Cambridge in 1820, and Mr. Kendall received from him thirty-six axes wherewith to buy land for him, on his return to N.Z. In virtue of those axes, the Baron claimed an estate of forty thousand acres. He brought with him ninety-three persons, including his secretary, master of stores and other officers. The Rev. James Buller writes:—"I was present at a conference he had with the native chiefs at

Otararau. They smiled at his demands. It ended in the cession of about three hundred acres of good forest land to him, on the part of Tomati Waka and Taonui. They said they were sorry they had not a good house to offer for the accommodation of himself, the Baroness and their retinue. He built some fragile houses and began the making of a road, which was, he said, to be extended to the Bay of Islands. But ere long the poor Baron was deserted by all his followers. He afterwards took up his abode at Auckland, where he obtained a scanty living as a teacher of music, and died in great poverty in 1864, at the age of seventy-one. Airy as his scheme was, his claims were recognised by the French Government. Their ships of war that touched at Auckland had orders to pay him great respect."

THIRSTY SOUND lies on the N.E. coast of the Continent. In this inlet Cook lay and called it Thirsty Sound because it afforded him no fresh water. Here he landed for the third time on the coast of N.S.W.

THISTLE ISLAND, in S.A., is a large island lying from four to six miles E. of Cape Catastrophe, and forming the E. side of Thorny Passage. It is twelve miles in length, and from half-a-mile to two miles wide. Off this point lies a small islet surrounded by breakers. Near the middle of the island the land rises to such a height as to be visible at a distance of ten or twelve leagues from a ship's deck. At the N.W. extremity are some white cliffs, with a shoal bight between them and a sandy beach at the bottom of it. This island was discovered by Flinders on 17th February 1802, in his exploration voyage along the S. coast. He at first mistook it for the E. coast of the inlet (Spencer's Gulf) into which he was sailing, but on landing the following morning he discovered his error. Its name was given from a melancholy circumstance which occurred at the time. A number of small islands having been seen to the N., a boat's crew in charge of Thistle was sent to search for an anchorage, but were lost by the upsetting of the boat, caused by the strong ripple. Flinders therefore called the island after his unfortunate officer.

THOMAS, MESAC, D.D. (1816—) Bishop of Goulburn, is a native of England, and was educated at Trinity College, Cambridge, where he took the degree of B.A. in 1840, and M.A. in 1843. Some years afterwards he received the degree of D.D. He commenced his career as a clergyman at Birmingham, where he held a curacy; was shortly afterwards appointed Vicar of Tuddenham in Suffolk, where he remained from 1843 to 1845; became incumbent of Attleborough in Warwickshire, labouring there from 1845 to 1851. He displayed a combination of zeal, perseverance and ability which marked him out as fitted for more extensive undertakings. In 1851 he became secretary to the Colonial and Continental Church Society, and held this office until he was appointed first Bishop of the diocese of Goulburn in 1863.

During the years of his sojourn in London as secretary of this Society, Dr. Thomas organised missions for the spiritual benefit of cabmen and other classes. The diocese in N.S.W. committed to the episcopal charge of Dr. Thomas extends from the 34th parallel of S. longitude to the border of V., and comprehends a widely-scattered population, with some important centres of enterprise. By the exercise of sagacious and considerate activity and generous kindness which marked his previous career, he has won for himself great influence in the community. As a member of the House of Bishops, in the Provincial Synod in the General Conference, and in the General Synod, Dr. Thomas has taken a conservative stand. Anything that bears, to his mind, the semblance of a departure from the principles of the Church of England meets with his determined opposition. He paid two visits to England, and on each occasion obtained substantial assistance for the Australian Church. He spends the greater part of his time travelling from parish to parish through his extensive diocese.

THOMAS, WILLIAM KYFFIN (1821—1878.) journalist, was a native of London and was educated at the Grammar School in Rickmansworth. He came with his father to S.A. at an early age. Except for a short period in 1842 when he was engaged in agriculture, and in 1852 when he was for some months at the Victorian diggings, he was always identified with the *S.A. Gazette and Colonial Register*, established by his father, to the sole proprietorship of which journal he succeeded shortly before his death. He joined the volunteer force in 1860, and was a supporter of the Mission to the Aborigines, the Bushman's Club, and other similar societies.

THOMSON, SIR EDWARD DEAS (1800—) a native of England, was educated at Harrow, and completed his studies at Caen in Normandy. On his return to England he was for some time engaged in acquiring a knowledge of mercantile business, and assisted his father (who was Accountant-General of the Navy) in introducing the system of double entry into the accounts. In 1826 he went to the United States of America for the settlement of some business connected with the property of his deceased mother, and returned to England in 1827. His observations coming before Mr. Huskisson attracted so much attention that he was appointed Registrar of the Orphan Chambers at Demarara; but the situation of Clerk of the Council in N.S.W. having become vacant he applied for and obtained an exchange, and arrived in Sydney in December 1828. In 1833 he married a daughter of General Sir Richard Bourke, Governor of the colony. In 1837 he was appointed Colonial Secretary and Registrar of Records and a Member of the Executive and Legislative Councils. From 1843 he represented the Government in the Legislative Council until 1854, when he was compelled to obtain leave of absence for two years on account of ill health. In May 1853 a select

Committee of the Legislative Council was appointed to prepare a Constitution Bill; and this having been passed shortly before his departure for England, he was appointed conjointly with Wentworth to watch its progress through the British Parliament. He was also appointed one of the Commissioners for the colony at the Paris Exhibition of 1855. Thomson, on the occasion of his departure, was presented with a testimonial by his personal friends, and the admirers of his political conduct as Colonial Secretary during a period of seventeen years. For this purpose a sum of £2250 had been collected. Of this sum £1000 was appropriated to the purchase of a service of plate, the remainder was devoted to founding the "Thomson Scholarship" in the Sydney University, and to procuring a portrait of the recipient. The testimonial was presented in the theatre in the presence of a large concourse of the citizens. In 1856 he retired from the public service on the full pension acquired by twenty-eight years service. At the election of 1856 he was asked to allow himself to be nominated for Sydney, but the state of his health compelled him to decline. He represented the Government in the Upper House as President of the Council. In 1851 he was appointed a Fellow of the Senate; in 1862 he was Vice-Chancellor of the University, and in 1865 Chancellor, which position his increasing age induced him to resign in 1878. He was made a K.C.M.G. in the same year.

THOMPSON, JAMES MALBON (1830—) is a native of N.S.W., and was educated at Cape's Grammar School. He was admitted an attorney and solicitor of the Supreme Court at Sydney in 1855; commenced practice in Ipswich in 1857; entered Parliament as member for Ipswich in 1868; and has ever since sat for the same constituency almost without interruption. He has filled various offices in Parliament; was Chairman of Committees for two years; accepted a portfolio as Minister for Lands in the Palmer Ministry of 1870, and in July 1873 was transferred to the political control of the Public Works Department till the resignation of the Ministry in 1874. In January 1879 he again accepted office in the McIlwraith Palmer Ministry as Minister of Justice, which position he still holds.

THOMSON RIVER, in Gippsland, V., is a fine stream rising in the N. of the Albert range, in the Australian Alps, near the Jordan gold-fields, and flowing S.E., about eighty miles into the Latrobe river, which it joins two miles below the township of Sale. The Thomson has its source by several heads from springs, and is liable to floods from the melting of snow at intervals the whole year round, particularly in the spring of the year. Its upper portion is through a rugged and precipitous country, and its lower part through grassy forest and fine rich open park-like plains, this portion of the country being essentially the garden of A. The town of Sale is situated on the river, which is navigable for a few miles above the latter place,

having an average depth of about eighteen feet and a width of about fifty yards. The Thomson is fed by the Jordan, Aberfeldy, and Macalister rivers, and a number of small creeks. Many of these creeks, particularly those near its source, are auriferous, and in the lower part of the river fish is plentiful; the water is sweet and good. At a distance of about fifty miles from Sale, and S.E. of Mount Baw-Baw, near the bank of the river, has been discovered a vein of copper ore, twelve feet in thickness. A lode of copper has also been found near the same place, in a dyke of decomposed greenstone, which has intruded into the schistose rocks, about 100 feet wide. Grey copper ore, blue and red carbonates, and ore thickly studded with copper pyrites and red ore, are reported to have been found in different places in the neighbourhood.

THORN, GEORGE (1838—) is the son of George Thorn, the oldest inhabitant and founder of the town of Ipswich in Q., and was educated at King's School, Parramatta, N.S.W., and Sydney University, where in 1858 he obtained his degree of B.A. Thorn followed pastoral pursuits for the following nine years. His first appearance in public life was at the general election in Q. in 1867, when he was returned one of the Members for West Moreton. He continued to represent that constituency in the next two Parliaments. At the general election of 1873 when the whole colony was split into single Electorates he stood for Fassifern, which included part of the old Electorate of West Moreton, and was returned by a majority of nearly five to one over his opponent. A new Ministry having been formed by Macalister shortly after the meeting of Parliament, Thorn accepted the portfolio of Postmaster-General and a seat in the Legislative Council as Representative of the Government in that Chamber. He entered on his duties in January 1874. From his first accession to office Thorn did good service in the work of postal and telegraphic communication, pushing on and establishing lines and stations in Q. Thorn has shown great zeal on all occasions to further the progress of that colony; and has not failed to give publicity to its greatness in every mode that lay in his power. In October 1874 he visited Sydney and attended a conference for the laying of cables to connect N.Z. with N.S.W., and extending the communication to Singapore and Europe *via* Normanton. In 1876 he became Premier and Minister for Works, but resigned in 1877 and visited Europe in 1878. The following year he returned, and was elected Member of the Legislative Assembly for Dalby in April.

THORNTON, SAMUEL (1835—) Bishop of Ballarat, is son of the late Thomas Thornton, F.R.A.S., who was for many years connected with the London *Times*. Educated at Merchant Tailors School, Thornton obtained at sixteen an open exhibition at Queen's College, Oxford, and graduated there at twenty, having gained a first class in

moderations and a double second in classics and natural science. Proceeding to a fellowship, he was ordained by Bishop Wilberforce in 1858, and commenced duty in East London, where he was appointed Diocesan Clerical Missionary by Bishop Tait. In this office he preached in the open air and amongst the masses of the people, and was twice arrested by the police on the unfounded charge of obstructing thoroughfares. In 1859 he was appointed incumbent of St. Jude's, White-chapel, in succession to the well-known Hugh Allen. His evangelistic labours amongst the criminal and poverty-stricken classes recommended Thornton to the notice of the trustees of St. George's, Birmingham, a leading parish, with a population of 16,000 souls. He accepted the rectory in 1864 and laboured in this sphere until 1875, when he was selected for the new bishopric of Ballarat by the Bishop of Melbourne and the Chief Justice of V., then in England, in consultation with the two archbishops. He was consecrated by royal mandate at Westminster Abbey on 1st May 1875; the new diocese of Ballarat thereby coming into existence. It includes the western half of V. and contains some 150,000 souls and forty-five parishes, with three archdeacons and forty-two other clergy, besides eleven probationary clergy at work. The bishop belongs to no religious party, possessing broad sympathies. He has from time to time been a contributor to periodical literature, and is an eloquent preacher, a man of great energy of character, and exceedingly zealous in his vocation.

THURSDAY ISLAND, in Q., is an island in Torres Strait, off the extreme northern coast of the colony, centrally situated between Prince of Wales, Horn, Hamond, Friday, Wednesday, and Goode islands, between one and two miles from each. It is the new Government settlement, superseding Somerset, and has been selected on account of its advantageous position, being in the track of all vessels sailing through the Inner Channel, a harbour of refuge, and much used for the pearl-fishing fleet. It is also within easy distance of New Guinea. The Government buildings comprise a court-house and offices, a coxswain's cottage, a lock-up, two houses, and barracks for water police, and the magistrate's house, built on an eminence, all these buildings being at the eastern end of the island. There are numerous pearl-fishing stations within from three to fifty miles of Thursday Island. The climate is said to be salubrious, a cool S.E. wind blowing the greater part of the year; the temperature rarely exceeds 90°.

TODD, CHARLES (1826—) electrician, is a native of London, where he was educated. On leaving school he was engaged as assistant and calculator at Greenwich Observatory, at the same time continuing his studies under some of the Professors of Cambridge University. In 1848 he was appointed Assistant Astronomer at Cambridge Observatory, which position he held until 1854,

when he took charge of the Galvanic department of the Royal Observatory, Greenwich, and was also appointed by the Lords of the Admiralty one of the Astronomers. In 1855 Lord John Russell, Secretary of State for the Colonies, appointed Todd to the position he now holds of Astronomer and Superintendent of Telegraphs for S.A. In 1870 the Governor of the colony amalgamated the Telegraph and Postal departments, and Todd was appointed Postmaster-General. As far back as 1859 Todd pointed out the importance to England of having an independent telegraph system, and when the proposal was made to construct a line of telegraph wire from Adelaide to Port Darwin, to be there connected with a submarine cable between Java and Singapore, he entered heartily into the work, a large portion of which was done under his personal superintendence. The line which connected the Australian Colonies with the rest of the world was completed on 22nd August 1872, amidst great rejoicings. Todd connected the wires in the centre of the continent, at Mount Stuart, and received a great number of congratulatory messages. For this important national work he received from Her Majesty the honour of the Companionship of the Order of Saint Michael and Saint George. Henry Ayers, who was at the head of the South Australian Government at the time the line was completed, also received the honour of Knighthood, as well as that of C.M.G. Todd has since planned the overland line to Eucla, 1000 miles in length, connecting S. and W.A., which was carried out under circumstances of peculiar difficulty, owing to the desert nature of a large portion of the country. The Port Darwin line is nearly 1900 miles in length, and the benefits which have resulted from it to all the Australian Colonies are immense. It has led to the pastoral settlement of hundreds of thousands of square miles of country which will eventually be of very great value, and will probably be ultimately occupied by a large population. The constant communication with Europe has greatly benefited the colonies in a commercial point of view, and the heavy cost of the line has in this way indirectly been more than repaid. Todd has contributed to the scientific world the results of some valuable astronomical observations, amongst which may be mentioned those on the Transit of Venus in 1874, the cloudy haze over Jupiter first noticed in 1876, and others during the two following years, and the Parallax of Mars in 1878. He is a member of several learned and scientific societies, including the Royal Astronomical Society and the British Meteorological Society. His services to the S.A. Government in connection with the settlement of the Northern Territory are above all commendation. A statement of them will be found under that heading.

TOOWOOMBA, is the principal town of the rich pastoral district called the Darling Downs, in Q. It is situated on the summit of the main

range, about 1950 feet above the sea level. It lies 102 miles W. of Brisbane, and about seventy-eight miles (by rail) from Ipswich. It was erected into a municipality on 24th November 1860. The surrounding district is agricultural and pastoral.

TORRENS, SIR ROBT. RICHARD (1814—) son of Colonel R. Torrens whose services in the Walcheren Expedition are matter of history, was educated at Trinity College, where he took the degree of M.A. In 1841 he was made Collector of Customs in S.A., with a seat in the Legislative Council, and some time afterwards Treasurer and Registrar-General. At the first election under Responsible Government he became member for Adelaide, and devoted himself to instituting a new system for the transfer of lands, thenceforth popularly known as "The Torrens Act." In 1863 he returned to England, and was a few years afterward elected a member of Parliament for the Borough of Cambridge.

TORRENS REAL PROPERTY ACT, the great measure of legal reform devised by Sir R. R. Torrens. He felt, as many more have done, the scandalous delay and expense of transferring real property under the old law of England. This system of transferring real estate by deed was brought from England to Australia, where it was soon found to be productive of the evils which attended it in the old country. In every fresh transaction in real property a new deed was necessary, which recapitulated all the deeds that had gone before; this was both cumbrous and costly. It was thought that it might be possible to invent a simpler, cheaper, and safer system; and the method of thinking out and formulating this system belongs to Torrens. He had been Collector of Customs at Port Adelaide, and his official employment made him familiar with the laws relating to shipping, having "just such an acquaintance with the English Constitution and laws as ordinarily entered into the education of an English gentleman." His starting point was to apply to the transfer of land the principles which regulate the transfer of shipping property by means of registration. The idea was a correct one, but between its conception and its formulation into a code of law there was a long and painful interval. He consulted the then Chief Justice, Sir Charles Cooper, and other legal gentlemen, and they gave him but little encouragement. He was not a lawyer. Many technical difficulties would arise which would need a lawyer's trained skill to surmount, and they warned him that he might expect no help or support from the profession. Torrens however was one of the few men who are not to be discouraged by want of sympathy, or beaten by opposition. The subject was near his heart, and he pondered over it night and day, until it assumed shape and form in his mind. He drafted a Bill, submitted it to some of his friends, listened to their suggestions, adopting them where he thought it wise to do so, and then brought it before Parliament. The Bill was laughed to scorn by the profession, but it was

eagerly and enthusiastically welcomed by the public. Most of the lawyers stood aloof. For a layman to attempt to alter the whole system of transferring real estate by deed which had the prestige of immemorial usage in its favour, and to deal with real estate as if it were a mere chattel, was as absurd as if a tailor were to invent a new method of cutting for fistula, or an illiterate ploughman a new method of calculating an eclipse. Torrens however made light of both opposition and ridicule. There was a crying evil to be remedied; he had undertaken to remedy the evil and in spite of all opposition he would do it. Torrens was returned to Parliament as one of the members for the city of Adelaide for the express purpose of carrying the Bill through the Assembly. The legal members opposed him "tooth and nail," but he had a large majority of willing supporters at his back, and the Bill was literally forced through the House by "the brute force of a tyrannical majority." There was greater opposition in the Legislative Council, which has always been found more conservative of old institutions. But public opinion and the sense of the community were too strong to be resisted, and the Bill passed the Council, was assented to by the Governor on 27th January 1858, and became law. At the request of his friends Torrens resigned his seat in Parliament and became the official head of the department. He suggested or superintended all the machinery required for practically working the new system. He laboured at it unceasingly, and when the Act came into operation, on 2nd July 1858, all the office machinery was ready to work it. The first great principle of this Act is the transferring of real property by registration of title instead of by deeds; the second is absolute indefeasibility of title. The system is very simple and very inexpensive. The certificate of title is registered in the official registry at the Lands Titles Office, the owner obtaining a duplicate certificate. All transactions under the land appear on the face of the certificate so that at a glance it may be seen whether the property is encumbered or any charges are made upon it. If an owner wishes to mortgage his land he takes his certificate to the office and has the transaction marked upon it. If he wants to sell he passes over the certificate to the purchaser and the transaction is registered. Any man of ordinary intelligence can do all that is necessary for himself when once his property is brought under the Act. The only difficulty is in getting the title registered at first. After that it is all plain sailing. When a man holding property under deed wishes to have it placed under the Act he takes his deeds, which are his title to the property, to the office. The deeds are carefully examined by the solicitors to the Lands Titles Commissioners; and if there is no difficulty, and after all due publicity is given and precautions taken to prevent fraud or mistake a certificate is issued and the old deeds are cancelled. From the moment the land is brought under

the Act and a certificate is granted, the title of the person holding the certificate becomes indefeasible, unless it has been fraudulently obtained; and he can hold the property against the world. Provision is made for errors that may possibly occur, by which persons may be damaged or deprived of their property. Even though a wrong may have been done, yet an innocent holder of a certificate cannot be dispossessed of his property. But to compensate persons who may through error or fraud have been deprived of their property, an assurance fund has been created by a percentage of one half-penny in the pound being levied on all property brought under the Act. This fund now amounts to between £30,000 and £40,000, and all the claims that have been made upon it during the twenty-two years the Act has been in operation amount to only a few hundred pounds; a sufficient proof of the carefulness exercised in the examination of old titles before the certificate is issued in the first instance. Since this Act came into operation all land grants issued from the Crown have been registered under it, and a large amount of property formerly held under deed is now registered. Confidence in the Act has gradually grown up. The lawyers very soon withdrew active opposition, and the simplicity of the scheme commended it even to the legal mind. Up to the close of 1874 the value of the property brought under the operation of the Act, including land grants, was £9,260,186. The benefit to the community of having a cheap, simple, and expeditious method of dealing with land is incalculable. Dudley Field, the well-known American jurist, recently on a visit to S.A., expressed his great admiration at the simplicity of the Real Property Act, which was much in advance of any system of dealing with real estate with which he was acquainted. The Act has been amended more than once, to render it more workable, but its essential principles have been jealously guarded. Soon after it was set in operation, Torrens obtained leave from the Government to visit the neighbouring colonies at their request, to explain and help to initiate this Act, and now all the colonies have adopted the Torrens Act of registration of title. The principle of the Act has also been accepted by the first jurists at home, where several attempts have been made to get it into operation. Lord Westbury's Act was a step towards it, but it had some serious defects which have prevented it being a success. There is no doubt that it is much easier to introduce the system into new colonies where titles are easily traced, than into old countries where, during the lapse of generations, they have become complicated.

TORRENS LAKE is a vast inland salt lake in S.A. discovered by Eyre, and is about ninety miles N. of Spencer's Gulf. It was at first supposed that this lake extended in a horseshoe form all round the N. side of the E. part of the colony, but more recent discoveries have dispelled this

illusion, and it is now found that good pastoral country lies to the N. of the lake, and between it and another similar sheet of water, known as Lake Eyre.

TORRENS RIVER, in S.A., is the river on which Adelaide is situated. It was named after one of the first founders of the colony.

TORRES, LUIS VAEZ DE, a Spanish navigator, was second in command in the expedition of De Quiros in 1606. When Quiros was leaving the Bay of Saints Phillip and James in his Australian land, the ship commanded by Torres by some unexplained mischance parted company with its consort. Torres remained at anchor in the bay for a fortnight afterwards. He then set sail and steered along the west side of the territory, which he found to be well watered and possessed of many ports. He found it to be an island, not a continent. It is now generally believed to have been one of the islands belonging to the archipelago of the New Hebrides, and geographers give the name Espiritu Santo to the largest island in that group. For two months Torres threaded his course through the intricate navigation of the region lying to the N.E. of the true Australian continent. While sailing westwards, and in $11\frac{1}{2}^{\circ}$ S. latitude, he descried land which he rightly believed to be the eastern extremity of New Guinea. Still continuing his course, he at length sighted land to the S. The daring navigator, without knowing it, had in reality sailed through the famous strait which now bears his name. He had therefore perceived the north-eastern corner of the continent now called Cape York. Pursuing his devious course, Torres arrived at Manilla in the Philippines, in May 1607. The record of Torres' voyages was drawn up by his own hand, under the title of "Relation of Luis Vaez de Torres concerning the discoveries of Quiros as his admiral. Dated Manilla, 12th of July 1607." This precious document was allowed to lie unnoted amongst the archives at Manilla until the capture of that city by the English in 1762. The papers then fell into the hands of a Scotchman named Dalrymple, who kept possession of them, translated them, and gave them to the world in an historical work he subsequently published. Dalrymple, zealous for the fame of the great Spanish navigator, gave the name of Torres to the straits which he was the first European to penetrate.

TORRES STRAITS. The straits which divide A. from New Guinea; its distance across, from Cape York, the northernmost point of A., to New Guinea being about eighty miles. It took its name from the Spanish navigator Torres, who sailed in 1605 from Peru, with the object of discovering the Tierra Austral. He passed through the strait in 1606, but the great discovery of the strait was kept unknown till 1762, through the jealousy of the Spanish monarchy, which kept the reports of its navigators a secret from the world. It was not until 1770 that the world received full confirmation

of it—Cook passing through and settling the question. It is a mass of islands, shoals and reefs, of which the navigation is at all times difficult, and with a contrary wind impracticable. The water is nowhere deep. Towards the narrowest part of the strait it is seldom more than twelve or fourteen fathoms, and often not above half as much. The bottom is everywhere seen, and in clear weather, and with a vertical sun, the traversing of those channels is a novel scene, even to those who are familiar with the sea. This strait is advantageous only as a passage from A. to China and India. April, May and June, appear to be the most agreeable months for passing through the straits; the east monsoon is then in its vigour; the nights are calm and serene; the land wind comes from the southward at day-break and freshens for a part of the morning, but dies away at noon, and is then succeeded by the sea wind, which begins at the E. but shifts to the northward and E. and dies away at night; at this time the E. wind is regular and steady at a distance from the land.

TOWER HILL. A remarkable volcanic mountain in V. with a perfect extinct crater, standing in the Tower Lake nine miles N.N.E. of Belfast, and entirely surrounded by water. It has an exceedingly picturesque appearance and is much visited by sightseers. The surrounding country is very fertile, and potatoes of excellent quality are grown over a large area.

TOWNS, ROBERT (1794-1873) was a native of Northumberland in England. Having at an early age a great desire to become a sailor he was placed on board a collier running between Shields and London. Whilst on board he diligently applied himself to the work of getting a practical knowledge of his profession, and when the vessel was in port used to attend a night-school kept by an old mariner, from whom he learnt some of the elements of navigation. At the age of sixteen Towns was made mate, and the following year took command of the vessel. A few years afterwards he was entrusted with the command of a brig trading in the Mediterranean. Towns made sufficient capital whilst in this trade to enable him to build a vessel for himself which he called *The Brothers*. In 1842 he retired from a seafaring life and settled in Sydney, where he established the well-known mercantile house which bears his name. Towns employed many vessels in the "Island Trade," collecting sandal wood, cocoa-nut oil, &c. When his business had largely increased he took into partnership Alexander Stuart. In 1851 Towns took an active part in re-organising the Bank of N.S.W., increasing its capital and otherwise making it suitable to the growing demands of the colony; he was from that time till his death connected with the directory of the bank. Towns entered largely into pastoral pursuits, and held a number of stations in North Australia. Townsville, an important township and electorate was named in his honour. He was the first to introduce the

cotton cultivation on an extensive scale, for which he, at an expense of £20,000, formed a plantation of 2000 acres, and employed about 260 South Sea Islanders. He was appointed to the Legislative Council in 1856, and continued to take an active part in mercantile marine and all matters affecting the shipping interests to the end of his career. In private life he was remarkable for generosity and kindness; during the Crimean War he contributed largely to the "Patriotic Fund," and gave £500 for the relief of the sufferers by the Lancashire cotton famine. Towns was at one time connected with John Robertson and Charles Cowper in taking up the country known as the "Plains of Promise," on the Albert and Norman rivers, Gulf of Carpentaria.

TOWNSVILLE, a town in Q., situated on the shores of Cleveland Bay, about 870 miles N.W. of Brisbane. It was found by John Medwin Black in 1864, and named after his partner Captain Towns. It is picturesquely built on the north bank of the Ross creek, and partly on the slope of a mountain, which rises to an altitude of 1000 feet. There is a large shipping trade, Townsville being the port for an immense territory to the W. and N.W., including several gold-fields and much pastoral country, even to the Diamantina, which however is hampered by the openness of the anchorage—large vessels, and even the inter-colonial steamers, having to lie nearly three miles off the shore. A magnificent stone breakwater is in course of construction which will remedy this.

TRENCH, ROBERT LE POER, jurist, is a native of Dublin, and was articled to the celebrated pleader and conveyancer Coventry, and was called to the English Bar (Inner Temple) in June 1842. After having spent several years travelling in various parts of the world, he came to V., and was appointed Clerk of Petty Sessions in Kilmore, and shortly afterwards was promoted to the office of Clerk of Petty Sessions in Ballarat. In 1855 he was admitted to the Victorian Bar, in the same year with Sir George Stephen, Judge Bindon, and Robert Walsh. He soon became a leading member of his profession, and has long been looked upon as a high authority on mining law. In the famous case of *Learmonth v. Bailey* and others—perhaps the most important case that was ever tried in Australia—he was retained for the defence, and had the satisfaction of gaining a verdict for his clients. On the formation of Berry's first Government in August 1875, Trench was appointed Attorney-General; and when Berry again became Chief Secretary, in May 1877, Trench resumed his position in the Crown Law Offices, and was subsequently appointed one of the Land Tax Commissioners.

TUFNELL, EDWARD WYNDHAM (1814—) is a native of England, and was educated at Eton and Wadham College, Oxford. In 1846 he was Rector of Beechingstoke; in 1850 he was made Prebendary of Salisbury; in 1858 Rector of SS. Peter and

Paul, Marlborough; and was consecrated first Bishop of Brisbane in 1859. He resigned the see in 1875.

TURNER'S CREEK is a fine stream of water in Q., flowing into the Gulf of Carpentaria; it was discovered by Leichhardt during his journey overland to Port Essington. It lies to the westward of the river Marlow, and is named in acknowledgment of the support that Leichhardt's expedition received from George Cooper Turner of Sydney.

TWOFOLD BAY, in N.S.W., lies 240 miles to the S.W. of Sydney and thirty miles from Cape Howe. It was discovered and named in January 1798 by Bass, who obtained permission from Governor Hunter to explore with Flinders, in an open whale-boat, the coast to the S. of Botany Bay. It is a good harbour, possessing good anchorage, protected from all winds, excepting those from the eastward. Snug Cove was so named by Flinders; it is a very small cove, and only large enough to afford mooring room for about half-a-dozen vessels. A cove situated on the south where stands the town of Boyd, affords perfect shelter to vessels from every wind. "From its proximity to the Menaroo country" wrote Wells in 1848, "it is likely to become a very thriving place. As a port it stands well to compete with Port Jackson, and will very soon be a place of considerable trade. The land in the immediate vicinity of the town of Boyd is good, and a vast extent of land of the first quality stretches far and wide to the westward and southward, inviting the agriculturist and grazier, and holds out the fairest promise to persevering industry. It is admirably situated for a commercial town, being a sort of half-way house between Sydney; Hobart Town in T.; Launceston in T.; and Sydney and Melbourne. It is the general place-of-call for the steamboats regularly plying along the coast between the metropolis and all the settlements to the southward, both in A. and T.; and it is anticipated that every acre of available land within a moderate distance of Boyd Town will bear a high price in the land market. A remarkable high peaked hill named Mount Imlay, after the discoverer of the Menaroo country, lies behind the head of the bay." It is needless to add that these sanguine anticipations were never realised. Twofold Bay is now a solitude.

TYRRELL, DR. WILLIAM (1807—1879) first bishop of Newcastle, N.S.W., was son of a former Remembrancer of the city of London; his mother was a daughter of the celebrated optician Dollond. He was educated at the Charterhouse, in London, and afterwards went to St. John's College, Cambridge, where he gained a scholarship and graduated as fourth senior optime. In 1847, when it was resolved to divide the bishopric of Australia, he left his English parish to undertake the duties of Bishop of Newcastle. He was indefatigable in visiting even the most remote parts of this vast diocese, and must have travelled many thousands

of miles in this way; he was a good horseman and performed by far the greater part of his episcopal visitations on horseback. Knowing that the gradual withdrawal of State aid on the death of the present incumbents would soon leave the Church entirely dependent on the voluntary contributions of its members, his main anxiety for many years past had been to inaugurate a scheme for the permanent endowment of the diocese. His scheme provided endowments for a bishop, an archdeacon, three canons, and a number of licensed clergymen; also £10,000 to provide incomes for superannuated clergy; £5000 (towards which the bishop's sister promised £2000) for the help of sick clergymen taking rest and air; £25,000 for the training of future clergy; and £44,000 for the religious education of the young. The entire scheme involved the investment of a quarter of a million sterling for the benefit of the Church in the Newcastle diocese. Of this amount a portion, comparatively a very small portion, was raised in his lifetime. The bulk of it was to be provided, under the bishop's will, by the appropriation of the annual profits of his valuable station property. His name will be held in lasting remembrance in the diocese. The particular distribution of the half million of money he bequeathed is given above. One of the Bishop's greatest trials of late years (added to his paralysis) was the long disastrous drought which existed in that part of Australia and prevented his carrying into effect his munificent scheme, his property having been seriously injured by it. He lived just long enough to see the long-wished-for rain set in, and this much lightened his anxiety. He died at last on 24th March from hernia, brought on by his long and rapid journeys on horseback. At his funeral there was an immense gathering of clergy and laity.

U.

ULLATHORNE, WILLIAM BERNARD (1806—) was a native of Yorkshire, and educated at St. Gregory's College, Downside, England. After being admitted to the priesthood he became a missionary to Australia in 1832, and was appointed Vicar-General, being well known for his zealous labours amongst the prison population. Ullathorne was the first Catholic priest who visited Norfolk Island, and he succeeded in obtaining the appointment of a Catholic bishop for the colony. Through giving evidence before a Parliamentary Committee in 1838, he exercised great influence in putting a stop to transportation to the penal settlements. Having returned to England, he was stationed at Coventry. He was appointed Vicar-Apostolic of the Western district, and consecrated Bishop of Hetalona, *in partibus*, in June 1846; was transferred to the Central District in July 1848: and translated to the See of Birmingham in September 1850, on the restoration by the Roman Catholic

authorities of their hierarchy, in obtaining which he bore a prominent part. Amongst his published works are : *A Reply to Judge Burton* (1836) ; *Horrors of Transportation* ; and *The Australian Mission* (1838.)

V.

VANCOUVER, GEORGE, British navigator, sailed with Cook in his third voyage. Whilst on an expedition to South America, in September 1791, he touched the S. coast of the Australian continent at Cape Chatham, to which he gave the name. Sailing eastward he came to a sound in which he cast anchor on 28th, and named it King George III.'s Sound. The first land he saw was a high mountain, which he named Mount Gardiner, and some islands off the mainland were called Eclipse Isles. Tracing the shores of the sound inland, he reached a high rocky point, which he named Point Possession. He quitted the sound on 11th October and proceeded eastward in the examination of the coast ; but, baffled by unfavourable winds, he abandoned his design. He then sailed away on his main expedition to the N.W. coast of America. The last land seen by him was named Termination Island. In sailing out of King George's Sound, his vessel had struck on a bank covered with oysters, to which the name Oyster Harbour was given. This completed the navigator's discoveries in Southern Australia.

VAN DIEMEN'S LAND, the early name of Tasmania. A full account of the Island is given under that heading.

VAN EDEL, JOHN, Dutch Navigator, discovered and named Van Edel's Land, in 1619.

VAN NUYTS, PETER, Dutch Navigator, discovered and named Van Nuyts' Land in 1627.

VANSITTART HILLS are situated in the district of Liverpool Plains, N.S.W., near the Yorke River. They were named by Oxley after the Chancellor of the Exchequer, Sir Nicholas Vansittart.

VAUGHAN, ROGER WILLIAM BEDE (1834—) Roman Catholic Archbishop of Sydney, is the son of Colonel Vaughan, of Courtfield, Herefordshire. The family is one of the oldest of the county families of England, having been founded by Herbert, Count of Vermandois, who came from Normandy with the Conqueror, and was Chamberlain to William Rufus. The great-uncle of the Archbishop was the celebrated Cardinal Weld. His eldest brother is Roman Catholic Bishop of Salford. His uncle is Bishop of Plymouth, and his cousin the Rev. Dr. Clifford is Bishop of Clifton. He was educated by private tutors until 1851, when he was sent to St. Gregory's College, Downside, near Bath, an institution conducted by Fathers of the English Benedictine Congregation. In 1853 he entered on his novitiate,

was professed in the following year, and in 1856 went to Rome to complete his study of divinity. In 1859 he was ordained priest by Cardinal Patrici, in the Church of St. John Lateran. He returned to Downside in the latter end of the same year, and was made missionary priest of a large district. His labours for two years were great and most successful. In 1861 he was made Professor of Philosophy in the Benedictine Institution at St. Michael's, near Hereford ; and in 1862 was elected, in spite of his youth, to the Cathedral Priorship. This office he retained until his consecration as Archbishop of Sydney in 1879.

VERDON, SIR GEORGE FREDERIC (1834—) is a native of England, and came to V. in 1851. He established himself at Williamstown, and in 1859 was elected to represent that constituency in the Legislative Assembly. In 1860 he was chosen Treasurer in the Heales Ministry, and occupied that position until the close of the following year, when the third O'Shanassy administration was formed. He was called to the bar in 1861. When the O'Shanassy Government resigned in 1863, Verdon became Treasurer in the McCulloch administration, and held that office until 1868. In 1866 he was sent as commissioner from the Government to England for the purpose of bringing the subject of the defences of the colony under the consideration of the Imperial Government, and succeeded in obtaining a contribution of £100,000 towards the construction of the ironclad *Cerberus*, as also the gift of the *Nelson*. He also negotiated a loan for public works, and was instrumental in establishing the Melbourne Mint. On his return to V. he was elected member for Emerald Hill, but soon resigned his seat on accepting the appointment of Agent-General for the colony. This position he filled with great ability until 1872. He was knighted by Her Majesty for his public services, with the order of G.C.M.G. When he resigned the Agent-Generalship, he accepted the office of Colonial Inspector and General Manager of the English, Scottish and Australian Chartered Bank, a position which he now holds. Verdon is a Fellow of the Royal Society, of the Royal Geographical Society, and of other scientific societies.

VERVAIN PLAINS, are situated in Q. They were discovered by Leichhardt, and named from their being entirely grown over with Vervain.

VICTORIA, the smallest and most southerly of all the continental colonies, was originally named Port Phillip, and bore that name as a district of N.S.W. until its separation from the parent colony in 1851. On its erection into an independent colony, it was named after Her Majesty Queen Victoria. Mitchell, on his first exploring journey southward from the Murray, proposed to call the new province Australia Felix, from the mildness of its climate, the fertility of its soil, and the beauty of its scenery, but this name was never adopted.

I. GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION, AREA, AND BOUNDARIES.—V. is situated at the south-east of, and is the southernmost colony on, the Australian continent. It lies between the 34th and 39th parallels of S. latitude, and the 141st and 150th meridians of E. longitude. Its extreme length from E. to W. is about 420, its greatest breadth about 250, and its extent of coast-line nearly 600 geographical miles. According to the latest computation, the area of V. is 88,198 square miles, or 56,446,720 acres. The whole continent of A. is estimated to contain 2,983,264 square miles, and therefore V. occupies about a thirty-fourth part of its surface. Great Britain, exclusive of the islands in the British seas, contains 89,644 square miles, and is therefore slightly larger. V. is bounded on the N. by the River Murray, and by a direct line running in a south-easterly direction from a place near the head waters of that stream, called the Springs, on Forest Hill, to Cape Howe. The positions of the extremities of this line are as follow:—

	Latitude S.			Longitude E.		
	°	'	"	°	'	"
The Springs ...	36	47	56.90	...	148	11 57.75
Cape Howe ...	37	30	23.09	...	149	58 35.50

The western boundary which divides it from S.A. is a line about 242 geographical miles in length, approximating to the position of the 141st meridian of E. longitude, and extending from the Murray to the sea. This line was, in 1847-9, marked upon the ground as the 141st meridian, and was accepted and proclaimed as such in the *Government Gazettes* of the period in the two colonies; but its true position is now found to be $140^{\circ} 58' 7.26''$, and it therefore follows that V. exercises jurisdiction over about 360 square miles of South Australian territory. The error was discovered in the course of the Geodetic Survey of V., which was commenced in 1857, when according to the first observations made by the surveying staff, the marked line appeared to be two and a-half miles to the eastward of its proper position, and it was consequently supposed that S.A. had encroached upon V. to that extent all along the frontier. It was afterwards discovered that, owing to errors in the *Nautical Almanac*, the Victorian geodetic lines had been placed four miles too far to the westward, the necessary result being that, instead of S.A. having possession of any portion of the territory of V., the latter was in occupation of a strip of South Australian territory one and a-half miles broad and 242 miles long. This fact the S.A. Government have submitted should be held to be sufficient reason for the reconsideration and re-marking of the boundary line; but to this the V. Government object, more especially as they made no demand for its alteration when the error was supposed to be two and a-half miles the other way, and also because in the present state of science, it is admitted to be impossible in these latitudes to lay down meridians at very great distances from the primary within a nearer approximation to their true position than a quarter of a mile, so that, if the boundary were

readjusted now, improved methods in a few years might indicate that the line was still wrong. It may be observed that what is known of the position of the marked boundary line is entirely due to Victorian observers, and S.A. has never, so far as is known, taken any steps towards testing the accuracy of their observations. The southern boundary of V. is the Southern Ocean, Bass Straits, and the Pacific Ocean. The Southern Ocean is reckoned to extend as far east as a line drawn from the north part of King's Island to Cape Otway; Bass Straits from that line to one drawn from the north part of Flinders Island to Wilson's Promontory; and the Pacific Ocean from the last-mentioned line eastward. The southernmost point in V., and consequently in the whole of A., is Wilson's Promontory, which lies in lat. $39^{\circ} 8' S.$, long. $146^{\circ} 26' E.$; the northernmost point is the place where the western boundary of the colony meets the Murray, lat. $34^{\circ} 2' S.$, long. $140^{\circ} 58' E.$; the point furthest east is Cape Howe, situated in lat. $37^{\circ} 31' S.$, long. $149^{\circ} 59' E.$; the most westerly point is in the line of the whole western frontier, which, according to the latest correction, lies upon the meridian $140^{\circ} 58' E.$, and extends from lat. $34^{\circ} 2' S.$ to lat. $38^{\circ} 4' S.$, or 242 geographical miles. The Melbourne Observatory is a building specially erected for observatory purposes on the Government reserve on the south side of the River Yarra. According to the latest computation, its lat. is $37^{\circ} 49' 53'' S.$, and its long. $144^{\circ} 58' 42'' E.$

II. PHYSICAL FEATURES.—The surface of V. is even more diversified, and less easy to describe, than that of N.S.W. A broad and irregular range of mountains runs through the colony from E. to W., dividing it into two unequal parts, all the truly Victorian rivers having their sources on the southern side of the watershed and flowing to the sea, while those rising on the northern slopes all empty themselves into the Murray. The eastern and loftiest portion of the mountain range is known as the Australian Alps, while its extension westwards is termed the Dividing Range. Farther west it is called the Pyrenees, some of whose peaks are incongruously named Ben Nevis and Mount Ararat. Beyond these the range turns northward and forms the Grampians, whose principal peak, Mount William, is 5600 feet high. The highest part of the Australian Alps in V. is Mount Bogong (6508 feet,) forming part of a northerly spur between the Mitta-mitta and Ovens Rivers and about fifty miles west of the N.S.W. boundary. Further west a few peaks rise above 6000 feet. All along the main chain are many northern and southern spurs and short ranges, as well as a number of outlying peaks and mountains often extending to a width of fifty or a hundred miles. In the central part of the Dividing Range the hills vary from 2000 to 3500 feet, while both here, and more especially in the country west of Melbourne, are hundreds of volcanic mountains, some with very perfect cones and craters. There

is no connected system of coast-ranges. To the east are the Wanderer Hills entering the colony from N.S.W. The Strzelecki Range crosses the southern promontory, while another crosses the south-western promontory and terminates at Moonlight Headland a little north-west of Cape Otway. The larger portion of V. is mountainous or hilly, and it is only in the north-western portion that we meet with plains at all equal in extent to those of N.S.W. This is the Wimmera district, extending from the Pyrenees and Grampians to the Murray, and covering an area of more than 20,000 miles. Here are vast sandy and sparsely grassed plains intersected with belts of "myall scrub" and forests of Casuarina, Banksia, and Eucalyptus. Occasionally patches of land occur suitable for agriculture, but by far the larger portion is only suited for pasture. In some parts there are extensive swamps, and the whole district is liable to severe droughts, so that water has to be obtained by means of wells from 80 to 140 feet deep. With the exception of the Murray, V. has few navigable rivers. In winter these rivers become angry torrents, carrying devastation over much fertile country. During the summer heats many of them dwindle down to small streams or to detached pools of water, while some entirely dry up in exceptionally dry seasons, bringing terrible loss to the stock-owners, whose cattle die by thousands from want of water. The principal rivers in the order of their length are—the Murray, the chief sources of which are in the colony and whose main stream bounds it for a distance of nearly 600 miles, its total length measured along its course being 1400 miles; the Goulburn, 230 miles long, a tributary of the Murray, having its source in the great Dividing Range to the N.E. of Melbourne; the Glenelg, 205 miles long, rising in the Grampians and flowing in a westerly and southerly direction to the sea at the S.W. corner of the colony; the Loddon, 150 miles long, has its sources in the Dividing Range N.W. of Melbourne and flows nearly due north to the Murray; the Wimmera has its sources in the Pyrenees and Grampians, and flowing northward loses itself in salt lakes and arid plains before reaching the Murray; the Avoca, 130 miles long, rises on the eastern slopes of the Pyrenees and also terminates in swamps and lakes; the Hopkins, 110 miles long, rises in the Pyrenees and flows southward to the ocean; the Ovens, 100 miles long, rises in the Australian Alps, near Mounts Smyth and Selwyn, and flows in a N.W. direction to the Murray; and the Yarra Yarra, 90 miles long, which rises among the southern spurs of the Dividing Range, and flowing west, enters the bay of Port Phillip at Melbourne. There are numerous lakes in V., but many are saline, and some are depressions near the shore, only separated from the ocean by sandbanks. A few are formed in ancient craters. The lakes of the Wimmera district are mostly salt—as Lake Hindmarsh which covers more than 25,000 acres.

Lake Burrumbeet, near Ballarat, and some others among the mountains, may be true alpine lakes, but these interesting geographical features have not been sufficiently examined. The scenery of V. is diversified and pleasing. The hills and mountains are mostly clothed with dense forests; and the ranges of the Australian Alps offer much grand mountain scenery. Again in the west the Pyrenees and Grampians are very picturesque, and some of the rivers are broken by waterfalls of great beauty. The whole country from Melbourne westward is exceedingly rich in soil and varied and beautiful in scenery. Here there is an additional charm in the numerous extinct volcanoes which occur in extraordinary numbers. In many instances the craters are perfectly defined, leaving not the slightest doubt as to their former character. In general they appear as isolated cones such as Mounts Elephant, Eles, Napier and others, standing out conspicuously from the surrounding level; in others, as the Warion Hills, between the lakes Colac and Corangamite they assume the form of a small chain comprising about a dozen volcanic hills. Within and around the craters are strewn rocks of pumice and lava; and the lower part is often occupied by a small lake, sometimes of fresh water, at others of salt, or nauseous to the taste and smell, as from the presence of sulphuretted hydrogen. This fine country is also variegated with salt lakes and lagoons, some of which, by their circular form, their peculiar mineral water, and a sort of escarpment around them, have the appearance of craters, although not in the customary form of cones. Luxuriance of vegetation everywhere accompanies the volcanic deposits, to such an extent as sometimes to be injurious to the animals that feed on it. Westgarth remarks:—"The picture of the past, called up by geological science, contrasts strikingly with the present scenery. The most violent commotions of nature have been succeeded by the opposite extreme of tranquillity. Sheep fat for the shambles the whole year round, horses in the highest spirit and condition, oxen half a ton in weight, sport over the verdant grass supported by the deep soil now covering the once livid rocks that were vomited over the country." Howitt also, in his *Two Years in Victoria*, speaks of the "rich black volcanic earth and the greenness of the luxuriant vegetation in the country between Ballarat and Geelong, and westward to the Glenelg River. He describes the upper valley of the Moorabool as being exceedingly picturesque, the river running through deep glens enclosed by lofty precipices and hung with fine forests. For miles the banks of the river display extreme beauty, winding about amid noble promontories scattered with giant trees, and high hollow combs as impressive in their seclusion as they were rich in soil. Here and there mounds rise out of the bottom of the valley so rounded and beautiful that one wonders not to see them seized upon and crowned with picturesque mansions,

Others run in low lines across the valley, looking as if designed by some skilful landscape-gardener to give effect to princely grounds, yet so draped in delicate verdure as only nature could drape them."

III. CLIMATE.—Although V. is not so hot as N.S.W. or Q., there is not much difference in the maximum summer temperature, which often rises to 100° or even to 108° Fahr. in the shade. There is however a considerable amount of fine clear weather not oppressively warm, and except when the hot northerly winds blow, the climate is exceedingly agreeable. In the lowlands frost is almost unknown, but in the mountainous districts it often freezes at night, although the days may be of a summer temperature. The mean temperature of Melbourne is 58°. The rainfall is very variable in different years. The mean at Melbourne is 25 inches, but it has been so low as 14 inches and as high as 48 inches. In the mountains, especially towards the east, the rainfall is greater, while the Wimmera district in the north-western interior is very dry, having rarely above 14 inches, while the soil is mostly sandy and the evaporation enormous. On the whole V. has probably the most agreeable climate of any part of the continent of Australia.

IV. NATURAL HISTORY.—Being (comparatively) so small, and divided by no great natural barriers from N.S.W. or S.A., it is not to be expected that V. should present many peculiar forms of animals or plants. Its varied surface and rich soil are however highly favourable to vegetable and animal life, and the special Australian flora and fauna are here developed with great luxuriance. Many English quadrupeds and birds have now been introduced and become naturalised; such as hares, rabbits, deer, goats, pheasants, partridges, quails, white swans, foreign ducks, thrushes, larks, and other song-birds; and many of these are becoming more or less plentiful. Rabbits have increased in some of the scrubs to such an extent as to be a nuisance. Deer may be found in some of the mountain ranges; and the Axis deer of India, of which thirty-five were turned out in the Wimmera district a few years since, now number herds of some hundreds in the ranges of the Western Grampians and in many of the surrounding mountains. Angora goats have also been turned out, and many of the birds have increased wonderfully, so that the sweetest songsters of England may be often heard in the woods of this remote colony. The southern slopes and valleys of the Dividing Range to the N.E. of Melbourne are clothed with magnificent forests, and it is here that trees have been found surpassing in height the famed giant trees of California. Among the various tributaries of the Watts River (a northern branch of the Yarra Yarra) several species of Eucalyptus attain gigantic dimensions never met with in any other forests. There are large tracts near the sources of the Watts where the trees average from 250 to 300 feet high, mostly straight as an arrow and with very few branches. Many fallen trees measure

350 feet in length, and one huge specimen, which lay prostrate across a stream, was found by actual measurement with a tape to be 435 feet from its roots to where its trunk had been broken off by the fall. This broken end was three feet in diameter, so that at the lowest estimate the entire tree must have been over 500 feet high—by far the loftiest tree as yet ascertained to exist on the globe. At five feet from the ground it measures eighteen feet in diameter. The tree had been much burnt, and the broken top entirely destroyed. This tree was a eucalyptus, probably of the species named *E. obliqua* or *E. amygdalina*. The tallest of the Wellingtonias of California do not exceed 325 feet, but they are usually thicker at the base. This huge fallen tree was however eighteen feet in diameter at five feet from the ground, and some are said to exceed twenty feet in diameter, but these are rarely more than 300 feet high. It is therefore probable that not only in height but also in the quantity of timber in a single tree, these Victorian eucalypti far surpass all other trees in the world.

V. GEOLOGY.—The geological formation of V. is very varied, and this helps to give the country much of its beautiful and romantic scenery. It possesses far less of the barren tertiary sandstone than the other colonies, and a larger proportion of palæozoic and volcanic rocks, to which it owes its extreme fertility. The Dividing Range running through the centre of the country from east to west consists of granitic and Silurian rocks, which extend also to the Grampians on the west and the Australian Alps on the east. South of the mountains to the sea was once an enormous deposit of upper palæozoic or secondary rocks, which have since been denuded. These rocks had a strike at right angles to the mountain range, and the beds of quartz and other hard rocks now stand up in ridges running north and south across the country so regularly that they are used as sure guides by the wandering bushman. These more recent deposits seldom produce much gold, and it is owing to their extensive denudation that V. owes much of its auriferous treasures. The mode in which the gold occurs has already been described in our chapter on the Geology of Australia, and need not be repeated here. Devonian sandstones, slates and limestones, occur in Gipps Land. Secondary rocks, though scanty, occur in the Cape Otway country, and in the region east of Western Port, as well as in the Wannon district east of the Glenelg River. These regions are poor, and are either uninhabited or pastoral. Coal is found at Cape Otway and Western Port, but it is not of great value, being of Mesozoic age. Tertiary deposits cover one-third of the surface of the colony. The calcareous or desert sandstone of Pliocene age, which is so largely developed in W. and S.A., enters V. in the west and north-west, and forms much of the poor arid pastures of the Wimmera country. To the south of the mountains small patches of it only are found at Port

Phillip Heads and Western Port. The quartz, gravel, clay, sandstone, and conglomerate, in which alluvial gold is found, is Older Pliocene, while the fresh-water sandstones of Geelong and of the Loddon valley are Newer Pliocene. The coloured clays of Warrnambool on the south-western coast are Post-pliocene. Miocene beds occur in the Moorabool valley west of Geelong and in the Cape Otway region; while the sandstone of Portland in the west and the rough limestone of the Gippsland lakes are of the same age. The extinct volcanoes of V. are very remarkable, and apparently very recent, so that the traditions of eruptions existing among the natives may be founded on fact. Many of the plains, as those north and west of Melbourne, are formed by outflows of basalt, as are some very extensive plains in the western part of the colony. The successive flows of basalt, beneath which the "deep leads" of the gold-miners are found, have already been described. The volcanic cones and craters which are so abundant in the south-west of V. and in the Dividing Range have discharged basalt, lava, scoriæ, cinders, mud, and ashes. In many places, as about Ballarat, these extinct volcanoes may be counted by the score. Some are filled up at the summit, others are surrounded by a rim miles in extent, while others again have their craters filled with water. Several of the western lakes appear to have been craters. Many of these volcanoes were in eruption during the Miocene period, others in Pliocene and Post-pliocene, or even in recent times. To the south-west, near Lake Colac, are singular ridges of lava and basalt forming a labyrinthine network of rock, among which caverns of considerable extent have been found.

VI. MOUNTAINS.—A range of mountains traverses the entire length of the colony, dividing it into two unequal parts. This range runs in an eastern and western direction, generally at a distance of sixty or seventy miles from the sea-coast. It is part of the Australian Cordillera and is called the Dividing Range; all the Victorian rivers have their sources in this range or in its spurs, those to the north running towards the Murray and those to the south flowing into the sea. Its eastern part, which divides the Gipps Land district from the Murray, is known as the Australian Alps. It varies in height from 1000 to 7000 feet, the principal peaks being Mount Smyth, Mount Selwin, The Twins, Forest Hill and the Cobboras. The range dividing the Wimmera district from the county of Ripon is termed the Pyrenees; the principal peaks are the Coorong-Ageering, the Jambour and Ben Nevis. The Grampians form the west termination of the Great Dividing Range; the principal peak is Mount William, 5600 feet high. Other mountains are—the Benambras, the Gibbo, Bogong, Buffalo and Futter ranges; the Delatite, Mount Wellington, Bawbaw, Hoddle, Strzelecki, Dandenong, Victoria and Sierra ranges. The ranges running at right angles to the main dividing range are not very lofty, and consist

mostly of heavily-timbered hills, although in the Geelong and Ballarat districts are numerous bald hills the slopes of some of which are in a high state of cultivation as vineyards and otherwise. The highest peaks of the mountain system of Victoria are the following:—Bogong 6508 feet, Feathertop 6303 feet, Hotham 6100 feet, Cobboras 6025 feet, Cope 6015 feet, Buller 5911 feet, Gibbo 5764 feet, Wills 5758 feet, Howitt 5715 feet, Buffalo 5645 feet, Twins 5575 feet, Wellington 5363 feet, Tamboritha 5381 feet, Cobbler 5342 feet, Kent 5129 feet, Forest Hill 5000 feet, Benambra 4940 feet, Castle Hill 4860 feet, Ellery 4255 feet. As far as is known at present there are at least fifteen peaks over 5000 feet high, and fifteen between 4000 and 5000 feet; there are also many peaks above 4000 feet whose actual height have not yet been determined.

VII. CAPES.—The principal headlands are—Cape Bridgewater, Cape Nelson, and Cape Otway (the last-named is at the south-western extremity of the colony, and usually the first land sighted by the emigrant,) Cape Volney, Point Flinders, Port Phillip Heads, and Point Lonsdale on the south, to the west of Port Phillip Bay; and Point Nepean, Cape Schank, Cape Paterson, Cape Liptrap, and Wilson's Promontory, also on the south, to the east of Port Phillip Bay.

VIII. RIVERS.—The absence of rivers of any size is one of the greatest obstacles to the opening up of the country; with the exception of the Murray, the Yarra-Yarra, and the Gippsland streams, none are navigable in the English acceptance of the term. The names of the principal rivers, in the order of their length, are as follow:—The Murray 2400 miles, 670 miles of which flows along the Victorian border, Goulburn 230 miles, Glenelg 205 miles, Loddon 150 miles, Wimmera 135 miles, Avoca 130 miles, Hopkins 110 miles, Wannon 105 miles, Ovens 100 miles, Yarra-Yarra 90 miles, Latrobe 90 miles, Mitta-Mitta 90 miles. In winter time the rivers of A. are frequently swollen by the heavy rains into angry torrents, which carry all before them in their resistless course, and, overflowing their banks, devastate the country. Many of the smaller streams, colonially called "creeks," and, indeed, some of the larger rivers in the west, dwindle down into mere threads of water, and occasional pools, or water-holes, during the summer heats, and sometimes dry up altogether; a circumstance which, when it occurs, is productive of terrible loss to stockowners, cattle dying in thousands from drought.

IX. LAKES.—There are numerous salt and fresh water lakes, many of these being dry during the summer months, and all of them more or less shallow; the largest of these is Lake Corangamite, covering 48,640 acres. This lake, with a number of small ones in its neighbourhood, has no outlet, and is extremely saline, from the accumulation of salt in solution passed into it by drainage from the basalt rock, the water being kept down by

vaporisation, while the quantity of salt continually increases. In the summer the lake falls, by evaporation, considerably below its winter level, leaving on the banks large quantities of native salt in crystals, the gathering of which forms a remunerative occupation to those residing in the district. A few miles distant from this is Lake Colac (fresh water,) 6400 acres in extent. Lake Burrumbeet, in the county of Ripon (fresh water,) embraces an area of 5440 acres. Lake Albacutya, in the Wimmera district, covers 13,440 acres; Bolac, in the same division, 8960 acres; Lake Connearre is 7680 acres in extent; Lake Hindmarsh, 25,840 acres. The Gipps Land lakes, Victoria, King, Reeve, and Wellington, are approachable from the sea at certain times, a belt of sand only separating them therefrom. This belt or bar is periodically opened at a stated point by the neighbouring settlers, thus setting free the accumulated waters, and opening a channel for the vessels which ply to and from the lakes. Works have been commenced with a view to make the entrance permanent. The largest of them is Lake Victoria, covering an area of 58,240 acres; Lake Wellington occupies 46,080 acres.

X. HARBOURS.—The principal harbours are Port Phillip Bay, 40 miles long and about the same width at the widest part, area about 700 square miles, the head waters of which are called Hobson's Bay and form the port of Melbourne; the south-western waters of Port Phillip Bay form Corio Bay, on the shores of which Geelong is located; others being Portland Bay, Port Fairy, Lady Bay, Western Port, and Port Albert.

XI. DIVISIONS.—V. is divided into four districts—Gipps Land, the Murray, Wimmera and Loddon. (1.) *Gipps Land*, so named after one of the early Governors of N.S.W., includes Gipps Land north and Gipps Land south. This district occupies the south-eastern portion of the colony and comprises about one-fifth of the whole territory of V.; much of it, to the north and east particularly, is unavailable for agricultural or pastoral purposes from its rugged and mountainous character, but there are in other parts large tracts of grazing and tillable country, rich deposits of alluvial soil predominating in some parts, rendering large returns for the labour of cultivation. Owing however to the heavy timber, gum, and ironbark that grow on it in many places, its clearing is attended with considerable toil and expense. In the south and west portion a large quantity of land is occupied for farming and cattle-grazing, for which its rich and fertile soil peculiarly fits it. A large proportion of the fat cattle supplied to the Melbourne market during the winter months is received from here. Its mineral resources are immense, comprising gold, silver, copper, iron, tin, lead, coal, marble and limestone. In the north-west portion of the district quartz reefs are very numerous, and these are now being systematically worked, and in many cases with remunerative results. The climate and soil are well fitted for the

growth of oranges, limes, hops, tobacco and opium, and its rivers abound in fish. The population by the last census was 20,000, and the railway which now connects Melbourne with its chief town Sale, will be likely to considerably increase that number. The lakes are admittedly the finest in V., and are a great source of attraction to tourists and sportsmen; the fishing and shooting are unsurpassed. The principal rivers are—the Avon, Thompson, Tambo, Snowy, and Latrobe, all rising in the dividing range or its spurs. The mountain ranges are numerous, and most of them are covered with snow for a considerable portion of the year. The chief towns are—Sale, Stratford, Bruthen, Alberton, Rosedale, Tarraville, Palmerston, Bairnsdale, and Jericho. Gipps Land is a country of colossal mountains, of magnificent streams, and of fertile plains. The geological formation is chiefly volcanic, with large outcropping beds of granite and trap rock to the north-east. In the south it is carbonaceous, and contains lepidodendron, and other fossil plants characteristic of the English coal strata, and nearly all over the district auriferous indications have been found. (2.) *The Murray District* is a vast tract of country lying in the north-east, and comprising the Omeo, Ovens, and Goulburn districts. It is well watered by several streams, which flow through it north and south, the principal of these being the Mitta-Mitta, Kiewa, Ovens, Broken, and numerous tributary creeks. It is generally a mountainous country, the ranges being lofty, rugged, and thickly covered with fine trees. The principal of these are—the Bogongs, Benambras, Buffalo, Stathbogie, and Delatite. The Ovens to the north, and the Omeo to the south-east, the Buckland about the centre, and the Woods Point diggings to the south-west, are noted for their auriferous wealth; and mining, both alluvial and quartz, is extensively carried on. In the north-east are vast plains of fine grass-land, principally devoted to pastoral pursuits, most of the land being held on lease from the Government by squatters and sheep-farmers, some of whose runs are as large as an English county. There is also some good agricultural land in the district, which is principally used for the culture of the vine and tobacco, and the growth of wheat. The North-Eastern line of railway cuts through a considerable portion of this district, and the facilities afforded to farmers and others for quickly and cheaply transporting their stock and produce to a market is doing much to develop the fine capabilities of the country. The most important towns are—Avenel, Euroa, Benalla, Wangaratta, Beechworth, Chiltern, Belvoir, Yackandandah, Tarraville, Rutherglen, Wahgunyah, Buckland, Bright, Mansfield, Jamieson, and Woods Point. The geological formation is varied, consisting of lower silurian with recent surface drift, principally of shale and slate, and occasional basaltic plains with vast outcropping beds of granite. (3.) *The Wimmera District* is a large extent of country, occupying the whole of the north-west portion of V., and

covering an area of 25,000 miles. It is almost exclusively pastoral, and consists for the most part of vast sandy and sparsely-grassed plains, intersected with belts of myall scrub and forests of she-oak, box, honeysuckle, and stringy bark. Occasional patches of land suitable for agricultural purposes have however been found and taken up by settlers. In the north-west are extensive swamps, caused by the overflow of the Murray River. There are some ranges of mountains in the south, but generally the country is flat. The principal rivers are—the Wimmera, Yarriambiack Creek, and the Avon and Richardson; they are all however liable to dry up, and in the dry season become mere chains of water-holes. The country is badly watered, and in hot seasons suffers greatly from drought. Water is obtained by the squatters by digging wells, which at a depth of 80 to 140 feet almost invariably give fine fresh water. The geological formation is pliocene tertiary, with granite and porphyry dykes. Gypsum has been found in a few places. (4.) *The Loddon District*, occupying the north central part of the colony, is also principally pastoral, but containing some auriferous land towards the south. The Loddon, whence the district takes its name, flows from south to north directly through it. The leading towns are—Sandhurst, formerly known as Bendigo, Ravenswood, Dunolly, Inglewood, and Wedderburn. The geological formation is generally lower silurian, with recent surface drift.

XII. POPULATION.—On 15th August 1835 the white population of Port Phillip was 14; in 1836 it was 234. By the census of 1871 the total corrected returns were 731,528, of whom 401,050 were males and 330,478 females. The number of inhabited dwellings in the colony was 158,481; uninhabited, 6997; places building, 866; in all, 158,481. Among the population were 17,857 Chinese, only 31 of whom were females. The aboriginal population of V. when the colony was first settled numbered 5000. In 1851 their numbers were reduced to 2693; in 1863 they had dwindled down to about 1908. At the date of the census in 1871 they numbered 1330, viz., 784 males and 546 females; on 15th March 1877 their numbers were reduced to 1067 (in this were included half-castes)—633 males, 434 females; children, 297, those entirely black numbered 774, and those of mixed blood 293. On 1st January 1880 the Registrar-General estimated the population on that date as 899,333, of whom 489,559 were males and 409,774 were females. The mining population was 37,553. The increase during the year being 11,243 males and 8648 females. The births in 1879 numbered 26,839—11,327 males and 13,112 females; the deaths numbered 12,120—7033 males and 5087 females. The marriages, 4986. In proportion to every thousand of the population the births were 3021; marriages, 561; deaths, 1364. Of the deaths 4640 were of children under five years of age. On 30th June 1880 the population was estimated at

908,852—494,763 males 414,089 females. Total 908, 852. The census taken in 1881 gave the population at 860,000 in round numbers.

XIII. SOIL AND PRODUCTS.—The land available for pastoral and agricultural purposes has been approximately classified thus:—of rich light loam, generally distributed near the coast, there are 36,000 square miles, generally to be met with on terraced flats along the river valleys and running in narrow belts along the sea-coast; it is also found in extensive level plains with stunted timber and thickly-grassed undulating forest country; the geological features of these stretches are clay, sand, lime, gravel, tertiary, and superficial deposits, including alluvial of cold sandy clays and loams, occupying the central, north, north-east, and south-east portions of the country, there are 28,000 square miles in hilly and undulating country abounding in iron-bark and stringy-bark trees growing on clay, slate, schist, and sandstone: of rich black and chocolate soils, eminently adapted for purposes of tillage, distributed in the south-western and central districts, there are about 12,000 square miles of volcanic origin: of light and sandy soil of granitic formation, in patches throughout the country, there are about 8000 square miles: of rich sandy loams near Geelong, and in the counties of Normanby and Dundas, South Grenville and Polwarth, there are about 3000 square miles showing shales and soft sandstone. Nearly everything grown in England flourishes in V., and very many things that the cold uncertain climate of England will not allow to attain to maturity thrive in the colony. Wheat, barley, and oats—the latter cultivated more as hay than for grain—are the farmers' leading articles. Next come potatoes, rye, peas, beans, maize, sorghum, mangold-wurtzels and beet, clover, and various fodder grasses, which are largely grown. Of tobacco too a large breadth has been devoted to its cultivation. Among other things which have been successfully tried are hemp, flax, hops, chicory, sugar, beet, canary grass; and in fruit, all kinds flourish, as do also olives, oranges, guavas, black mulberries, and other fruits. The cereals do remarkably well. The greatest weight recorded of a bushel of wheat is 69 lbs. 4 oz., the average for the last five years has been 61 lbs.; the average weight of oats is 40 lbs., of barley 51 lbs., and of maize 55 lbs. As many as 50 and 60 bushels of wheat, 60 bushels of oats, and 42 bushels of barley per acre have been obtained; but these returns are unusual. From the nature of the soils and the favourable character of the climate, wine and oil of good quality can be produced with ease in V. Already the wines made in the colony have taken a high place in the estimation of European connoisseurs, and the cultivation of the grape will form a source of great wealth. Large vineyards have been planted, and while the quality of the wines is such as to command a ready sale at a high price, the yield is large, the average being about 250 gallons per acre. The culture of the vine has received a serious check through the ravages of

the *Phylloxera vastatrix*; but it is believed that the ravages of the disease have been magnified. The apple, pear, peach, and nectarine, apricot, almond, gooseberry, currant, and fig, and the cabbage, cauliflower, turnip, carrot, parsnip, asparagus, pea, bean, water-melon, rock-melon, and tomato, may be seen all growing together luxuriantly in the same plot of ground, while the borders blossom with the fuchsia, geranium, violet, daisy, and other common flowers of the English garden.

XIV. AGRICULTURE.—According to the statistics for the year ending 31st March 1880 the following figures show the state of land returned as in occupation 16,615,000 acres. Number of holdings exceeding one acre, 49,025. Extent of land in occupation (purchased land)—Freehold, 8,991,033 acres; rented, 1,627,611 acres; total, 10,546,634 acres. Selected land (purchase not completed,) 6,068,283 acres. Total area in occupation, 16,614,917 acres. Extent of land under tillage, 1,687,400 acres. The area of land under wheat was 707,738 acres; average yield, 13·3 bushels; total yield, 9,407,503 bushels; Maize, 2451 acres, produced 61,922 bushels. Oats, 167,721 acres; average yield, 24·0 bushels; total yield, 4,024,962 bushels. Barley, 43,208 acres; total yield, 1,065,759 bushels. Hay, 201,169 acres; average yield, 1·5 tons; total yield, 291,781 tons. Potatoes, 41,600 acres; average yield, 4·0 tons; total yield, 167,986 tons. Rye, 1243 acres; produce, 18,479 bushels. Peas and beans, 21,454 acres; produce, 574,815 bushels. Turnips, 193 acres; produce, 2070 tons. Mangold-wurtzel, 1056 acres; produce, 14,894 tons. Onions, 1040 acres; produce, 7347 tons. Tobacco, 531 acres; produce, 1297. It may be mentioned that the tobacco crop of 1879-80 has failed in most of the districts. Vines, 4285 acres; produce, 106,185 cwt. Gardens, 12,841 acres. Orchards, 7464 acres. Beet, carrots, &c., 375 acres. Chicory, 392 acres. Hops, 260 acres. The land under grain crops was 933,805 acres; root crops, 44,234 acres; green forage, 508,644 acres; other crops, 8157 acres; land in fallow, 162,245 acres. The breadth of land sown in wheat was 16,116 acres in excess of that in the previous year. The grain crops, as compared with 1877-78, show the following increases:—Wheat, 3,346,766 bushels; oats, 1,658,936 bushels; barley, 648,602 bushels; maize, 21,168 bushels; peas, 326,379. Rye shows a decrease of 2337 bushels. In root crops there are these increases:—Potatoes, 69,028 bushels; turnips, 724 bushels; mangold-wurtzel, 6619 tons; beet and parsnips, 1238 bushels; onions, 3747 bushels. In chicory there is an increase of 1201 bushels, in hops of 1360 cwt., in tobacco there is a decrease of 14,365 cwt., in grapes of 33,502 cwt., in the wine, made 163,810 gallons. For the year ending 31st March 1879 the value of the agricultural implements and machinery on farms and stations was estimated at £2,025,916, the improvements at £16,845,527, a total of £18,871,443; 103,520 hands were employed on farms and stations. The principal agricultural machinery &c. on farms was comprised in 385 steam engines

of 2994 h.p. The other machinery in 1878 was 39,878 carts, 11,737 chaff-cutters, 14 cultivators, 564 earth scoops, 3 grubbers, 28,227 harrows, 293 hay elevators, 1418 horse hayrakes, 1093 mowing machines, 34,808 ploughs, 8213 reaping machines, 9155 rollers, 3790 scarifiers, 830 thrashing machines, 8333 waggons, 123 windmills, 1922 winnowing machines, and 608 wool presses. On stations the returns were 24 steam engines of 193 h.p., 1059 carts, 337 chaff-cutters, 93 earth scoops, 250 harrows, 102 horse works, 55 mowers, 8 patent pumps, 740 ploughs, 62 reapers, 184 rollers, 84 scarifiers, 8 stump extractors, 31 thrashing machines, 285 waggons, 46 winnowers, and 376 wool presses. The number of live stock on land unconnected with stations on 31st March 1878 was—horses, 185,671; cattle, milch cows, 256,780; exclusive of milch cows, 741,489; sheep, 5,611,964; pigs, 179,209. On stations to same date—horses, 17,479; cattle, milch cows, 11,330; exclusive of milch cows, 164,577; sheep, 4,502,303; pigs, 4182. On farms and stations to same date—horses, 203,150; cattle, milch cows, 268,110; exclusive of milch cows, 906,066; sheep, 10,114,267; pigs, 183,391. The returns of stock to 31st March 1879 were—horses, 210,015; milch cows, 290,407; other horned cattle, 894,436; sheep, 9,379,276; pigs, 177,373. The value of agricultural produce and live stock imported into and exported during 1878 was as follows:—Imported in 1878, £1,293,421; and in 1879, £1,586,721. Exported in 1878 (Victorian,) £1,091,834; other, £73,691; total exports for 1878, £1,165,526. Exports from V., 1879, £810,715; other than Victorian, £85,245; total exports, £895,960 for 1879.

XV. LANDS.—The estimated area of the colony is 56,446,720 acres, of which 23,000,000 acres are unavailable for selection, being mallee scrub, mountains, &c., leaving the accessible area at 33,446,720 acres. Of this superficies there had been alienated or reserved up to 31st December 1878, 24,073,835 acres, leaving yet unalienated 9,372,885, which would be further increased by 2,050,000 acres of lands which had reverted to the Crown, and making the approximate area available for selection on 1st January 1879, 11,422,885 acres. The Land Acts expire this year (1880,) but owing to the perturbed state of politics it is not likely that any radical change will take place at present. The stations or runs number 701, embracing 17,183,843 acres, the yearly rent being £104,843 8s. To 469 of the runs there are attached 1,690,317 acres of purchased land. The average size of each run is about 24,513 acres, the rental being about 1½d. per acre.

XVI. RELIGION.—There are 2815 churches, chapels and other buildings used for public worship. The denominations are now entirely self-supported—the annual grant of £50,000 having terminated on 31st December 1875.

XVII. EDUCATION.—The system of public primary education in V. is free, secular, and compulsory, the Act establishing it having come into force on

the 1st January 1873. The department is under a Minister of Education, who is alone responsible to Parliament and the country, in whom (or his successors) all school properties are vested, and virtually at whose disposal are the appointment and dismissal of officers. Attendance at the schools is compulsory between the ages of six and fourteen years; the attendance to amount to sixty days in each half-year, any of the following reasons only being a valid excuse for non-attendance:—Efficient education elsewhere; sickness, fear of infection, or any unavoidable cause; if there be no State-school within two miles; if a child be educated up to the standard. This provision of the Act is enforced by "truant officers," whose special business is to hunt up defaulting parents and compel them to have their children educated. The instruction imparted is severed from all connection or special arrangement with the religious denominations, is secular in the sense of not being distinctively religious, and is free in certain prescribed subjects, other subjects being allowed to be taught on the payment of small fees, fixed by regulations. On 1st January 1879, in the 310 schools districts of the colony, there were in operation 1456 State day schools, 208 State night schools, a total of 1664. The number of children enrolled during the year was 231,169—121,471 boys, 109,698 girls. The average attendance was 61,279 boys, 55,329 girls, a total of 116,608, a decrease on the previous year of 3350 on the rolls, nearly half of which it is stated by the Education Department is chargeable to the night schools. The number of new school-houses opened during the year was 154, affording accommodation for 15,193 children, and in addition 13 school-houses were enlarged to the extent of accommodation for 1668 children. The cost of the instruction of each child in average attendance in 1878 was £3 15s. 11d. in day schools, £1 12s. 2½d. in night schools, and £3 13s. 11d. for the two combined; these figures are somewhat higher than those of the previous year. The teaching power was comprised in a total of 3906 persons as follows:—Head teachers, 1278 males, 182 females; assistants, 231 males, and 603 females; workmistresses, 543; pupil teachers, 315 males, 754 females. The number of school buildings belonging to the department on 31st July 1878 was 1241, with accommodation for 130,429 scholars, and 792 teachers' residences. Between 1st July 1877 and 30th June 1878, prosecutions were instituted in 2172 cases by truant officers against parents for neglecting to send their children to school, resulting in 1547 convictions and 625 dismissals. Penalties were inflicted varying in amount from 1s. to £1, accompanied in some instances with costs to the extent of 5s., amounting in all to £521 18s. 6d. The returns for 1879 have not yet been published by the Government. On 1st January 1879, the private schools of all kinds throughout the colony numbered 596, with 37,582 scholars, taught by 1700 teachers. This number includes the college and grammar schools,

which number 6, with 57 masters and 1099 students, and are as follows:—The Church of England Grammar School, Melbourne, having 10 masters or professors, and 226 pupils; the Geelong Grammar School, also connected with the Church of England, having 9 masters, and 147 pupils; the Scotch College, Melbourne, in connection with the Presbyterian Church, having 12 masters and 342 pupils; the Wesley College, Melbourne, connected with the Wesleyan body, with 11 masters and 216 pupils; St. Patrick's College, Melbourne, belonging to the Roman Catholic Church, having 7 masters and 147 pupils; and St. Francis Xavier's College, Kew, also connected with the Roman Catholic Church, having 8 masters and 93 pupils. In connection with the Melbourne Grammar School there are three exhibitions of £21, tenable for three years, awarded annually to boys under fourteen for education in the School; also two of equal value given annually for two years to students going to attend the University. In connection with the Scotch College there is an exhibition of £21, tenable for two years, annually open to competition for boys under fourteen years of age; the successful candidate is required to attend the classes of the College. In connection with the Wesley College there is a scholarship called the "Draper," established in memory of the Rev. D. J. Draper, who was lost in the steamship *London*. It is of the value of £25, and is tenable for one year. Two other scholarships have also been founded by Mrs. Powell called the "Walter Powell Scholarships." They are of the value of £40 each. In addition to the foregoing there are a Presbyterian College at Geelong, a High School at Sandhurst, a college at Ballarat, a college at Hamilton, and two ladies' colleges, the Presbyterian College at Melbourne, and the Alexandra College at Hamilton. The Melbourne University was incorporated by Act of Victorian Parliament (16 Vic., No. 34) in 1853, was begun in July 1854, and opened 3rd October 1855, and takes a high rank among kindred institutions. Its degrees and diplomas (by virtue of Royal Letters Patent issued in 1859) entitle the holder to the same rank, precedence, and consideration as those of any University in the United Kingdom. The subjects taught comprise Natural Science, Mathematics, Law, Anatomy, Classics, History and Political Economy, Logic and Natural Philosophy, Chemistry, Engineering, Medicine, Branches of Law and Mining, each department being under professors or competent masters. It is under the government and control of a Chancellor and Vice-Chancellor selected out of and assisted by a Council of twenty members, of whom sixteen at least must be laymen, and of a Senate presided over by a Warden. It is endowed to the extent of £9000 annually out of the general revenue. During the year 1878 it was attended by 258 students, of whom 252 were matriculated, and 6 were non-matriculated. 114 matriculated during the year, making a total of 1213 who passed this examination since the

establishment of the University. The graduates were 30, of whom 10 took the degree of B.A., 6 of M.A., 4 of M.B., 6 of LL.B., and 2 of LL.D. The expenditure of the year amounted to £15,293; the income to £18,136; of this £11,250 was the Government grant, £6694 was derived from College fees, and £192 from other sources. The Church of England has an affiliated college within its boundaries; the Presbyterian Church a similar college, called the "Ormond," after the principal contributor of the funds; and kindred institutes will be erected by other denominations. The memorial stone of a new building called the "Wilson" Hall was laid on 2nd October 1879. It will cost in its erection upwards of £40,000, nearly the whole of which has been given by Sir Samuel Wilson, M.L.C. These are the latest educational Statistics to be had at time of compiling. The object of these institutions is to afford residence, domestic superintendence and tutorial aid to students attending the University, and also to serve for theological seminaries for students who have matriculated at the University.

XVIII. CHARITABLE INSTITUTIONS.—There are in all seventy-three institutions for the relief of the sick, indigent, needy, orphans, refugees and unfortunates. These institutions have 1376 dormitories, wards, or rooms, and 9402 beds. They were maintained during 1879 by £298,322 from the State Funds, from private contributions and from other sources, £219,506. The expenditure was £296 068.

XIX. INDUSTRIAL AND REFORMATORY SCHOOLS.—There are in various parts of the colony eleven Industrial and Reformatory Schools, having forty-six wards and 1018 beds. During the year 1879 1605 persons passed through these institutions, the number of inmates on 1st January 1880, being 781—397 boys and 384 girls. The year's expenditure amounted to £22,997.

XX. MINING.—The colony is justly celebrated for the wealth, extent, and variety of its mineral resources. Copper ore is found at St. Arnaud, Specimen Gully, and on the River Thompson; in Gipps Land, where native copper is found associated with other ores of copper in the form of carbonates and pyrites; it also occurs in small quantities at Steiglitz, Castlemaine, the Blue Mountains, Bendigo, &c. During 1879, 3862 tons of copper ore were raised, and 4228 tons were smelted, from which 388 tons 15 cwt. of regulus were obtained, and there were exported 135 tons 19 cwt. of copper, and 225 tons 15 cwt. of regulus. At St. Arnaud and Bethanga are silver mines. During 1879 no ore was raised, but there were smelted at the Mint and elsewhere, from gold, 22,680 ozs. 15 dwts. Tin occurs in numerous places in the district of Beechworth, in the beds of tributaries of the Yarra, Thompson, and Latrobe; also at Taradale, Franklin (Gipps Land,) and Strathbogie. During 1879, 4 tons 11 cwt. were raised. The smallness of the quantity raised as compared with previous years is accounted for by

the closing of several of the principal mines, especially the El Dorado. Antimony, in the form of sulphuret and oxide, is found at Heathcote, Whroo, Anderson's Creek, Rutherglen, Maryborough, Costerfield, Ringwood, Merton near Mansfield, and Nunawadding near Melbourne. During 1879, 495 tons 15 cwt. of antimony ore were raised, and there were exported 153 tons of ore and 245 tons 17 cwt. of regulus. Zinc has been found in Daylesford, also in Gipps Land; lead at Talbot, Avoca; and in Gipps Land, none was raised during 1879; cobalt at Yea; bismuth at Omeo and Tarrengower; manganese at Pleasant Creek, Daylesford, and Gipps Land; coal at Cape Paterson, Western Port, Gipps Land, and Coleraine. No coal was raised during 1879. 1353 tons 12 cwt. of lignite were raised from the Victorian Brown Coal Company's mine at Lal Lal. Kaolin has been discovered at Bulla-Bulla, near Melbourne, and at Beechworth; bitumen near Portland; iron is found at Lal Lal; during 1879, 120 tons were raised, which yielded 52 tons of metal; gypsum has been found at Kerang and Bridgewater; during 1879 six tons were raised. Limestone is now being worked at Waratah Bay, and several shipments have already been sent to the Melbourne market. Molybdenite (sulphite of molybdenum) has been obtained at Bulgoback (Gipps Land.) There were engaged during 1879, 190 miners in mining for metals and minerals other than gold. Diamonds and sapphires have been found in the north-eastern parts of the colony, or what is known as the Ovens district, at or near El Dorado, the Woolshed and Pilot Creek near Beechworth. During 1879 10 mineral leases for mining for other purposes than gold were issued, the extent of ground taken up being 1899a. 1. 1p. There were also issued 13 licenses to search for metals or minerals other than gold, the extent of ground held being 8320 acres. The leases were for silver, antimony, coal, and copper; the licenses were for coal and shale. The number of leases in force at the end of the year was 56, the total extent of ground held being 7785a. 26p. There are 9 smelting works, employing 121 men, with 45 furnaces and 5 steam engines of 113 horse-power. Up to 31st December 1879 the quantities and values of the principal metals and minerals raised since the discovery of the goldfields were—gold, 48,719,930 ozs. 11 dwts., value £194,879,722; silver ore, 20,060 tons, producing 151,267 ozs. 10 dwts. 14 grs., valued at £37,819; tin ore, raised, smelted, and exported, in all, £345,541; copper ore, copper and regulus exported, £72,764; antimony ore raised and exported, value £156,390; lead, 600 tons of ore raised, producing metal of the value of £4892; iron, 840 tons, value £3666; coal, 8971 tons, valued at £13,505; lignite, 5846 tons, of the value of £2705; kaolin, 1832 tons, valued at £7444; slates, £940; flagging, 80,160 square yards and 18,439 tons, valued at £48,921; magnesite, 6½ tons, about £12; gypsum, 28 tons, valued at about £12; ores, mineral earths, &c., £4802; diamonds and sapphires, about

£108. The total amount being £195,580,066. But V. is chiefly remarkable for its gold, to which it owes its extraordinary rapid progression; it has been stated that one-third of the total area of the colony may safely be considered as occupied by gold-bearing rocks. The gold occurs in quartz and alluvium; the latter was of course the first worked, surface mining being comparatively easy; this was however quickly exhausted, and some of the sinkings are now carried on at considerable depths. In addition to the quartz veins and the alluvial deposits derived from these and the surrounding rocks, gold is also found in the clay stone itself; and contrary to expectation flat bands of auriferous quartz have been discovered in dykes of diorite, which intersect the upper Silurian or lower Devonian rocks. Quartz of quite extraordinary richness has been obtained from these bands. Numerous quartz veins are also found in all those parts of the colony where the schist rocks appear at the surface; and they are met with too cutting the older sedimentary rocks under the tertiaries. The strata in which they occur present generally a low degree of metamorphism, and in many places are unaltered. The veins vary in thickness from an eighth of an inch to 100 feet; and some, almost as thin as paper, intersect rocks containing palæozoic fossils, and in such a manner as almost to cut the fossils; but the delicate structure of the caste is not altered, nor are any of the interspaces filled with quartz. The older auriferous deposits are reached by the sinking of deep shafts. In consequence of the course of the *lead* not being apparent on the surface, it frequently happens that the shaft penetrates the bed rock at a considerable distance from the *gutter*. In such a case the shaft is sunk through the schist to a sufficient depth, and exploring drifts are carried as far as 1200 or 1500 feet before the auriferous gravel is touched. The quantity of auriferous drift overlying the palæozoic rocks at Ballarat is very considerable. It is found not only in the main leads, but also in the numerous tributaries of these, and in isolated patches. The washdirt varies in thickness from one to twelve feet, and the average yield of gold has been from 10 dwts. to 2½ ozs. per cubic yard. Quartz reefing is extensively followed, employing much machinery and a large amount of capital; and, owing to the improvements in obtaining gold from the quartz, a yield of a few dwts. to the ton is found remunerative. The average yield per ton of the quartz crushed in each of the seven mining districts into which the colony is divided was as follows during the year ending 31st December 1879:—Ballarat, 6 dwts. 18'44 grs.; Beechworth, 10 dwts. 11'04 grs.; Sandhurst, 9 dwts. 8'09 grs.; Maryborough, 11 dwts. 22'67 grs.; Castlemaine, 5 dwts. 18'45 grs.; Ararat, 11 dwts. 17'73 grs.; and Gipps Land, 1 oz. 2 dwts. 18'66 grs. In all the districts, with the exception of Gipps Land, there is a falling off in the average yield per ton. The average of all the districts was 8 dwts. 18'77 grs. The average yield to 31st December 1879, of all

the crushings since records have been published have been 11 dwts. 1'08 grs. per ton. Some of the quartz mines are now worked to a depth exceeding 2000 feet, and, so far as can be observed, there is no diminution in the yield of gold in the higher levels. From the deeper levels (850 to 1200 feet) in the Stawell mines, 1 oz. 2 dwts. 12 grs. to 6 oz. 17 dwts. 10 grs. of gold have been yielded to the ton of quartz; and at Sandhurst they show returns varying from 11 dwts. to 1 oz. 16 dwts. 1 gr. per ton; at the Ballarat mines, from 200 to 1105 feet, the yield has been from 7 dwts. to 1 oz. 2 grs. of gold. From September to 20th December 1851 it was estimated that the total yield of the gold-fields then known was 243,414 oz.; in the following year 2,218,782 ozs., valued at £8,875,128, were raised; in 1856 the yield was 2,985,991 ozs., of the value of £11,943,964; in 1872 the yield was 1,331,337 ozs., in 1873, 1,170,397½ ozs., in 1874, 1,097,643 ozs., in 1875, 1,095,787 ozs., in 1876, 963,760 ozs., in 1877, 809,653 ozs.; in 1878, 758,040 ozs., 15 dwts. 19 grs., in 1879, 772,302 ozs. 15 dwts. 20 grs. The diminished yield of gold is mainly due to the gradual exhaustion of the alluvial deposits in the drifts of the first-discovered gold-fields. The alluvial gold obtained in 1879 was nearly less than one-fourth the quantity obtained in 1868. In the official report it is stated that "for the first time for many years the estimated yield of gold for the year (1879) from the Victorian mines bears a favourable comparison with, and is slightly in excess of, the yield for the preceding year. The gradual development of the newly-discovered auriferous lodes at Ballarat, and the improved yields from lode-mines at Maldon and other places, together with the assistance rendered to prospecting by the Government diamond drills, will it is hoped have a beneficial effect upon mining enterprise and lead to a further increase in the returns of gold for the current year." Gold mining is of two kinds—quartz mining and alluvial digging. The latter has already been alluded to. In working a quartz vein a shaft is sunk, either on the crown of the hill where the vein is found, or the reef is penetrated by an adit or tunnel. The quartz brought to the surface is broken into pieces, and passed through inclined spouts to the stampers, which resemble the ordinary stamps used in other countries for dressing ores. They weigh from two to nine hundredweight each, and one stamp strikes from fifty to eighty blows per minute, the fall of the stamp head being six to fifteen inches. A ten-horse power engine will give motion to eight stamps. The crushed quartz is carried by water over copper ripples, where the gold is brought in contact with mercury. Once a-week, or oftener, the ripples are cleaned out, and the amalgam retorted. The average yield of the crushed quartz has already been given. From the wash-dirt, which generally consists of quartz, gravel, sand, and clay, the gold is separated by puddling and washing, and from these, for the year ending 31st December 1879 the average was 1 dwt. 16'84 grs.

The yield from quartz-tailings and mullock was 1 dwt. 14·96 grs.; from pyrites and blanketings 2 ozs. 9 dwts. 1·75 grs.; and from cement 3 dwts. 14·09 grs. Nuggets of gold of great size and value have been found at various times in the colony. During 1853 several large masses of gold varying from 11 lbs. 11 ozs. 15 dwts. to 134 lbs. 11 ozs. were brought to light at or in the neighbourhood of Canadian Gully. The "Lady Hotham," found in 1854 weighed 98 ozs. 1 dwt. 17 grs. In 1855 two large nuggets, weighing respectively 40 lbs. and 47 lbs., were found at Bakery Hill; and in 1858 the "Welcome" nugget, weighing 184 lbs. 9 ozs. 16 dwts., was unearthed at the same place. On 5th February 1869, a nugget named the "Welcome Stranger," weighing 2280 ozs., was found at Moliagul, about an inch from the surface. In March of the same year a nugget was found at Berlin weighing 893 ozs.; and in the months of May and October following, two others were found in the same locality, quite near the surface. They were named the "Viscount Canterbury" and the "Viscountess Canterbury," and weighed respectively 1105 ozs. and 884 ozs. During the year 1870 several large nuggets were found, the principal of which were—one on 31st May at Berlin weighing 1121 ozs., another at the same place on 3rd October, weighing 896 ozs., and a third on 11th November, at Macintyre's diggings, and only a few inches from the surface, weighing 452 ozs. During the year 1871 also, large nuggets were found at Berlin. Amongst the largest were the "Precious," found on 5th January, weight 1621 ozs.; the "Kum Tow," 17th April, 718 ozs.; and the "Needful," 10th May, 247 ozs. These three nuggets were discovered at a depth of about twelve feet from the surface. A large number of nuggets have been found on other gold-fields, varying in weight from 20 ozs. to 200 ozs. In the year 1872 the undermentioned large nuggets were discovered:—On 2nd April, the "Crescent" was found at Berlin, at a depth of two feet; it weighed 14 lbs. 11 ozs. On 8th May a nugget weighing 477 ozs. was got in the same locality, at a depth of nine feet. At Dunolly the "Schlenrm" nugget was found, weighing 478 ozs., at a depth of three feet from the surface. The "Spondulix" nugget was found in a quartz reef at the same place, at a depth of eight feet from the surface; it weighed 130 ozs. Numerous other nuggets have been found, varying in weight from 20 ozs. upwards, but none of them call for special notice. The mining returns for the year ending 31st December 1879 are as follows:—22,769 alluvial miners, 14,784 quartz miners, a total of 37,553, of whom 9110 were Chinese. The average yield of gold per man was £76 1s. 2·32d.; these figures show an increase in the number of miners of 917, and a decrease of £6 11s. 9d. per man of gold raised. There were 1234 square miles of auriferous, alluvial, and quartz ground worked upon; the number of distinct reefs proved to be auriferous being 3592. The mining plant used on the various fields of the

colony was valued at £1,899,788. The machinery used in alluvial mining comprised 228 steam engines of 6134 horse-power, used in winding and pumping, 174 steam puddling machines, 2 buddles, 784 horse puddling machines, 178 whims, 219 whips or pulleys, 18,162 sluices, toms, and sluice-boxes, 32 hydraulic hoses, 494 pumps, 220 water-wheels, 158 quicksilver and compound cradles, 413 stamp heads (crushing cement,) and 11 boring machines. The quartz mining machinery was returned at 796 steam engines of 16,375 horse-power, 67 crushing machines operated by other than steam power, 6333 head of stamps, 52 buddles, 8 water-power winding and pumping machines, 517 whims, 427 whips or pulleys, and 12 boring machines. Comparing the totals of machinery employed on the goldfields in 1879 with the totals for 1878, the machinery used in alluvial mining shows a decrease of 12 steam engines, 257 horse-power, 47 horse puddling machines, 9 whims, 7 quicksilver and compound cradles, 25 stamp heads, and 3 boring machines, an increase of 3 steam puddling machines, 10 whips or pulleys, 3556 sluices, &c., 9 hydraulic hoses, 43 pumps, and 16 water-wheels. In quartz mining there is a decrease of 15 horse-power, 10 whims, 4 crushing machines, 5 buddles, and 37 whips or pulleys. There is an increase of 91 stamp heads crushing quartz, and 4 boring machines. There is a decrease in the total value of all mining plant on the gold-fields of £3706. Of 849,324 tons 16 cwt. of quartz crushed, the total produce was 374,926 ozs. 22 grs., the average yield per ton being 8 dwts. 12·17 grs. The richest quartz was from the Gippsland district, crushing 1 oz. 2 dwts. 18·66 grs. to the ton; the poorest was from the Castlemaine district, the yield being only 5 dwts. 18·45 grs. to the ton. The estimated yield of gold from the alluvial mines was 293,310 ozs., from the quartz, 465,637 ozs., a total of 758,947 ozs., an increase on the previous year of 907 ozs. The value of gold per ounce varied from £2 10s. in the Beechworth district to £4 3s. in the Ballarat district. The prices charged per ton for crushing quartz and cement ranged from 2s. 6d., the lowest, in the Castlemaine district, to £1 in the Beechworth district. During the year 1879, 314 gold mining leases were issued for an area of 5826 acres 2r. 8p. of land, the number in force at the end of the year being 1226, and extent of ground leased 18,315 acres 3r. 2½p. Since the commencement of gold mining, there have been issued in all leases 10,962, for an area of 199,528 acres 2r. 23 17-20p. The total area of land held as claims under the District Bye-Laws is 36,493 acres 2r. 20p. The estimated value of claims and leased lands was returned at £468,928. The length of water-races was 1936 miles 13 chains, the approximate cost being £242,196. There were registered during the year 167 companies, having 2,277,276 shares, and nominal capital of £1,286,674. The total amount of gold raised from the first discovery to 31st December 1879, was 48,719,930 ozs. 11 dwts., valued at £194,870,722. The total quantity of quartz

crushed to 31st December 1879 is stated at 16,092,530 tons 19 cwt., yielding 8,791,155 ozs. 5 dwts. 4 grains of gold, being an average of 10 dwts. 22·21 grs. per ton. There were nineteen shafts in the colony at the end of the year sunk to a depth of over 1000 feet, and one down 2032 feet. These shafts were:—At Stawell, 3 shafts respectively, Magdala, 2273 ft.; Newington, 1940 ft.; Prince Patrick, 1544 ft.; South Scotchman's, 1262 ft.; Crown Cross United, 1222 ft.; Pleasant Creek Cross, 1220 ft.; Oriental, 1200 ft.; Prince Alfred, 1280 ft.; Extended Cross Reef, 1117 ft. At Clunes.—New North Clunes, 1114 ft.; Port Philip, 1100 ft. At Sandhurst.—Victoria Reef, 1315 ft.; Great Extended Hustler's Tribute, 1350 ft.; Great Extended Hustler's, 1226 ft.; Lansell's No. 108, 1476 ft.; Hercules and Energetic, 1218 ft.; North Old Chum, 1190 ft.; Carlisle, 1191 ft. The estimated yield of gold for the quarter ending 31st March 1880 was 179,949 ozs. 12 dwts., from the alluvial, 66,174 ozs. 1 dwt. from the quartz, a total of 113,755 ozs. 11 dwts., an increase of 9399 ozs. on the returns of the corresponding quarter of 1879. The average yield of gold per ton of quartz was 9 dwts. 10·017 grs. For the following quarter ending 30th June, 1880, the yield of gold was, alluvial 74,959 ozs. 9 dwts., quartz 123,572 ozs. 18 dwts., a total of 198,528 ozs. 7 dwts. The average yield of gold to the ton of quartz was 9 dwts. 0·35 grs.

XXI. POSTAL.—In 1879 there were 1069 post-offices, employing 1210 officers of all grades. There were received and despatched:—23,215,648 letters, an increase on the previous year's returns of 890,717; 3,091,364 book-packets, a decrease of 118,932; 10,075,407 newspapers, a decrease of 621,924. There were 273 money-order offices. During the year 1879 there were issued 138,517 money-orders, of the value of £398,018 13s. 4d., and there were paid 150,525, of the value of £451,723 1s. 10d., the total transactions being 289,042 orders of the value of £851,741 15s. 2d. issued and paid; commission £5718 5s. 2d. The income of the Postal Department, including money-orders commission, for 1879 was £197,675; with telegraph collections, £56,704; the total was £254,379. The expenditure was £351,844. Altogether the deficit amounted to £97,474 6s. 2d., being £4754 15s. 3d. more than the previous year. During the year 1879, 65 additional post-offices and 25 additional telegraph offices (including those on the railway circuit) were opened, and 229 miles of new telegraph lines were erected; 20 new money-order offices and 13 new savings banks were opened. A resolution was adopted by the Legislative Assembly to reduce inland letter postage to one penny from 1st January 1880, but owing to the serious falling off this would cause in the returns, it was expected the resolution would not be acted upon. In connection with the Postal Department, it is proposed to establish a system of Government Life Insurance and Annuities, similar to that in vogue in the United Kingdom.

XXII. RAILWAYS.—All the railways in V. belong to the State. On 30th June 1878 the Government completed the purchase of the Hobson's Bay Railway. The purchase-money was £1,320,820, being at the rate of £80 for each paid-up share of £50. This line is now connected with the Gipps Land Railway by a branch from South Yarra. The railways—comprised under the name of the Northern, the North-Eastern, the Eastern and the Western Systems are as follows:—(1.) A line from Melbourne to Echuca (a double line as far as Sandhurst,) a distance of 156 miles. (2.) A line from Melbourne to Geelong 45 miles, and thence to Ballarat 55 miles, making 100 miles in all. (3.) A line from Geelong to Colac 50 miles. (4.) A line from Ballarat to Stawell 75 miles. This line is extended to Horsham. (5.) A line from Ararat to Portland 119 miles. (6.) A line from Ballarat to Maryborough 42 miles. (7.) A line from Wangaratta to Beechworth 26 miles. (8.) The North-eastern line from Melbourne to Wodonga 187 miles. This line connects with the N.S.W. line and thus places Sydney and Melbourne in railway communication. (9.) A line from Melbourne to Sale 125 miles; there are besides minor branches from these lines and the suburban lines around Melbourne. On 31st December 1879 there were 1108 miles of line open and 74 miles in progress, making in all 1182 miles. To the end of 1879 the railways had cost in construction and maintenance a total of £17,739,016.

XXIII. SHIPPING.—At the end of 1879 there were entered inwards 2084 vessels of 951,750 tons. The outward clearance were 2083 ships of 977,135 tons.

XXIV. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—The Imports for the year 1878 were £16,161,880, a decrease on the previous year of £200,424; the Exports amounted to £14,925,707, a decrease of £231,980. The Imports for 1879 £15,035,538; the Exports were £12,454,170; the excess of Imports over Exports was £2,581,368; and the total value of external trade was £27,489,708. The value of Imports in 1879 was less than in 1878 by £1,126,342. The value of Exports in 1879 was less than the value in 1878 by £2,471,537. The leading Imports and their value were cotton, woollen, silk and linen piece goods £1,525,297, manufactures of the same £163,663; boots and shoes £179,830; metals including wire £110,712; manufactures of metals including machinery £211,136; glassware, earthenware and porcelain £200,118; paper, books, stationery and printing materials £414,256; building materials £246,833; wool £2,494,573; gold and silver coin and bullion £1,300,986; spirits, wine and beer £671,388; tobacco, cigars and snuff £177,682; sugar £1,076,495; tea £513,271; oilmen's stores £15,649; breadstuffs £20,773; grain and pulse £563,517; live stock £891,249; bags, sacks and cordage £188,702; sewing machines £67,962; acids, chemicals, drugs £186,889; paints, glass and paper-hangings £179,014; fancy goods £33,609;

jewellery, clocks and watches, plate, &c., £58,748 ; tallow £19,072. The leading Exports were gold coin and bullion £2,628,062 ; leather £243,766 ; preserved meat £85,371 ; tallow £150,867 ; wool, 95,628,281 lbs., valued at £5,269,634 ; Victorian lithofractor £4,808 ; dynamite £10,208 ; fuse £1669 ; powder £3826 ; bark £15,000 ; Victorian cheese £33,297 ; Victorian cordage £15,711 ; copper £29,158 ; Victorian-made wines £7837 ; Victorian-made biscuits £26,779 ; agricultural implements £13,126 ; boots and shoes £128,217 ; butter £26,417 ; confectionery £14,549 ; flour £107,947 ; agricultural machinery £9838 ; machinery undescribed £55,828. The bulk of the foregoing articles were either made or produced in the colony. The total value of the products of the colony, comprising gold, wool, tallow, hides, breadstuffs, minerals, bark and timber, manufactures, &c., exported in 1879 was £8,069,857.

XXV. REVENUE.—The revenue for year ending 30th June 1880, was £4,621,519 14s. 3d. ; including sums recouped, amounting to £69,206 19s. 11d., and the balance forward from the previous year of £77,000. This sum was insufficient to meet the deficiency on the year's transactions, viz., £212,000 and became necessary to carry forward to the ensuing year a debit balance of £134,907 4s. 8d. ; the grand total was £4,767,720 14s. 2d. The expenditure was £4,833,378 13s. 3d., leaving a deficit balance.

XXVI. PUBLIC DEBT.—On 30th June 1879, the public debt of the colony was £20,048,222, contracted as follows :—Water supply to Melbourne and suburbs, £554,571 ; Railways, £16,008,708 ; Provincial Water Supply, Graving Dock, and other public works, £2,664,943 ; School Buildings, £720,000 ; Defences, £100,000. The yearly interest on the debt is £1,104,314 5s. 6d., at four, five, and nearly two-thirds of it at six per cent. The payment of both principal and interest of this debt are made primary charges on the revenue of the colony. The debt has since been further increased by the Railway Loan of £5,000,000, £3,000,000 of which was subscribed at £98 18s. 6d. in 1879, and the remainder eighteen months later, towards the close of last year, at an average of £104 13s. 8½d.

XXVII. PUBLIC WORKS.—On Public Works (exclusive of Railways and Water Supply) there have been expended up to 1879, £8,521,484, and on Roads and Bridges £6,906,039.

XXVIII. PUBLIC LIBRARIES.—The Public Library in Melbourne is the finest institution of this kind in Australia. It possessed at the close of 1879, 86,995 printed books, 21,213 pamphlets or parts, making a total of 108,208. It was visited during the year 1879 by 266,839 readers ; and in 1878 by 256,400. The total cost of the building and annexes to the end of 1879 was £185,789 16s. 9d., and up to the present time £281,606 17s. 10d. have been expended upon it. The National Gallery under the same roof was patronised during the year 1879 by 45,000 visitors, contains 89 oil

paintings, cost £17,000 ; 26 works in marble, cost £5600 ; 166 statues and works of art, cost £2000, making a total of £24,600, and 5943 drawings, photographs and prints. The Supreme Court Library, free to members of the legal profession, contains 13,725 volumes, and the expenditure from commencement has amounted to £15,427. All the leading towns have either a public library or a mechanics' institute. On 1st January 1879, these numbered 181. The total number of volumes in the various libraries, exclusive of those in the Public Library in Melbourne, was 245,068 ; to several of these local libraries books are periodically lent from the Public Library. The number during 1878 was 6974 volumes.

XXIX. SCHOOLS OF ART AND DESIGN.—In 1877 there were 22 Schools of Design, taught by 45 teachers, the total number of attendants being 1547. In the majority of these the instruction is given at night. The subjects comprise practical geometry, mechanical and architectural drawing, isometrical, perspective and free-hand drawing, both from models and from nature. Each school receives 2s. 6d. from the State for every pupil who attends eight times in one quarter. Fees varying from 2s. to 10s. per quarter are paid by the pupils ; the number of pupils on the roll 31st December 1879 was 1801 ; an exhibition of the work of pupils is held yearly in Melbourne, and local exhibitions are held in the other towns. There are also schools of mines at Ballarat and Sandhurst, where among other things the students are inducted into the mysteries of mining and the treatment of ores.

XXX. MANUFACTURES.—Very many things are now manufactured in the colony that were formerly exclusively imported, and these industries have been materially aided by the heavy protective tariff now in force. Among the articles and preparations may be instanced account books, diaries, and other manufactured stationery, dyes, glass, cloth, paper, cigars, starch, pianos, oilmen's stores, safes, brnshware, soap, agricultural implements, &c. ; in all the number of manufactories, large and small, according to the returns made up to 31st March 1880, exclusive of flour-mills, breweries, woollen mills, brickyards, potteries, tanneries, fellmongeries, and wool-washing establishments, is 1709, employing in the aggregate 29,194 hands and 709 engines, principally steam, of 8778 h.p. ; the machinery and plant being of the value of £2,156,759, the land £1,068,634, and the buildings £1,945,472—a total of £5,170,865. Among the industries may be enumerated the following manufactories, foundries, &c. :—7 account books, 56 printing establishments, 1 organ building, 6 pianoforte, 47 agricultural implement, 6 cutlery, 56 engine machine, 127 coach and waggon, 48 saddle and harness, 11 ship and boat, 4 graving and floating docks, 21 cooperage, 10 basket, 9 blind, 11 maltheuses, 1 sugar refinery, 2 whip, 1 patent slip, 16 bedding, 35 cabinet making, 17 chemical, dye, and essential oil works, 3 powder

dynamite, 1 fuse, 9 ink and blacking, 168 clothing and boot and shoe, 11 distilleries, 1 jute, 14 rope and twine, 13 meat curing, 16 biscuit, 8 confectionery, 24 cheese, 6 jam, 4 maziene, starch, &c., 100 aerated waters, 10 coffee and spice, 5 sauce and pickle, 15 tobacco and snuff, 9 brush, 1 curled hair, 3 flock, 7 glue, 7 fancy leather, 34 soap, candle, and tallow, 5 tar distilling, asphalte, 2 fancy box, 129 moulding, framing, and saw, 2 paper, 6 paper bag, 19 gas, 11 glass, 5 stone sawing and polishing, 2 ice, 1 antimony smelting, 1 bell, 10 electro-plate, 70 iron, brass, and copper, 81 iron and tin works and 11 wire working. Above returns only refer to manufactories of an extensive character, similar manufactories limited in operation not included. There are 122 tanneries, 39 engines steam of 467 h.p., number of hands employed 1777; total value of machinery, land and building £245,631. There are 2828 pits having tanned during the year ending 31st March 1880 1,875,610 hides and skins, the leather produced being valued at £737,354; wool washed 15,373,178 lbs. Flour-mills 139 with 134 engines 2571 h.p., number of hands employed 770; total value of machinery lands and buildings £439,596. Breweries 89, number of hands employed 885; 66 engines steam 459 h. p., brewing 13,769,990 gallons; value of machinery lands and buildings £464,375. Woollen mills ten, with ten engines steam, 596 h. p., number of hands employed 714, value of machinery, lands, and buildings £218,322. The cloth, tweed and flannel produced during the year ending 31st March, 1880, was 1,105,116 yards and 1838 blankets and sixty-two shawls, from 1,944,406 lbs of wool; total value of which is £173,239. Brickyards and petheries 170, with fourteen steam engines, 265 h. p., number of hands employed 807; total value of machinery, lands, and buildings £172,929. Meat preserving will shortly be conducted on an extensive scale, as companies for carrying out the frozen meat process have recently been formed, and this industry is expected to be of great importance to the colony. During the year 1879, 158 patents were applied for, and 158 articles, of which seventy-three are described under the head of "Literary, Dramatic, and Musical productions," were copyrighted. Since December 1869 a Copyright Act for the protection of inventors' interests has been in force. It applies to literary productions and works of art as well. Up to 31st December, 1879, there had been registered 2507 copyrights, of which 235 were for designs and manufactures in metal and other materials, 857 were for books and other literary compositions, including music, and 1415 were for photographs, paintings, drawings, and engravings. By the returns for the year ending 31st March, 1880, the mills for grinding and dressing grain number 139, of which 134 are driven by steam and 5 by water; estimated value of machinery and plant and land, £439,596. Three manufactories for the utilising and making of the skins of the various indigenous birds and

animals of the colony have for three years been established, and their operations have been attended with considerable success; also a silk company, which has for its object the cultivation of silk and grain.

XXXI. MINT.—A branch of the Royal Mint was opened in 1872; it is provided with the best machinery, combining all the latest improvements, and its operations are extending, now that a more reasonable charge is made for coining. Up to 30th June 1880, 3,768,147.70 ozs. of gold, valued at £15,039,076 12s. 3d., had been received and minted and issued as coin to the value of £1,496,300, and bullion £90,901 5s. 9d. During the year 1879 there were minted 656,555.84 ozs., and 1,740,276 ozs. bullion issued value £6829 12s. 11d. in coin, £2,740,000; total value of £2,746,829 12s. 11d. The average annual expenditure for the last five years, 1875-9, has been £13,332 16s. 2d., and the average annual receipts from the Mint during the same period have been £8445 2s. 10d.

XXXII. BANKING.—On 30th June 1880, there were 11 principal banks of issue in Victoria, having about 282 branches or agencies. Their total assets on that date were 24,854,318 14s. 3d., the liabilities being £17,750,896. The notes in circulation amount to 1,127,393, the paid-up capital was £9,122,250. The average rate of dividend was about $10\frac{1}{2}$ per cent., the highest being the N.S.W Bank, $17\frac{1}{2}$ per cent.; the lowest the Oriental, 4 per cent. The aggregate amount of dividends last declared was £482,800, the amount of reserved profits at the time of declaring such dividend being £2,686,909.

XXXIII. SAVINGS BANKS.—There are 12 ordinary Savings Banks, having on 1st July 1880, 38,281 depositors with £905,362 2s. 2d. to credit. The invested funds amount to £922,700. In 1879 there were 185 Post-office Savings Banks open. The deposits received were £452,984 1s. 4d., and the interest credited to depositors was £22,858 0s. 8d. The balance on the 1st January 1880, was £650,100 11s. 7d. The average balance to each of the depositors, who numbered in all 49,233, was £13 4s. 1d. Interest at the rate of 4 per cent. is allowed on deposit. Penny Savings Banks in connection with the State-schools of the colony have been introduced.

XXXIV. LIGHTHOUSES.—The principal lights on the Victorian coast are:—At Portland on Battery Hill, a fixed red and white dioptric; at Port Fairy a fixed and flashing dioptric light of the fourth order, coloured red and flashing every three minutes; at Warrnambool a fixed white light and a fixed red light; at King's Island, on Cape Wickham, a fixed white light; at King's Island, Currie Harbour, a light revolving every twelve seconds, viz., five flashes and ellipses alternately in a minute; at Cape Otway a revolving white light flashing every minute; at Port Phillip Heads a fixed red and green light on Point Lonsdale; at Queenscliff a fixed white light on the High lighthouse, and a fixed red and white

light on the Lower lighthouse, and on the Queens-cliff jetty a fixed green light; and on Swan Spit a fixed red and white light; also several leading lights for navigating Port Phillip Bay; at Cape Schank a fixed and flashing white light showing a bright flash every two minutes; at Wilson's Promontory a fixed white catoptric light; at Port Albert on Latrobe island a revolving dioptric light, altered in May 1880 from white to red; on Gabo Island a fixed white light.

XXXV. FRIENDLY SOCIETIES.—On 1st January 1879 there were 34 societies, having in various parts of the colony 756 branches, with an average of 45,661 members; the total income, including contributions and entrance fees, for the year 1878 was £161,880; the disbursements to members, with the cost of management and other expenses, brought up the total expenditure to £140,050. The aggregate amount to the credit of these societies at the end of 1878 was £372,384; the amount invested was £348,429. There were 62 building societies in the colony on the permanent, terminating and Star-Bowkett principles, having 21,404 members, with an income of £1,097,475; their assets were £2,970,101; their liabilities £2,594,786; and the moneys on deposit were £703,463. The average rate of interest allowed to depositors varied from 5½ per cent. to 8 per cent.; the total amount of advances to members during the previous year was £703,932.

XXXVI. CONSTITUTION.—Victoria is under the control of a Governor appointed by the British Government, whose term of office is seven years, and of an Executive Council, and two Houses of Legislature. The Executive consists of the Governor of the colony, and the Ministry for the time being. The Legislative Council at present consists of forty-two members, representing the fourteen provinces into which the colony is divided, which contain 110,000 electors. The qualification for a vote is a leasehold of £10 and £25 a year, or freehold property of equivalent value. The candidate's qualification is freehold, or property of the annual value of £100; the tenure of office is six years, one of the Members of Council from each province retiring in rotation at the expiration of every two years. The Legislative Assembly consists of eighty-six members, representing fifty-five electoral districts, containing according to the latest return 176,022 electors, and it is triennial in its duration. A member's qualifications are:—He must be of full age, have lived in the colony two years, and be either a British subject or a naturalised one. By an Act passed in December 1870, which was to remain in force for three years only, Members of Parliament are paid £300 per annum for "reimbursing their expenses." This arrangement is still in force, a continuing Act having been passed during the Session of 1880 (on 8th June.) The qualifications of a voter are so small that the system may be considered one of universal suffrage. The would-be voter must be a male person of twenty-one

years of age (not subject to any legal incapacity,) a naturalised or denizen subject of the Queen, and have resided in Victoria twelve months previous to the first day of January or July in any year, or have been naturalised at least three years. All voting is done by ballot.

XXXVII.—HISTORY:—As the history of V. includes also the history of the Port Phillip Province of N.S.W., which has already been narrated under the proper heading, all that will be given here relating to that earlier period, for the sake of preserving continuity and completeness, will be a reprint slightly condensed of Gurner's excellent and accurate "Chronicle of Port Phillip."

1770.

In this year the first discovery of Port Phillip was made by Cook in the *Endeavour*, 370 tons. On 19th April he came upon the eastern coast at a point afterwards within Port Phillip south of Cape Howe, which he named Point Hicks in honour of one of his lieutenants of that name who first saw the land. This name is seldom to be found on any modern chart.

1798.

4th June.—Bass when on an exploring expedition in a whaleboat, along the coast to the south of Sydney, entered Western Port, which he named. Governor Hunter named Wilson's Promontory.

October.—Bass in company with Flinders in the *Norfolk* discovered the straits between New Holland and V.D.L., which Governor Hunter named Bass Straits.

1800.

December.—Grant in the *Lady Nelson* passed through Bass Straits on a voyage from England to Sydney, when he named Mount Gambier, Cape Banks, Cape Northumberland, Cape Bridgewater, Cape Nelson, The Lawrence Islands, Portland Bay, Lady Julia Percy's Island, Cape Otway, Cape Patton, Governor King's Bay (the curve in the land at the entrance of Port Phillip;) Cape Liptrap, The Rodondo Rock, The Glennie Islands, The Hole in the Wall, Sir Roger Curtis Island, Moncur Island, and the Devil's Tower.

1801.

21st March.—Grant returned to Bass Straits and made a survey of the coast from Wilson's Promontory to and including Western Port; and returned to Sydney having named Cape Paterson and Cape Schank.

1802.

18th February.—Murray was sent by Governor King in the *Lady Nelson* to examine the bay now called Port Phillip Bay. He entered and named it Port King, in honour of Governor King, at whose request it was afterwards changed to Port Phillip, in honour of Governor Phillip. Lieutenant Murray also named Arthur's Seat and Point Nepean.

27th April.—Flinders in H.M.S. *Investigator* on a voyage from England to Sydney entered Port Phillip Bay. He named Indented Head; landed and ascended Station Peak and named it.

1803.

Early in this year Grimes, Surveyor-General of N.S.W., was sent by Governor King, in company with Lieutenant Robbins, R.N., and James Meehan, surveyor, to walk round and survey Port Phillip Bay. They reported having seen several streams falling into the Bay, the finest of which was a river at the northern end of the bay. Flinders states that it was from Grimes' plan that he completed his chart of Port Phillip.

9th October.—H.M.S. *Calcutta*, fifty guns, Captain Woodruff, and The *Ocean*, transport, 500 tons, Captain Matthews, arrived in Port Phillip Bay. The *Calcutta* had on board Lieutenant-Governor Collins, and the vessels contained free settlers and convicts, for the purpose of forming a settlement. John Pascoe Fawkner, then a boy, was with his parents on board one of these vessels. The party landed on the shore between Arthur's Seat and Point Nepean. The exact locality is a spot between the two points named the Sisters near Sorrento. Tuckey, first lieutenant of the *Calcutta*, published an account of this attempt to form a settlement, in which he says:—"Though the vicinity of the harbour's mouth afforded no situation calculated for the establishment of the colony, it was naturally expected from the extent of the port that convenient spots might be found; and the first lieutenant of the *Calcutta*, with two boats, was directed to ascertain this material point by as careful a survey of the port as time would permit." From the reports of this survey Lieutenant Tuckey in his book gives the following:—"On the eastern side of the port, twenty-eight miles from the entrance, a stream of fresh water empties itself into the port. The stream runs through an extensive swamp, and appears to be a branch from a large river at the northern extremity of the port, which the shortness of time and badness of the weather prevented our examining."

16th November.—The *Ocean*, transport, left Port Phillip Bay for Port Jackson.

27th November.—A marriage was solemnised at Sullivan's Bay Camp, Port Phillip, by the Rev. Robert Knopwood, between Richard Garrett and Hannah Harvey.

12th December.—The *Ocean*, transport, returned to Port Phillip Bay from Port Jackson.

14th December.—The *Francis*, schooner, arrived from Port Jackson. She was sent by Governor King to assist at the removal of Lieutenant-Governor Collins' party to V.D.L.

18th December.—H.M.S. *Calcutta* sailed for Sydney.

27th December.—Four of the convicts (William Buckley, David Marmon, — Pye, and David Gibson) escaped from the settlement. One of them (David Gibson) returned to the camp on the 24th January in a very exhausted state, and reported having seen the river now called the Yarra Yarra.

1804.

12th January.—The schooner *Edwin* arrived

from Port Jackson in Port Phillip Bay. She sailed for King's Island on the 17th inst.

20th January.—The *Ann* arrived from Port Jackson in Port Phillip Bay. She brought despatches from Governor King to Lieutenant-Governor Collins.

22nd January.—The *Lady Nelson*, from Port Jackson, and *Edwin*, from King's Island, arrived in Port Phillip Bay.

24th January.—In consequence of the reports of Tuckey's exploration being unfavourable, the settlement was abandoned. Collins, with all the settlers and convicts, sailed for V.D.L., to a spot on the left bank of the Derwent, called Restdown, or Risdon Cove, where in July 1803 a small party consisting of Lieutenant Bowen, a surgeon, three soldiers and sixteen prisoners, had been sent from Sydney to form a settlement.

1824.

October.—Hume and Hovell succeeded in travelling overland from Sydney to the shores of Port Phillip Bay; they crossed and named the Hume River (now the Murray) at Albury; saw and named Mount Disappointment; crossed and named the Ovens and the Hovell (now the Goulburn;) and reached Port Phillip Bay at a spot ten or twelve miles to the eastward of Geelong, called the Bird Rock Point. They saw and named Mount Wentworth (now Mount Macedon.) When they reached Port Phillip Bay, Hovell insisted that it was Western Port, Hume maintained it was Port Phillip, from the fact that there were no islands in it, a circumstance of which he had been informed by James Meehan, the surveyor who accompanied Charles Grimes in 1803, when he made the survey of the bay.

1826.

In this year, in consequence of reports that the French had resolved to found settlements on some parts of the Australian coast, and that King George's Sound and Western Port, or some other harbour in Bass Straits, were the places fixed upon by them for that purpose, instructions were sent from England to Governor Darling to lose no time in taking possession of those places. An expedition was accordingly sent from Sydney with that object, consisting of H.M.S. *Fly*, Captain Wetherall, and the brigs *Dragon* and *Amity*, with detachments from the 3rd Regiment (Buffs) and the 39th Regiment under Colonel Stewart. Captain S. Wright and Lieutent Burchell were to remain at Western Port, the former as commandant of the settlement. Hovell accompanied this expedition, for the purpose of carrying out further explorations. He made an extensive examination of the country in the immediate vicinity, and passed between Bass and Wright's Rivers, where he found excellent land, and then tried to cross the immense swamp at the north of the Port, but found it quite impassable; he however kept on his journey until he arrived at that part of Port Phillip which he, in company with Hume, had previously explored, when he was obliged to turn

back. The authorities at Sydney seem to have been inclined to endorse Hovell's opinion, that the place he and Hume had visited two years before, was Western Port. When Hovell got to Western Port he was convinced of the mistake he had made. This expedition reached Western Port, and the officers and soldiers intended for that place disembarked on its eastern side, and erected a small fortification at the eastern end of Phillip Island, which lies across the entrance. They found a French expedition had been there before them but that no steps had been taken to form a settlement. Some short time afterwards, the alarm about French occupation having subsided, and it having been found that the shores of the harbour were scrubby and far inferior to the land seen by Hume and Hovell some twelve months previously, the settlement was abandoned.

1827.

11th January.—Joseph Tice Gellibrand and John Batman, understanding as they stated, "that it was the intention of Sir Richard Bourke, Governor of New South Wales, to establish a permanent settlement at Western Port," made application by letter to that officer "soliciting a grant of land at that place proportionable to the property which they intended to embark," and stating that "they proposed to ship from Launceston 1500 to 2000 sheep and 30 head of superior cows, horses, oxen, &c."

17th March.—Sir Richard Bourke replied to Messrs. Gellibrand and Batman's letter, informing them "that no determination had been come to with respect to the settlement of Western Port, and that it was not in his power to comply with their request."

In this year the cutter *Fairy*, Wishart master, on a sealing voyage from Sydney to Lady Julia Percy Island, having been caught in a south-westerly gale, put into a bay which was named after this cutter Port Fairy.

1828.

In November or December of this year, Captain Griffiths visited Port Fairy in the schooner *Henry*.

December.—William Dutton visited Portland Bay in the schooner *Madeira Packet* on a sealing voyage. He was one of a boat's crew that landed at Blacknose Point and remained in the neighbourhood until the middle of January 1829.

1829.

July.—Dutton again visited Portland Bay in the schooner *Henry*, Captain McLean, on a sealing voyage. He was captain of a boat's crew which landed at Whaler's Point, or Single Corner (the present site of Portland,) where he remained sealing, and built a house and lived in it.

1830.

January.—Dutton again embarked in the schooner *Henry* on a sealing voyage. Sturt, accompanied by George McLean, having led a party down the Murrumbidgee river, reached a river which Hume and Hovell had crossed in 1824 on their journey to Port Phillip, and called the Hume. Sturt gave

it the name of the Murray, by which it has been since known, and followed it down to Lake Alexandrina (which he also named,) and thence to its entrance into the sea.

1831.

March.—Dutton again visited Portland Bay in the schooner *Henry*, then commanded by Captain Griffiths. The vessel anchored off Blacknose Point. Dutton landed and occupied for some months the house he built in 1829. He then left in the schooner *Elizabeth*.

1832.

November.—Dutton again visited Portland Bay and resided there until March 1833. He subsequently returned to Portland Bay in command of the schooner *Henry* and established a whaling station. He erected buildings and grew vegetables for his own use.

1833.

July.—Whilst there at this time, Edward Henty, on his way from Swan River to Launceston in the schooner *Thistle*, Captain Liddle, entered the bay.

1834.

19th November. — Edward Henty landed at Portland Bay with stock, and also boats, &c., to form a whaling establishment. This was the first permanent settlement in Port Phillip.

1835.

In this year an association was formed in V.D.L. consisting of John Batman, Joseph Tice Gellibrand, James and William Robertson, Henry Arthur, John Sinclair, Charles Swanston, James Simpson, John Thomas Collicott, Anthony Cottrill, William George Sams, Michael Connolly, Thos. Bannister, and John Helder Wedge, to colonise Port Phillip. It was determined by the association that Batman should at once cross over to Port Phillip, with a view, as Batman states in his journal, "Of secretly ascertaining the general character and capabilities of Port Phillip as a grazing and agricultural district." Concerning this visit, there are two sources of information, viz., Batman's journal, and his letter of the 25th June 1835 to Governor Arthur and the chart and copies of deeds accompanying it. Between these two accounts many grave discrepancies exist, concerning the details of the undertaking.

10th May.—From the journal it appears that on this day Batman embarked and left Launceston in the *Rebecca*, a craft of thirty tons, on board of which were, Harwood master, Robert Robson mate, four seamen, three white men, James Gumm, William Dodd, and Alexander Thomson, and seven aboriginal natives of Sydney.

11th May.—The vessel reached George Town and awaited a favourable wind.

18th May.—She put to sea, but in consequence of contrary winds did not get clear of the coast until the 27th, when a favourable wind springing up, she proceeded on her voyage, reaching Port Phillip Heads on the 29th, which she entered, sailed some twelve miles inside, and anchored in a small bay near indented Head. Batman, Captain

Harwood, and some of the natives landed at a spot where a native dog was seen on the shore: they made a tour in the interior, and came upon the fresh tracks of some natives, leading to a village of gunyahs, which apparently had not been abandoned for more than a day or two. Batman returned to the vessel at night, highly pleased with the country he had seen, after a ramble in which the party had walked about twenty miles. His natives preferred sleeping on shore.

30th May.—The wind during the night having increased considerably, and the vessel's boat being unable in consequence to bring off the natives, they were hailed and directed to go round to a point of land some fifteen miles distant, and meet the vessel at that spot, the present site of Geelong. Batman again landed, and made another inspection of the country, and was highly pleased with the prospect.

1835.

31st May.—Batman states that "the vessel was last night anchored in a fine little bay to which he gave the name of Gellibrand's Harbour," that he again went on shore, and set out to open communication with the Blacks, which after a march of some twelve miles he succeeded in doing by about one o'clock. The party he then met consisted of twenty-four women and twenty-three children. Whether from a similarity of language, or freemasonry, Batman could not discover, but his Sydney natives and these aborigines seemed to understand each other. A corroboree, with song, was got up in quick time, in which all joined. They informed Batman that the men of their tribe had gone up the river. After the dance the women and children accompanied Batman to the coast where he presented them with blankets, glass beads, &c., after which he arranged to meet them again the next day, when they took their departure. In the course of this day's journey he travelled, going and returning, thirty miles, having ascended a sugar-loaf hill, which he named Mount Collicott.

1st June.—Batman again landed, and travelled round the bay, and after crossing a neck of land fell in with a small river or creek, which he followed up for ten miles; ascended some hills and saw plains which he named Arthur's plains. He also states in his journal of this day that adjoining Mount Collicott there are two other hills, which he named Mount Cottrell and Mount Connolly, and also that at a distance of fifteen miles from Mount Cottrell, bearing N.W. from it, there is another mount, which he named Mount Solomon.

2nd June.—The vessel was taken to Hobson's Bay, at the mouth of the Yarra Yarra, near where Williamstown now stands, and endeavours were made to sail up the river but it was too shallow.

3rd June.—Batman proceeded in a boat up the Saltwater River some five miles. He there landed and joined others of the party on shore, who had

walked seven miles to meet him. He then followed the course of the river for twenty-six miles, its water being salt for the whole distance.

4th June.—The journal of this date is somewhat obscure. Batman would appear, from one portion of it, to have been at Mount Cottrell on this day; whilst the whole entry makes it clear that he was following up the Saltwater River, the distance travelled being over twenty-six miles.

5th June.—Leaving the Saltwater River on a W.N.W. course, he fell in with three freshwater creeks, one of which he called Eliza Creek, and ascended a hill about noon, which he estimated to be fifty miles from the bay. From this hill was discovered, in an easterly direction, the smoke of a native encampment, towards which he bent his steps, keeping on for some twenty miles over plains.

6th June.—The journal states, he made an early start to reach the encampment, the smoke of which had been seen the day previous. That shortly after he came on a chief, his wife, and three children. That this chief received some presents, and took upon himself the office of guide, stating he would conduct Batman to his tribe, of whose chiefs he gave the names. After proceeding eight miles Batman heard the voices of natives calling; looking round he saw six men armed with spears; he stopped and the natives threw aside their spears, and coming up in a friendly manner they all shook hands. The natives took Batman back a mile to their camp where there were eight chiefs belonging to the country over which he had travelled. The three principal chiefs were brothers. The object Batman had in view, viz., the purchase of land, was then explained to the eight chiefs; they appeared to understand the proposal, and agreed to grant "to him and his heirs for ever," in consideration of blankets, knives, looking-glasses, tomahawks, beads, scissors, flour, &c., 600,000 acres of their land, and signed two deeds to that effect, which the provident Batman had ready prepared in his pocket, and "a tree" (says Batman) "was marked in four different ways to define the corner boundaries." The whole group of natives consisted of forty-five—men, women, and children.

7th June.—Batman busied himself in drawing up triplicates of the deeds of the land he had purchased; and in handing over to the natives more property. He returned to his vessel, and in doing so came to the Melbourne, or Batman's swamp, between the Yarra Yarra and Saltwater rivers. On rounding the swamp and getting through the scrub, to his great surprise he came upon the bank of the former river, which he called "The Batman." Some of the natives he had with him swam across the Saltwater River to fetch a boat from the vessel, which was about seven miles distant; they returned in about three hours to the junction of the two rivers, which place Batman had reached.

8th June.—Batman went up the Yarra Yarra in a boat to the falls above the basin.

9th June.—He determined to return to Van Diemen's Land, and to this end proceeded in his vessel to Indented Head, near Swan Point, about twelve miles inside the Heads, where he left the three white men he had brought with him, and five of the aboriginal natives of Sydney, viz., Pigeon, Joe the Marine, Bungit, Bullet, and Old Bull; also a supply of provisions for three months, a quantity of garden seeds, stones and pips of fruit for planting, and six dogs, and gave directions to erect a hut and commence a garden. He also gave to one of the white men, James Gumm, a written authority to warn off all persons found trespassing on the land he had purchased from the natives.

14th June.—Batman quitted Port Phillip and arrived at Launceston, after a passage of thirty-six hours.

25th June.—Batman, on his arrival at Hobart Town, addressed a letter to Governor Arthur, reporting his proceedings at Port Phillip, describing the country he had traversed, and transmitting a chart, in which were defined the limits of the land obtained by him from the natives. The chart Batman stated he constructed from personal survey, and on it is partly traced the Yarra Yarra River. He also enclosed with this letter a copy of each of the deeds executed by the natives, dated respectively 6th June 1835.

3rd July.—Governor Arthur (through his Colonial Secretary, Montagu,) replied to Batman's letter of 25th June, stating, "That Port Phillip is not within the jurisdiction of this Government, and His Excellency would therefore only observe that the recognition of the rights, supposed to have been acquired by the treaty into which you have entered with the natives, would appear to be a departure from the principle upon which a Parliamentary sanction, without reference to the aborigines, has been given to the settlement of Southern Australia, as part of the possessions of the Crown. I am also to observe, that in reference to the application of Mr. Henty to be allowed, under certain conditions to locate, a grant of land on the southern coast of New Holland, His Majesty's Government declined to accede to his proposal, &c."

12th July.—William Buckley, one of the prisoners who had escaped in 1803 from Governor Collins, came to Batman's camp at Indented Head. He was unable to account for the men who had left the camp with him. J. H. Wedge however in a communication to the Geographical Society of London in 1836, mentions that Pye, one of them, was left behind at the Yarra Yarra River through exhaustion; whilst the other, Marmon, parted with Buckley at Indented Head, with the intention of returning to the camp. Early in this year John Pascoe Fawcner, then resident at Launceston, V.D.L., contemplated a visit to Port Phillip, for which purpose he purchased a schooner called the *Enterprise*, then on a voyage to Newcastle, N.S.W. On her return to Launceston, possession was given

to Fawcner on the 18th July 1835, when he proceeded to purchase provisions, blankets, tomahawks, knives, handkerchiefs, a whaleboat, horses, ploughs, grain for sowing, garden seeds, plants and fruit trees. He also formed a party consisting of Samuel and William Jackson, Captain J. Lancey, Robert Hay Marr, and George Evans to accompany him in the exploration of a reported unoccupied country fit for pastoral purposes across the straits.

27th July.—The *Enterprise*, Hunter master, put to sea from George Town, having on board (with the exception of Samuel Jackson) all the members of the party; as also Evan Evans, servant; James Gilbert, blacksmith, and his wife Mary; and Charles Wise, ploughman. After the vessel had been at sea some days, and almost all the time in sight of George Town heads, during which there was very tempestuous weather, Fawcner became ill from sea-sickness and other causes. In consequence, he caused the vessel to put back to George Town, where he landed, taking with him one of the horses from on board, with which he proceeded to Launceston. She again put to sea and entered Western Port on 8th August 1835; the weather being very rough and tempestuous during the voyage, a great many things had to be thrown overboard. The master of the *Enterprise*, Hunter, had recommended Western Port as a fit place for settlement, he being acquainted with it, having been there some years before procuring wattle bark. The party accordingly examined the land around Western Port, and finding it unfavourable, left.

15th August.—The *Enterprise* entered Port Phillip Heads, when a whale boat came off to the vessel, manned by some of Batman's Sydney natives. She proceeded up the bay by the Southern Channel, some of those on board landing each day to examine the country, until the vessel arrived opposite the Red Bluff, now Point Ormond, when William Jackson and others of the party landed made their way through the bush, and crossed the Yarra Yarra River some distance above the falls. Whilst on this journey they fell in with some natives, and ultimately camped on the banks of the Yarra Yarra, on the site of the future city of Melbourne, to await the arrival up the river of Captain Lancey, with the *Enterprise*. Directions had been given to those on board the *Enterprise* not to settle down except on a river, and they must have been aware of the existence of the Yarra Yarra, as Robson, the mate of the *Rebecca*, Batman's vessel, stated that on his return to Launceston he told Captain Lancey of its existence. The vessel proceeded to the mouth of the Yarra Yarra River, where she arrived on the 20th August 1835, anchoring clear of the bar in the channel of the river.

21st August.—Some of those on board proceeded in a whale boat to examine the river; they passed the junction of the Yarra Yarra River with the Saltwater River without taking much notice of the

former, and went up the Saltwater River until stopped by fallen trees. They then returned to the vessel exhausted, examining on their way back the junction of the two rivers.

22nd August.—The same party again went up the Yarra Yarra River in the whale boat and reached the basin; returned to the vessel, and brought it up the river to the present site of Melbourne, which they reached on the 29th August 1835. The vessel was got close to the bank of the river after cutting away some of the overhanging timber. Those on board landed by means of a plank, the horses (two) being hoisted out. There were also brought in the vessel two pigs, three kangaroo dogs, a cat, and provisions.

7th August.—J. H. Wedge landed at Indented Head in company with Henry Batman and his wife. Wedge made this visit to Port Phillip at the request of some of the gentlemen associated with John Batman, for the purpose of confirming or otherwise, the glowing account given by John Batman of that country. Wedge joined the party left by John Batman at Indented Head, around whom were encamped a tribe of natives, having with them William Buckley, who had joined the party prior to Wedge's arrival. This was the William Buckley who had absconded from the settlement near Point Nepean on 27th December 1803. Wedge proceeded to examine the country. His first examination was of Indented Head, embracing the Bellarine Hills. His second examination, accompanied by Buckley, extended over the Barrabool Hills, and southward towards Cape Otway. He discovered and named the Barwon, and saw another river joining it. He also saw and named the Leigh River, and saw a lake named by the natives Modewarre. His third examination, he states, was made "for the purpose of ascertaining where the principal rivers discharged themselves into Port Phillip Bay, with a view to determine the most eligible site for a permanent establishment." On this occasion he left Indented Head in company with one white man, James Gumm, two Sydney Blacks, and a Port Phillip aboriginal boy, and proceeded round by Geelong to the west of Station Peak, crossing the Werribee a little to the south of Mount Cottrell, and the Saltwater River about a mile above the flow of the tide, and reached the present site of Melbourne on the 2nd September, where, with no little surprise, he observed in the basin a vessel moored. For a moment he fancied he had come upon an unknown settlement. Wedge says, "She was certainly the first vessel that had ever worked her way up to where the Queen's Wharf has since been built." He advanced to introduce himself to those in charge of the vessel, which he found to be the *Enterprise*, belonging to Fawkner, sent over in charge of Captain Lancey. Wedge states that the vessel had crept into the port, and proceeded up the Yarra Yarra River, unobserved either by the party left at Indented Head by Batman, or by the

tribe of natives who were encamped with them. This statement differs from that of those on board the *Enterprise*, from which it appears that when she entered the Heads on the 15th August, a boat put off from Batman's party to the vessel. Perhaps this discrepancy may be accounted for on the supposition that Wedge had left Indented Head prior to the *Enterprise* entering. It is quite clear he was not aware of her coming, up to the time he arrived at the site of Melbourne. Wedge also states that he communicated to Captain Lancey, either verbally or in writing, that he, Lancey, had encamped on a portion of the land ceded, or at that time supposed to have been ceded, to Batman's party, by virtue of his treaty with the natives; and in doing so, he believes that he expressed a hope that Lancey would not interfere with Batman, and referred to the unoccupied land on the opposite bank of the river, as affording ample scope for the enterprise of Fawkner's party; that Lancey took this communication in good part, and apparently assented to the propriety of his suggestion; and Wedge thinks he said he would write to Fawkner on the subject, and asserts that in making this communication he was actuated by no unfriendly feeling towards Fawkner and his coadjutors. It was on the occasion of this visit that Wedge gave the river the name of the Yarra Yarra, from the following circumstance: On arriving in sight of it, the native boy who was with him, pointing to the river, called out "Yarra Yarra;" which at the time he imagined was the native name of the river, but he afterwards learnt that the words were those the natives used to designate a waterfall, as the boy afterwards used the same expression to denote a small fall in the River Werribee, when he crossed it on his way back to Indented Head. On Wedge's return to Indented Head, Henry Batman, by his directions, conducted a portion of Batman's party to the north bank of the Yarra Yarra, which encamped not far from where St. James' Cathedral now stands. Wedge left Port Phillip by the vessel in which he came. After Jackson and Marr had satisfied themselves as to the capabilities of the country for pastoral purposes, they returned in the *Enterprise* to Launceston, where the party was broken up; each member of it being left to choose his future line of action in reference to revisiting the discovered land. Captain Lancey, George Evans, his servant, Evan Evans, Charles Wise, James Gilbert and his wife, remained behind on the Yarra Yarra, and sowed with wheat five acres of land at the south-western extremity of Melbourne, and erected near Batman's Hill some tents or huts, as well as a secure place for the stores.

26th August.—Sir Richard Bourke issued a proclamation, notifying "that every treaty, bargain, and contract, with the aboriginal natives, for the possession, title, or claim to any Crown lands within N.S.W., is void, as against the rights of the Crown; and that all persons found in possession of any such lands, without license or authority

from Her Majesty's Government for such purpose, first had and obtained, would be considered as trespassers."

10th October.—Governor Bourke reported to Lord Glenelg Batman's proceedings, as well as the course he had pursued in reference to them. The *Enterprise* again returned to Port Phillip, having on board Fawknor and his servant Morgan. Fawknor removed the tents or huts which had been erected near Batman's Hill to the rise opposite the falls, and formed a cultivation paddock of eighty acres, on the opposite, or south side of the river. It was on this last voyage of the *Enterprise*, that the *Endeavour*, with John Aitken on board, followed Fawknor's vessel, and arrived at Melbourne some short time after it.

13th October.—John Batman addressed a letter from Launceston to J. H. Wedge, in reference to Fawknor's intrusion on the land, which he (Batman) had obtained from the natives of Port Phillip.

31st October.—The first publican's license was issued in Melbourne.

26th October.—Five hundred sheep were imported from Launceston, in the *Norval*, Captain Coltish, for Batman's Association, and landed at Point Gellibrand. This vessel also brought fifty pure Hereford cows, belonging to Dr. Thomson. Cowie, Stead, Steiglitz and Ferguson, also arrived in her.

December.—About this time, — Smith, who had been sent to Port Fairy early in the year in charge of Raby and Penny's whaling party, left that place in a whale-boat with a crew of five men, intending to enter the River Hopkins. The boat was capsized in the surf at the entrance of the river and all hands drowned, with the exception of a man named Gibbs. He swam to the shore in a state of nudity, and made his way back naked and on foot to Port Fairy. Raby and Penny sold the boats, whaling plant, &c., to Griffiths and Connolly.

1836.

1st January.—The first newspaper was published in Melbourne, by Fawknor, and was called the *Melbourne Advertiser*. It consisted at first of a written sheet; was distributed weekly for nine weeks; and was afterwards continued in a printed form to the extent of thirty-two numbers.

23rd January.—Lord Glenelg, in a despatch of this date, in reply to Governor Arthur's despatch of 4th July 1835, on the subject of the negotiations which had been entered into by Batman for the acquisition from some of the native tribes of a large portion of land, consisting of 600,000 acres in the vicinity of Port Phillip stated, "That all schemes for making settlements by private individuals or companies in the unlocated districts of Australia, have of late years been discouraged by His Majesty's Government, as leading to fresh establishments, involving the mother country in an indefinite expense, and exposing both the natives and the new settlers to many dangers and calamities. And there is so much of prudence

and of justice, and I think I may add of humanity in this policy, that I do not feel disposed to depart from it in the present instance."

26th January.—George Duncan Mercer, as agent for the Geelong and Doutagalla Association, addressed a letter to Lord Glenelg, from Edinburgh, enclosing copies of Batman's Narrative of his Excursion to and Proceedings at Port Phillip; the originals of two treaties (executed in triplicate) entered into with the aboriginal chiefs, possessors of the territory in the neighbourhood of Port Phillip; also a map of the territories ceded by the head men of the Doutagalla tribe and other documents, in which letter he states, "The object of the association is to obtain, in the exercise of the Royal prerogative, a recognition and confirmation by the Crown of the treaties executed by the aboriginal chiefs, occupants of the soil; or should His Majesty's Ministers see any legal objection to this recognition and confirmation, of which I am not at present aware, a Royal grant of the territories as feudatories of the British Crown." In conclusion, Mercer says, "Under such circumstances, I trust I may, without presumption, flatter myself that His Majesty's Ministers will be glad to find it consistent with their duty to the Crown and the country, to sanction and foster a colony founded upon principles of humanity and civilisation, and opening a new field for emigration and British industry."

15th February.—Lord Glenelg replied to Mercer's letter of 26th January, informing him, "That the territory on which it is proposed to form the settlement in question, is a part of the Colony of New South Wales, being comprised within the limits laid down in the commission of Governor Sir Richard Bourke; and consequently, that it is impossible for His Majesty's Government to acknowledge any title to lands acquired there, except upon the terms prescribed in that commission and the accompanying instructions."

March.—Captain J. B. Mills left Launceston and proceeded to Port Fairy in the cutter *Sarah Ann*, to take delivery of the boats, whaling plant, &c., for Griffiths and Connolly, which they had purchased last year from Raby and Penny. He took with him three boats and their crews. The oil produced this season was put on board the barque *Arabin*, Captain Cairns, and sent to London. Dr. Thomson arrived at Melbourne with his family. Mitchell left Sydney to explore Port Phillip. He crossed the Murray River on the 15th June, proceeded along its southern bank, and on the 20th June passed Swan Hill, subsequently Lake Boga, Mount Hope and Pyramid Hill; he crossed the Loddon and Avoca Rivers, explored Lake Lonsdale and Mount William, sighted the Grampians, crossed the Wimmera near Mount Zero, discovered the McKenzie and Norton Rivers, reached Greenhill Lake and Mount Arapiles; crossed the Glenelg, proceeded along its eastern bank, crossing the Wando and Wannon Rivers and leaving a dépôt at a spot which he called Fort

O'Hara, descended the Glenelg River in boats; saw Mount Gambier, and reached the mouth of the river and Discovery Bay, all of which rivers and hills he named. He then returned up the River Glenelg, crossed the Crawford, and followed it up; proceeded by Mount Eckersley; saw Mount Napier, crossed the Fitzroy, all of which he also named; and on the 29th August 1836 reached Portland Bay, where he saw a vessel, the *Elizabeth*, of Launceston at anchor, and visited the establishment of the Hentys. On his return he saw and named Mounts Clay and Rouse, The Grange, Mounts Sturgeon and Abrupt, Lake Linlithgow, Mounts Stavely and Nicholson, the River Hopkins, Mount Cole, Expedition Pass, Mount Byng, Mount Alexander and Mount Macedon; and from the latter he obtained a view of Port Phillip Bay. He then crossed the Campaspe, Violet Ponds, the Ovens at its junction with the King River; reached the Murray, and crossed it at Mount Ochertyre, and returned to Sydney. The land which he had explored on the south side of the Murray River, on this trip, he named Australia Felix.

13th April.—Lord Glenelg, in a despatch to Governor Sir Richard Bourke, in reply to his of the 10th October last, approved of the course he had pursued in reference to Batman's proceedings at Port Phillip.

April.—Captain Mills visited from Port Fairy the River Hopkins with two boats and their crews for the purpose of recovering the whaleboat lost the previous year by — Smith. He found the boat about one mile and a-half to the eastward of the entrance to the river, took it to the mouth of the river, and after several efforts to get out to sea on this and the following day (the party having no provisions beyond the usual lunch which they carried when on the look out for whales,) the project was abandoned, as the surf had set in very heavily, and filled the boats at every attempt. The boats were then hauled up on shore, with the intention of dragging them overland to Lady Bay, a distance of two and a-half miles. The crews began to suffer very much from hunger, and wished to leave the boats and return to Port Fairy. However, by alternate dragging and carrying the gear, they succeeded in launching the boats in Lady Bay, and reached Port Fairy very much exhausted, having had to pull against a strong westerly wind. Cattle were brought to Port Fairy in the latter end of this year, in the *Thistle*, by Captain Mills. At the latter end of this month Batman returned to Port Phillip in the *Caledonia*, accompanied by his wife and family and Miss Newcombe, his governess. James Simpson and the Rev. James Orton, a Wesleyan minister, were passengers by the same vessel, as also Major Wellman and his son, who were on their way to India. Batman conducted the remainder of his party from Indented Head to the Yarra Yarra River, and fixed his abode on a hill at the western extremity of Collins-street, called from the circumstance Batman's Hill. He

built a house there and opened a general store. His first sheep station was the present site of St. James' Cathedral, in William-street, where he had a shepherd's hut. Batman looked upon Fawkner as an intruder, as he (Batman) claimed a large extent of ground on the north side of the Yarra Yarra River, by right of his alleged purchase from the natives. About this time, the *Francis Freeling*, Captain Pollock, arrived from V.D.L., having been chartered by Joseph Sutherland to convey to Port Phillip 800 sheep, which he had purchased at Hobart Town for two guineas a head. The sheep were landed in Port Phillip Bay between Indented Head and Point Henry. Some 400 of the number after landing died from drinking salt water. The remainder were seized and taken away by the blacks, most of them being afterwards recovered by Sutherland and Fred. Taylor. Sutherland subsequently took up country and formed a station beyond Geelong, at a place called after him, Sutherland's Creek. He had visited Port Phillip in March of this year to ascertain the capabilities of the country.

1st June.—A public meeting of the residents in Melbourne was held, at which seventy-seven persons were present, amongst whom were James Simpson (chairman,) D. R. Pitcairn, G. McKillop, T. Roadknight, W. J. Sams, Jno. Aitken, W. Roadknight, Fred. Taylor, — McLeod, John Batman, Henry Batman, J. H. Wedge, J. P. Fawkner, J. C. Darke, J. Sutherland, J. Solomon, Michael Carr, Wm. Buckley and David Thomas. A resolution was passed, "That James Simpson be appointed to arbitrate between individuals disputing, on all questions excepting those relating to land, with power to name two assistants when he may deem fit." Other resolutions were also passed, including one, "That a petition be prepared to Governor Bourke, praying him to appoint a resident magistrate at Port Phillip, as well as other magistrates from among the residents." The revenue cutter *Prince George* arrived from Sydney, having on board George Stewart, who was a Territorial Magistrate, and also Police Magistrate at Goulburn, N.S.W. He was the first to exercise magisterial authority in Port Phillip, and was ordered to report on the place and on the condition of its inhabitants. A meeting took place between Stewart, as the representative of the Government, and the inhabitants, when it appeared that 177 persons from V.D.L. had settled in the neighbourhood of Port Phillip Bay, and had imported live stock and other property to the value of £110,000.

8th June.—Henry, Alexander, and James Brock imported sheep from V.D.L. and landed them at Gellibrand Point, near Williamstown, which they occupied for some few months as a station, removing afterwards to Emu Creek, beyond Sunbury.

10th July.—The brig *Chili*, Captain Nixon, arrived at Port Phillip. This vessel had been chartered at Launceston by Gellibrand, Swanston, Geo. Evans, and S. and W. Jackson, to convey stock to Port Phillip. Jackson and Evans on

landing explored the Deep Creek, and reached a place afterwards called Jackson's Creek, now Sunbury, where they determined to form a station. They then returned to Williamstown, and having got together their sheep and provisions, &c., again proceeded to Jackson's Creek, where they remained some time in company. Finding afterwards their sheep considerably increased they divided, and Evans removed two and a half miles up the creek to a place called Emu Bottom, where he formed a station, and eventually obtained a pre-emptive right of 640 acres. In this year stations were also formed by Charles Franks at Mount Cottrell; by Cowie and Stead, at Cowie's Creek; by David Fisher, on the Barwon; by Solomon, on the Salt-water River, at Solomon's Ford; by Roadknight, at the Barrabool Hills; by Simpson and Wedge, on the Exe or Werribee; by John Aitken, on the Deep Creek, and subsequently at Mount Aitken; and by John Gardiner, on the Yarra Yarra. In this year Charles Franks and his shepherd were killed by blacks, supposed to be of the Goulburn tribe of aborigines, at Franks' station at Mount Cottrell, near the River Exe or Werribee. Their remains were brought to Melbourne and interred at the Flagstaff Hill, which had been already selected as a burial place, where the child of a man named Goodman had been interred previously, the child being the first person buried by Europeans at Melbourne. The funeral of Franks and his shepherd was attended by all the residents of Melbourne.

29th September.—Her Majesty's ship *Rattlesnake*, Captain Hobson, R.N., arrived in Port Phillip Bay, having on board Captain William Lonsdale, late of the 4th Regiment of Foot, as resident magistrate. Captain Hobson surveyed the inlet at the head of the bay, which now bears his name. Mounts Martha and Eliza were named by one of the Lieutenants of the *Rattlesnake* in compliment to Mrs. Lonsdale and Mrs. Batman respectively.

September.—C. H. Ebdon formed a station on the Murray. He first established a crossing place at Albury.

5th October.—The brig *Stirlingshire* which left Sydney on the 24th September, arrived in Port Phillip Bay. This vessel had on board Robert Saunders Webb, officer in charge of the customs; Skene Craig, commissariat officer; Robert Russell, and his assistants; Fred. Robert Darcy and William Wedge Darke, of the survey department; Ensign King, with a detachment of the 4th Regiment; thirty prisoners, and Joseph Hooson as chief constable. Russell and his assistants were instructed to survey the shores of Port Phillip Bay; trace up the banks of the Yarra, noting its breadth and depth at various points; the extent to which it is navigable and affected by the tide; the nature of its banks and bed; the rapidity of its current; the height to which the permanent water flows, and that to which it rises in time of flood. Russell also made a survey showing the site of the present

city of Melbourne and the buildings then standing on the same.

October.—Charles Bonney, who had accompanied Ebdon to his station on the Murray, left the station, accompanied by two men, for the purpose of exploring a road to Melbourne. He crossed the Murray at Albury, and took a south-west course to the Ovens River, which he struck a few miles below the present crossing place. The flooded state of the river and the peculiar nature of its banks rendered it dangerous to attempt to cross at that place. On tracing the river down he came upon a newly-made track, which he found to be that of Mitchell's party, who were known to be out in that direction. He followed the track to Howlong, on the Murray, where Mitchell had crossed, hoping to overtake him, but was too late, as Mitchell had gone on, and the river could not be crossed at that spot. He then returned to Ebdon's station, intending to make a fresh start when the floods had subsided. After Bonney's return home, Hawdon's party passed Ebdon's station with stock on their way to Melbourne, which they reached in safety. Gellibrand and Swanston, accompanied by Dobson, a solicitor at Hobart Town, proceeded to Sydney, to urge upon the Government the claims of Batman's Association, and ultimately obtained for the association as compensation in respect of their claims an allowance of £7000 in the remission of the purchase of land at Port Phillip.

27th October.—Joseph Hawdon and John Gardiner, on their way overland from N.S.W. to Port Phillip with cattle, met at McArthur's station on the Murrumbidgee, called Nangus, Mitchell and his party returning to Sydney from their exploration of Port Phillip. Hawdon and Gardiner reached Melbourne at the end of November or beginning of December.

5th November.—Batman had a son born, who was subsequently drowned in the Yarra Yarra at the Melbourne Falls.

8th November.—A census taken in Port Phillip showed the population to be 186 males and 38 females.

December.—An aboriginal mission was established at Port Phillip. The station was on the banks of the Yarra, on the site of the present Botanical Gardens. George Langhorne was appointed missionary to the aborigines, and was joined by John Thomas Smith as his assistant. The aboriginal population at this time, within a circuit of about thirty miles round Melbourne, numbered 700, including men, women, and children, and were divided into three tribes, the "Wawoorong," the "Boonoorong," and the "Watourong." The Wawoorong inhabiting the district extending from the Yarra Yarra to Western Port, as far as the Dun Tin Bear Creek, now called the Ginger Beer Creek. It was with Jika Jika (a tall man and a member of this tribe) and his sons that Batman made his treaty for the purchase of land. The Watourongs inhabited the Geelong district,

It was with this tribe that Buckley dwelt. The Boonoorongs were a small tribe.

25th December.—Charles Bonney left Ebden's station on the Murray, with a bullock dray and several men, and proceeded to the Ovens river, the track then made being afterwards used as the main road. From the Ovens, Bonney kept Mitchell's track to the River Goulburn, where he waited for Ebden to come up with him. On the arrival of the latter, he and Bonney (leaving the dray at the Goulburn) rode on to Melbourne, which they reached on the third day after leaving that river.

1837.

In this year Thomas Bates imported from Launceston, in the vessels *Indemnity* and *Henry*, some sheep which he landed at Point Henry. Bates settled at Cowie's Creek, near the Bell Post Hill, so-called in consequence of Cowie and Stead having erected a bell on a high sapling to give the alarm in case of an attack from the aborigines. Bates subsequently removed to the Duck Ponds near Station Peak. He also occupied land at Batesford, so named after him.

7th February.—Henry Batman was appointed a district constable.

13th February.—Taylor, with John Ewart, arrived in Melbourne with cattle. This party was organised near Yass, by W. A. Brodribb, for John Gardiner and J. T. Gellibrand.

2nd March.—Charles Bonney left Ebden's station on the Murray with about 9000 of Ebden's sheep, and took up a run which he had chosen, south of the Goulburn. They were the first sheep brought by land to Port Phillip. After they were placed upon the run Bonney came to Melbourne with two drays for supplies, on which occasion he discovered the country forming the present site of Carlsruhe, which Ebden afterwards occupied.

4th March.—Governor Bourke arrived from Sydney at the settlement on the Yarra Yarra, in H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*, Captain Hobson. He was accompanied by Captain Hunter, military secretary; George Kenyon Holden, his private secretary; Captain P. P. King, as his travelling companion; and Robert Hoddle, surveyor in charge. The object of this visit was to fix the site for a township. Hunter placed the encampment of the vice-regal party at the west end of Bourke-street, near the present residence of Hoddle. One morning, shortly after their arrival, and whilst they were in camp, the shock of an earthquake was felt. Bourke expressed to King his apprehension that it would be unsafe to build a town on the spot, as it would be exposed to risks like those which then made N.Z. so unpopular a country for settlement. No repetition of the shock occurred, however, and the Town of Melbourne was laid out by Hoddle. The principal streets were marked to be 99ft. wide. The Governor at first objected to this width, but subsequently assented, and insisted that smaller streets should be made 33ft. wide, to be called mews.

He named Melbourne after the then Prime Minister, Lord Melbourne; Collins-street, after Lieutenant Governor Collins; Flinders-street, after Captain Flinders; Bourke-street, after himself; Lonsdale-street, after Capt. Lonsdale; Swanston-street, after Captain Swanston; and Russell-street, after Lord John (now Earl) Russell. Hoddle also marked out Williamstown and the Battery Reserve. Williamstown was named after the reigning sovereign. An address was presented to Sir Richard Bourke by the inhabitants, to which he replied, and he subsequently made a trip into the interior under the guidance of Jackson and Buckley; he visited Mount Macedon and Geelong, the latter of which he named after the native name of the hill on which it stands.

10th April.—Governor Bonrke named Hobson's Bay after Captain Hobson of H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*, and officially ordered the sites of Melbourne and Williamstown to be laid out.

30th April.—The first child baptised at Melbourne was the son of James Gilbert, who arrived with Fawkner's party at Port Phillip on the first voyage of the *Enterprise*. He was named John Melbourne Gilbert.

1st June.—The first land sale took place at Melbourne, Robert Hoddle, surveyor in charge of the district, acting as auctioneer. The average price realised for each lot of about half an acre was £35. Sylvester John Brown, Barry Alexander and Robert William Shadforth, arrived in Melbourne by land from N.S.W. with sheep and cattle. Brown and Shadforth on their way to Melbourne stopped at Ebden's station at Carlsruhe.

2nd June.—John Wood Fleming, who was mayor of Brunswick in the year 1870, was born on the site of the present fish market.

18th June.—The *James Watt*, steamer, Taggart master, left Sydney for Launceston and Port Phillip. Passenger, Langhorne.

July.—John and Joseph Hawdon brought cattle from their station at Howlong on the Murray to Melbourne, and took them to a station at Dandenong called Bigning, water holes adjoining, a station which Alfred Langhorne had formed on Dandenong Creek for Captain Lonsdale and himself. Langhorne was left in charge of these cattle with John Bourke as stockman.

5th September.—Foster Fyans was appointed police magistrate at Geelong.

12th September.—Patrick Cussen was appointed colonial assistant-surgeon.

14th September.—The *James Watt*, steamer, Parsons master, left Sydney for Port Phillip, having on board Fyans, late a Captain in the 4th Regiment; Cussen, Dutton, Campbell and Hodgson.

1st November.—A second land sale was held at Melbourne. Fawkner purchased the allotment at the corner of Collins and Market-streets for £10.

10th November.—James Backhouse and George Washington Walker, Quaker missionaries, arrived at Port Phillip in the *Edora*, Stephen Addison, master. They visited the aboriginal station on

the Yarra Yarra, then in charge of Geo. Langhorne; they also visited Captain Lonsdale and Batman, and left Port Phillip on the 17th November of the same year. About this time Gellibrand and Hesse were lost in the bush at the Cape Otway ranges. It is supposed that they were murdered by the aborigines. A skeleton, discovered some time after, was identified as that of Gellibrand, from the fact of one of the teeth being filled with gold. Two hills not far from Winchelsea were named after these explorers.

30th December.—A fortnightly mail by land was established between Sydney and Melbourne. Joseph Hawdon contracted to convey it between Melbourne and Yass. It was carried on horse-back by his stock-man, John Bourke, who acted as mailman. This venturesome man, notwithstanding the attack on Faithful's party in the course of the following year, and the determined hostility of the blacks, continued to carry the mail by himself through the uninhabited country at the imminent risk of his life, crossing his horses over the rivers as best he might, and camping out at night wherever he found it most convenient. On one occasion he had a horse drowned in the Murray River, and on another was surrounded by hostile blacks, from whom he contrived to escape. A bush-ranger named Cummerford having at Sydney confessed that he and a shoemaker, name unknown, and a man named Dignum, had murdered between Melbourne and Portland Bay six bushrangers whilst asleep, Governor Bourke sent Cummerford to Port Phillip to point out the place where the murder had been committed. On Cummerford's arrival in Melbourne he was sent for this purpose in charge of a sergeant, one soldier, and two constables. On arriving at the spot indicated, 200 miles from Melbourne, the police found one or two bushels of calcined human bones, some human teeth, and hair unburnt, and some shoe nails and buttons from the clothes of the murdered men. On their return they found the bones of a horse's head, which Cummerford stated had belonged to Edden, and which he and Dignum had shot. One constable and the soldier having turned back for some tea which they had left behind, whilst the sergeant, the remaining constable (Tompkins) and Cummerford went on. The party stopped to cook, the sergeant giving his musket to Tompkins whilst he made a fire. Tompkins having left the fire-arms, Cummerford seized a musket and shot him, and he died in three hours, the ball having entered the left side and passed out at the right breast. Cummerford then plundered the pack-horse and escaped, though pursued by the sergeant for some time. This took place on 30th December, and on 1st January 1838 Cummerford, whilst trying to steal a horse, was taken into custody by three of Wedge's men.

1838.

Early in this year the Rev. James Clow, Presbyterian clergyman, performed Divine service in Melbourne.

16th January.—Benjamin Baxter was appointed clerk of the bench of magistrates.

28th January.—The Rev. James Forbes, Presbyterian minister, arrived in Melbourne. Joseph Hawdon, in company with Charles Bonney and a party of nine men, started from his station on the River Murray (at that time known as the Hume) to drive to Adelaide about 300 head of cattle, which he had, towards the end of the previous year, brought from N.S.W. The cattle were first driven to a mail establishment on the Goulburn River, at which place they were met on the 23rd January by some drays conveying from Port Phillip supplies for the journey. Hawdon on this journey discovered that the Goulburn joined the Murray. He proceeded along the south bank of the Murray to within three miles of its junction with the Darling, when he crossed over, fording both rivers without difficulty. At the junction of the Darling, he found a bottle, buried by Mitchell on 30th June 1836. On the 5th March he came upon a lake, which he named Lake Victoria. On the 12th March he passed another lake, which he named Lake Bonney. The party also passed near Mount Barker, and arrived in Adelaide on 30th April 1838.

February.—Edward John Eyre and S. J. Brown started from Port Phillip for Adelaide driving a herd of cattle with them. Brown turned back; Eyre proceeded on to Adelaide, where he arrived on 12th July 1838. He attempted to take a direct route from Port Phillip to Adelaide, but coming upon a country impassable for want of water he abandoned that course, and getting on Mitchell's track, continued along it to the River Wimmera, which he followed down and discovered that it flowed into a large lake which he called Lake Hindmarsh. After a search of three weeks and the loss of some horses, finding nothing but a waterless scrub between the lake and the Murray, he was obliged to return to the route followed by Hawdon, and by which he reached Adelaide.

8th February.—Peter Snodgrass was appointed Commissioner of Crown Lands for the Port Phillip district.

24th February.—Governor Gipps assumed the government of the colony.

March.—About this time Fawcner commenced the printing and publication of a newspaper, which was called *The Melbourne Daily News and Port Phillip Patriot*. It was some time after edited by George Darly Boursiquot.

11th April.—A party of men in charge of William P. Faithful's sheep, travelling from N.S.W., were preparing to proceed from the Broken River to the Goulburn River in the Port Phillip district, where it was understood good sheep stations might be had. Whilst the bullocks were being yoked, the men with the drays heard the shepherds shouting for help; these latter, who were a short distance from the encampment herding the sheep, were presently seen running with great speed towards the drays, pursued by a body

of blacks throwing spears at them. Their companions at the encampment, three of whom were armed with guns, immediately ran to their assistance, with the intention of driving off the blacks, who were at that time within three or four hundred yards of the encampment. One of these men, named Bentley, fired his gun into the air thinking by this means to intimidate the Blacks, but the shot had no effect; the blacks still pushed forward, cautiously sheltering themselves in their advance behind the trees. When very near the whites, one came forward, and was in the act of deliberately poisoning his spear when Bentley shot him dead, and was himself immediately afterwards pierced with three spears; the contest then became general, and Bentley was last seen wounded and fighting desperately with the but end of his musket; the other men, at whom spears were hurled from all directions, fired several shots without effect, owing to the shelter of the trees of which the blacks had availed themselves. The blacks increased in numbers and pressed their advance, until the whites were in danger of complete massacre. Seven of the party of fifteen were killed, and one mortally wounded. The survivors joined in a final rush for escape; the blacks opened in two lines, and speared at the Whites as they fled between them. John Campbell, who escaped, died of his wounds. Crossley, the overseer of the party (subsequently a butcher at Kilmore,) was one of those who escaped. The attacking party appeared to the fugitives to be about 150 in number, as seen ranged up in the two lines through which they retreated. At about 100 yards distant another strong party of armed blacks was drawn up; but took no part in the contest. It is said there were not fewer than 300 fighting men present, and that not one old man was seen among them. The party in charge of the sheep and cattle had been awaiting from the Saturday previous to the arrival of George Faithful who was only a day's stage behind, and was momentarily expected. The sheep were dispersed, but with the exception of 130 were all recovered; some of the cattle were lost. Faithful and Colonel White were camped near the crossing place of the Ovens River, where one of the men who had escaped from the affray arrived some twenty-eight hours after, reporting that he believed he was the only man of the party saved.

April.—Alfred Langhorne left Melbourne for Sydney overland; on his way he fell in with the remainder of Faithful's party near the Broken River, on the morning after their affray with the blacks, and on the night of the same day camped with them near the Ovens River. John Murchison and Farquhar McKenzie brought sheep overland from New South Wales to Port Phillip; on the route they were joined by Peter Snodgrass, Dr. Dixon, Murdock, James Campbell, and Henry Kent Hughes, who were also on their way to Port Phillip with sheep; they all camped on a creek near Mount Piper. Some of the party fell in with

Colonel White and his son Edward, who had been driven from the Ovens River by the blacks. They all took up country on, or in the neighbourhood of, the River Goulburn. McKenzie selected the King Parrot Creek; Dr. Dixon, for McFarlane, the Cheviot Hills; Snodgrass, the Muddy Creek; Campbell, country on the north side of the Goulburn, and Hughes remained where they had all originally camped on a little stream which obtained the name of Hughes's Creek. Lady Franklin visited Port Phillip from V.D.L., of which colony her husband was Governor.

15th May.—A Government mail cart travelled between Melbourne and Geelong, the Saltwater River being crossed by a punt. The Rev. P. B. Geoghegan, a clergyman of the Church of Rome, arrived in Melbourne from Sydney.

5th August.—William Wright was appointed chief constable at Melbourne, in place of Henry Batman.

15th August.—A branch of the Bank of Australasia was opened at Melbourne in a small brick building on the north side of Little Collins-street, near Elizabeth-street, with David C. McArthur as manager.

September.—David Kelsh was appointed by the Governor postmaster of Melbourne; he opened a post-office in a small brick building on the north side of Little Collins-street, a little to the westward of Temple Court.

2nd October.—An Act (2 Victoria, No. 20) was passed by the Legislative Council of New South Wales to enable the printer and publisher of a newspaper to make the affidavit and enter into the recognisance required by law, before the police magistrate of the district in which such newspaper was to be printed and published.

17th October.—A branch of the Union Bank of Australia was opened at Melbourne in a weather-board building in Queen-street, with William Highett as manager.

27th October.—A second newspaper was printed and published in Melbourne by Strode and Arden, and was called *The Port Phillip Gazette*. It was issued twice a week. Strode had brought from Sydney, by the *Denmark Hill*, the type, and a wooden press of very ancient construction, with which this paper was printed.

2nd November.—A general fast was kept in Port Phillip on account of the long-continued drought. In this month Captain Tobin commenced taking charge of vessels as a private pilot, and brought the schooner *Industry*, drawing eight and a-half feet of water, up to the Melbourne wharf.

11th December.—George Augustus Robinson was appointed chief protector of aborigines, and Edward Stone Parker, William Thomas, Charles Wightman Sievwright, and James Dredge, assistant protectors. In this year the Port Phillip Bank was established in Melbourne, with a capital of £120,000. John Gardiner, and subsequently George Duncan Mercer, being successively the managing director.

1839.

1st January.—William Lonsdale was appointed police magistrate at Melbourne. The Melbourne Club was instituted.

3rd January.—The barque *Hope* arrived from Sydney with 130 immigrants, 2 officers, and 34 rank and file, 30 women, and 50 children. Parker, Thomas, Sievwright and Dredge, who had recently arrived from England with the appointments of assistant-protectors of aborigines, were on board.

17th January.—The minimum price of Crown lands, which had theretofore been 5s. an acre, was raised to 12s. an acre. In this month the barque *Thomas Laurie*, 300 tons, W. B. Price, master, sailed from Port Phillip direct for London, taking the first mail, and 400 bales of wool, valued at £6500.

13th February.—The members of the association formed by Batman, called the Port Phillip Association, having, as already stated, obtained an allowance of £7000, in the remission of the purchase of land, in consideration of the expenses they had incurred in the first formation of the settlement, exercised this concession in the purchase of 9416 acres of land to the west of Geelong.

14th February.—The petition of W. H. Burnard was printed by order of the House of Commons. In this petition reference was made to a correspondence which took place in October 1838 and January 1839, between James Graham and Co., and Lord Glenelg, in which the former solicited permission to purchase 20,000 acres of land at or near the Glenelg River, Australia Felix, with the object of establishing a colony there. The petitioner was informed that Australia Felix was a part of N.S.W. and that it must rest with the local Government, in the first instance, to determine the expediency of putting up for sale lands in that district.

26th February.—Charles Bonney left Port Phillip for Adelaide, with cattle; he proceeded by way of Glenelg, following the coast line near Mount Gambier. He was the first person who crossed to that colony by this route. Alfred Langhorne followed Bonney, keeping his track to the junction of Lake Alexandrina with the Murray River.

24th March.—A stone jetty was completed at Williamstown.

27th March.—Edward Jones Brewster, barrister-at-law, was appointed chairman of quarter sessions at Port Phillip.

31st March.—The first pound was established at Port Phillip.

28th April.—The ship *John Barry*, J. Robson, master, arrived from Sydney with 200 immigrants; E. J. Brewster, was a passenger.

6th May.—John Batman died at Melbourne, aged thirty-nine years.

May.—John Hunter and James Riley brought horses, by land, from N.S.W. to the Seven Creeks, where Hunter remained, he having purchased sheep of Rutledge, which the latter had brought from N.S.W.

13th May.—The first Court of Quarters Session was held at Melbourne, E. J. Brewster, chairman, and Horatio Nelson Carrington, Crown Prosecutor.

19th May.—The Rev. P. B. Geoghegan (subsequently Roman Catholic Bishop of Adelaide) celebrated mass in Melbourne.

17th June.—The barque *Midlothian*, George Morrison, master, arrived from Leith. This was the first merchant vessel direct from a British port to Hobson's Bay. John Hunter Kerr, a relative of Governor Hunter, came to the colony in her, as also thirty-one cabin passengers. On the same day, the barque *William Bryan*, Roman, master, from London, via Circular Head and Launceston, passed up the bay. Thomas Herbert Power was on board. Both vessels grounded on the passage up.

7th July.—A branch of the Colonial Treasury at Sydney, was established at Melbourne.

11th July.—Joseph Hawdon and Lieutenant Alfred Mundy, with their servant John Bourke, started from the Lamb Inn, Melbourne, on an overland journey to Adelaide, Mundy in a tandem, and Hawdon on horseback; they had six horses with them, and on the way overtook Joseph Holloway, who had left a week before them, in charge of cattle belonging to Hawdon. They accompanied Holloway to the crossing place of the Murray River, where they left him and drove into Adelaide, which they reached in twenty-seven days from the time of starting.

August.—Henry Fysche Gisborne who on the 21st May previously had been appointed Commissioner of Crown Lands for Port Phillip District, arrived in Melbourne by land, from N.S.W., in command of some police, and was accompanied by James Stein. Edward Curr, afterwards known as "the Father of Separation," arrived from Circular Head, V.D.L., in the schooner *Eagle*, bringing with him for sale some cattle descended from some of the best herds in England.

6th September.—The foundation-stone was laid of an Independent Chapel in Collins-street east, Melbourne.

10th September.—Robert Saunders Webb was appointed sub-treasurer at Port Phillip.

14th September.—Three allotments in the town of Melbourne, Nos. 5, 6 and 7, of block 14, situate in Collins-street, near Queen-street, each containing about half an acre, and which had been purchased by Charles H. Ebdon at the Government land sale on the 1st June 1837 for £136, were this day sold by auction, and realised £10,224.

30th September.—Charles Joseph La Trobe, who had been appointed Superintendent of Port Phillip by the Home Government, with a salary of £800 a year, arrived in Melbourne by the *Pyramus* from Sydney, and landed under a salute of nine guns. The district over which La Trobe had jurisdiction was bounded on the north by the 36th degree of south latitude, and on the west and east by the 141st and 146th degrees of east longitude respectively.

2nd October.—La Trobe met the inhabitants of Melbourne in the Auction Company's Rooms, Collins-street. His instructions were read to the public, and he was presented with addresses, to which he replied. John Carre Riddell and Thomas Ferrier Hamilton arrived in Melbourne from N.S.W. by land.

8th October.—An Act (3 Victoria, No. 16) was passed by the Legislative Council of N.S.W., by which the evidence of the aborigines might be taken under affirmation or declaration, and be received as of such weight only as corroborative circumstances might entitle it to, the witness to be liable to the usual penalties and forfeitures as in the case of perjury. The Act was not to take effect until it received the royal assent. It was subsequently disallowed by Lord John Russell's Despatch of 10th July 1840.

12th October.—The Rev. James Coud Grylls, a clergyman of the Church of England, arrived in Melbourne from Sydney, in the *Denmark Hill*. He had been appointed on the 5th September, bishop's surrogate for granting marriage licenses.

20th October.—Jas. Montgomery was appointed Clerk of the Peace at Port Phillip.

6th November.—The foundation-stone of St. James' Church, William-street, was laid by Superintendent La Trobe.

13th November.—James Croke who had been appointed by the Home Government Clerk of the Crown at Port Phillip, Sir Redmond Barry, J. B. Brewer, barrister-at-law, James Montgomery, Edward Sewell, Robert Dean and Richard O'Cock, solicitors, and Neil Black, arrived in Melbourne by the *Parkfield*.

22nd December.—Foster Fyans was appointed police magistrate at Portland Bay, and Nicholas A. Fenwick police magistrate at Geelong.

II. *Early Settlement*.—A writer in the record of the International Exhibition of 1881 published by the *Argus* gives the following picturesque description of the first settlement in Port Phillip in 1835:—"Upon one of the seven eminences spoken of above, and in a neighbouring hollow, both abutting upon the ever-flowing river which empties its waters into a noble bay, an association of enterprising settlers have founded a primitive village. Its population numbers only fifty men, women, and children, inhabiting eight or ten cabins, composed of sod walls and bark roofs, and a couple of weatherboard huts, which have achieved the distinction of possessing brick chimneys. The infant settlement possesses half a dozen horses, about a hundred head of cattle, 1400 sheep, and a few dogs, rabbits, and poultry. Some land has been broken up and placed under tillage upon the south bank of the river, and excepting that here and there some timber has been cut down for building purposes and fuel, the place retains its sylvan aspect, and oxen graze and sheep browse over what is little better than an extensive commonage, sprinkled pretty abundantly with trees. The villagers lead a rough life of it. They

have plenty of hard work, and a sense of insecurity, inspired by apprehensions of an attack from the aboriginal occupants of the soil, tends to promote a feeling of common sympathy. Nevertheless three adventurous settlers—Conolly, Swanston, and Solomon by name—have established themselves as sheep-farmers at different points ten miles distant from the little hamlet on the Yarra; and explorers who have pushed inland to the extent of twenty miles have brought back glowing accounts of the fine grazing qualities of the natural pastures. One of the pioneers of settlement, an active little man, with some tincture of imagination in his composition, proposes that the country shall be called Australia Felix; and prognosticates in moments of elation that it will become celebrated in the annals of the English nation some day, and that it was only necessary for so fair and fertile a region to be known and talked about in Great Britain to attract tens of thousands of immigrants. But the bystanders, who have gathered round a rude forge, erected under the shadow, if shadow it can be called, of an enormous eucalyptus, shake their heads at the enthusiasm of "Johnny Fawcner," and offer to wager long odds that at least a century will elapse before a second Launceston shall have arisen on the banks of the Yarra. But the enthusiast meets all such chilly remarks with a sarcastic "Ho, ho!" and confidently predicts that the day will come when a much larger town than that which stands at the head of the Tamar will occupy the site upon which they are then standing; and when, instead of an occasional barque, or brig, or schooner tacking up the bay, large merchantmen will float upon its waters, and warehouses—perhaps even docks—will be constructed alongside the stream which now flows so placidly at their feet. So extravagant a forecast however only exposes the little man to the banter of his neighbours, one of whom suggests in an undertone that "Johnny is a shingle short." Life is very dull and uneventful in this secluded settlement, but fortunately these pioneers, encamped on the edge of a wilderness, have so much strenuous work to occupy them all day, that when darkness settles down upon the little cluster of hovels their inmates are much more inclined to fall asleep than to sit down and while away the time by ineffectual attempts to engage in conversation, with an utter dearth of local materials, and with none at all procurable from external sources; and so the current of existence flows on with a monotony as unbroken as that of the sunshine in the summer months, or as that of the steady down-pour of rain at some periods of the winter, when the narrow valleys are filled with turbid streams or roaring torrents and the settlers stand at the doors of their cabins gazing disconsolately upward at the leaden sky and downward at the sodden earth." Five years later "the Settlement, as it used to be called by some, although others gave it the name of Beargrass, has grown from a diminutive hamlet into a straggling township, upon which the name

of Melbourne has been bestowed, in honour of the genial statesman who was Her Majesty's political preceptor. There is only one street really worthy of the name; and this, running from east to west, is as broad as if the surveyor who laid it out conjectured that it would one day become the leading thoroughfare of a populous city. The houses erected at irregular intervals upon its western eminence are mostly of wattle and dab, and are only one story high; but here and there a brick edifice, with an upper story, looks quite imposing by comparison with its lowlier neighbours. Jagged stumps of ancient gumtrees, that have been felled for joists and beams and battens, still deface the highway, and give a devious direction to the drays which conduct the traffic between the township and the interior; and the immediate environs of the place are almost as sylvan as they were five years ago. There is a good deal of activity observable among the inhabitants, for there have been two shiploads of immigrants from Sydney, and others are expected from England, to accommodate whom wooden huts are going up in many directions, and the public-houses and stores are doing a lively business. Melbourne has been declared a free port, and pastoral settlement in the interior covers a very wide area. In fact, the official returns show that there are 2372 horses, 50,837 head of cattle, and 782,283 sheep in the district of Port Phillip, which now numbers 10,291 inhabitants, and produces about £70,000 worth of wool per annum. The owners of these flocks and herds lead a rough life in the bush, occupying slab huts, feeding upon coarse fare, spending most of their time on horseback in the open air, and sleeping at night in rude bunks, copied apparently from those to which they had been accustomed on ship-board. At the close of the sheep-shearing season, when the annual clip has been packed and forwarded by lumbering bullock-drays to Melbourne for shipment, and when the annual supply of stores has to be purchased and sent back to the station, the squatters come down to town, and some of them indulge in what they call "a spree;" so that for a week or two perhaps the smooth monotony of life in Melbourne is broken in upon by the rough vivacity of its pastoral invaders, and the publicans are very attentive to the old maxim about making hay while the sun shines; but matters soon fall back into their former groove, and the last of the drays winds away in the distance, where its trail upon the bush track is obscured by a cloud of dust, and the place relapses into its normal condition. Judging from outward appearances its inhabitants are on a footing of social equality. The men wear blue serge shirts—very much like the "jerseys" of the fashionable ladies of 1880—moleskin trousers, confined at the waist by a belt of glazed leather, cabbage-tree hats, and boots resembling those affected by pirates in a nautical melodrama. The women do not ruin their husbands by the costly material or the expensive workmanship of their dresses, which

are mostly of homely print and of equally homely fabrication. A good many of the children run about barefoot. Much of the domestic work of the smaller households—washing, cooking, &c.—is performed out of doors, and the general aspect of Melbourne A.D. 1840 resembles that of a straggling bush township in the present year of grace. As for the townspeople, they might very well address a visitor in the words of welcome with which Daniel Peggoty greeted little David Copperfield on his arrival at the quaint habitation upon Yarmouth Sands—"You'll find us rough, sir, but you'll find us ready." But the settlement was not effected without great opposition on the part of the Imperial Government. When Batman was endeavouring to obtain a ratification of his grant from the aborigines of Port Phillip Governor Arthur was under the impression that the newly-settled territory would be attached to N.S.W., to which it naturally belonged. He had informed Batman, in reply to his first application, that the purchase of land from the natives might be confirmed, but that he did not consider Port Phillip was within his jurisdiction. There can be no doubt, however, that he took a considerable interest in the new settlement, and forwarded several despatches to the Secretary of State, in which he indirectly hinted at the propriety of attaching it to the V.D.L. Government. The matter was quickly decided by Sir Richard Bourke, who immediately issued the following proclamation:—"By his Excellency Major-General Sir Richard Bourke, K.C.B., commanding His Majesty's Forces, Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of the territory of New South Wales and its dependencies, and Vice-Admiral of the same.—Whereas it hath been represented to me that divers of His Majesty's subjects have taken possession of lands of the Crown within the limits of the colony, under the pretence of a treaty, bargain or contract, for the purchase thereof, with the aboriginal natives: now therefore I, the Governor, in virtue and in exercise of the power and authority vested in me, do hereby proclaim and notify to all His Majesty's subjects and others whom it may concern, that every such treaty, bargain, and contract with the aboriginal natives as aforesaid for the possession, title, or claim to any lands lying and being within the limits of the Government of the Colony of New South Wales, as the same are laid down and defined by His Majesty's commission—that is to say, from the Northern Cape or extremity of the coast called Cape York in the latitude of 10° 37' S. to the southern extremity of the said territory of New South Wales, or Wilson's Promontory, in the latitude of 39° 30' S., and embracing all the country into the westward as far as the 129th degree of east longitude, reckoning from the meridian of Greenwich, including all the islands adjacent to the Pacific Ocean within the latitude aforesaid, and including also Norfolk Island—is void, as against the rights of the Crown; and that all

persons who shall be found in possession of any such lands as aforesaid, without the license or authority of His Majesty's Government for such purpose first had and obtained, will be considered as trespassers, and liable to be dealt with in like manner as other intruders on the vacant lands of the Crown within the said colony." This Proclamation is dated from Government House, Sydney, 26th August 1835. For a considerable period Bourke seems to have taken no notice of the new settlement, beyond the fulmination of the proclamation which has been already quoted; but hearing that persons were still proceeding thither, he directed Steward, a police magistrate, to proceed to Port Phillip in the revenue cutter *Prince George*, in order to report on the place and the condition of the people. This gentleman was the first who had legitimate magisterial authority in Port Phillip; but the people respected several colonists who had been in the commission of the peace in T., and obeyed them as implicitly as if they had been in reality magistrates of the territory. At this time, while people and stock were arriving almost daily from V.D.L., the population of the new settlement began to receive very important accessions from N.S.W. Mitchell having spread a favourable report of the country, many enterprising stockowners took the road, and pouring across the Murrumbidgee and Murray Rivers, occupied the fine country on the Goulburn, Ovens, Campaspe and Loddon Rivers. A fleet of small vessels were busy plying between Williamstown and V.D.L., engaged in transporting stock to the western districts of Port Phillip; so that by the month of August 1836 it was computed that 38,000 sheep had been imported from Launceston. The Secretary of State, Lord Aberdeen, and his successor, Lord Glenelg, followed the unfortunate course which had till then almost invariably been adopted by the Colonial Ministers. They began by saying *no*, and in a very short period were obliged to say *yes*—to acknowledge a fact! Lord Aberdeen in December 1834, and Lord Glenelg in July 1835, wrote elaborate despatches, the one against the occupation of Twofold Bay, the outlet to Brisbane Downs, on the borders of Port Phillip, as recommended by Sir Richard Bourke, and the other against the occupation of Port Phillip, as recommended by Colonel Arthur, objecting to measures "the consequence of which would be to spread over a still further extent of country a population which it was the object of the land regulations to concentrate," and declining on the ground of "expense to the mother country and danger to the natives and settlers," to sanction the proceedings of Batman and his associates. But before the despatches were unsealed the thing was done. The settlement was accomplished. Until the appointment of a Superintendent in 1839 there was no official representing the Government at Sydney of higher pretensions than the police magistrate. So great was the advance of the settlement however and so rapid the increase of

population, that the Imperial authorities were convinced that it would be necessary to establish a local administration, and in the early part of 1839 a Superintendent was nominated, into whose hands the local government was to be entrusted. The appointment of La Trobe was announced on the 28th March 1839, and he arrived at Melbourne in September of that year. It is at this period, therefore, that the political history of the colony may be said to commence.

III. *Governor La Trobe*.—It was a great misfortune to Port Phillip that it happened to be nominally within the geographical limits of N.S.W., and was consequently claimed by the Government of that colony. But for this unfortunate circumstance it would have been at once established an independent colony, like S.A. The Imperial Government had no desire that Port Phillip should be attached to N.S.W., but having been lawfully taken possession of, the Ministers of the Crown tacitly acquiesced in the act of Sir Richard Bourke. That Governor, indeed, considered he was only exercising his legitimate powers, and was little disposed to be either an oppressor or an enemy. But his successor was surrounded by the aristocracy of N.S.W., who viewed the fine lands of Port Phillip as lawful spoil; and he was to some extent influenced by those views, and could not act altogether according to his own judgment. A few years later, when the new settlement was rising into notice, an Order was issued, bearing the royal signet and sign manual, dividing the colony of N.S.W. for all purposes connected with the sale of land. At this time Sir George Gipps, who had succeeded Sir Richard Bourke, was anxious to become popular with the aristocratical Council of Sydney, and at their desire made every effort to retard or overturn the movement. The whole influence of that wealthy colony was brought into operation, and every effort was made by the Legislature (composed at the time of nominees of the Crown) to prevent even the territorial dismemberment of the colony. The Bishop of Australia, (Dr. Broughton) was particularly energetic, and his arguments evinced too clearly that the colonists of the middle, or Sydney, district looked on the revenues of Port Phillip as fair spoil. He said—"The revenue arising from the district of the colony, it must be remembered, would go into other treasuries, and the emigrants would be landed at other ports; and where the emigrants arrived there would be the greater demand for produce of all descriptions; there stores would be built and merchants congregate; where ships arrived there would the wool be carried for shipment, and there would the supplies be purchased for the stations, and there would the money circulate." The Bishop had as great a fear of Port Phillip receiving the benefit of her revenue, and in consequence becoming prosperous, and the rival of Sydney, as the temporal potentates. Hannibal Macarthur, the ablest man perhaps next to the Governor, in the Legislative Council at

this time, said the change had come upon them like a thunderbolt, but they resembled more the earthquake threatening to involve the colonists of N.S.W. "in universal ruin." The Governor was not only backed up by the Legislative Council, but by a public meeting of the colonists, and nothing loth, considered himself justified "in not obeying his instructions in reference to Port Phillip." It may not be out of place to glance briefly at the financial position of Port Phillip, with reference more particularly to her standing account with the Treasury in N.S.W. The following is the official return of revenue and expenditure from 1836 to 1842 :—

REVENUE.				£	s.	d.
1836	0	0	0
1837	2,358	15	10
1838	2,825	17	10
1839	14,703	5	10
1840	36,856	1	6
1841	81,673	10	4
1842	84,566	9	3

Total £222,984 0 7

In this period the actual expenditure for the Government of the Province of Port Phillip, exclusive of that on immigration, was as follows :—

EXPENDITURE.				£	s.	d.
1836	2,164	16	8
1837	5,879	2	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
1838	16,030	2	5 $\frac{1}{2}$
1839	24,034	10	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
1840	41,374	18	4
1841	74,324	19	4 $\frac{1}{4}$
1842	91,156	10	11 $\frac{3}{4}$

Total £254,965 4 6 $\frac{1}{2}$

This return exhibits a slight balance against Port Phillip, but the territorial revenue is not included. The following sums were obtained by the Sydney Government for land, a great portion of which (more particularly of the enormous sum realised in 1840) was from the southern district :—

				£	s.	d.
1836	126,458	16	0
1837	120,427	0	5
1838	116,324	18	11
1839	152,962	16	4
1840	316,626	7	5
1841	90,387	16	10
1842	14,574	10	4

Total £937,762 6 3

Of this the following sums were derived from the sale of land in Port Phillip :—

				£	s.	d.
1838	25,287	17	9
1839	50,986	11	11
1840	134,584	6	3
1841	68,435	7	0
1842	2,000	0	0

Total £393,911 11 1

EXPENDITURE ON IMMIGRATION.

Paid by Colonial Treasurer.				By Colonial Agents in London.			
£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.	
1838	...	29	4 0	...	555	0	0
1839	...	11,474	11 4	...	350	0	0
1840	...	23,296	15 4	...	4,622	17	2
1841	...	121,979	4 9	...	3,986	8	1
1842	...	37,747	6 1 $\frac{1}{2}$...	145	2	3

Total Expenditure £204,446 5 0 $\frac{1}{2}$

				£	s.	d.
Total Revenue from all sources,				616,895	11	8
Total Expenditure				459,411	5	0 $\frac{1}{4}$

Balance £157,484 6 7 $\frac{1}{2}$

This was the exact sum appropriated by N.S.W. from the legitimate revenues of the Port Phillip District. The following particulars of the census of Melbourne in 1841 will give a tolerable picture of the social condition of the people :—

Population—of Melbourne, 4479 ; of County of Bourke, 3241 ; of the District of Western Port, 1391 ; of Geelong, 454 ; of County of Grant, 336 ; of Portland, 597 ; and of County of Normanby, 1260.—Total, 11,728.

Houses—in Melbourne, 769 ; County of Bourke, including Newtown and Williamstown, 432, besides 67 huts ; District of Western Port, 110 ; Geelong, 81 ; County and District of Portland Bay, 100.—Total, 1559.

Religion.—Church of England, 6194 ; Church of Scotland, 2294 ; Wesleyan Methodists, 651 ; other Protestant Dissenters, 353 ; Roman Catholics, 1441 ; Jews, 59 ; Mahommedans and Pagans, 10.

Station in Life.—Employers of labour, including professions and trades, 1767 ; labourers of every description, 8926. Total, 10,693.

IV. *The Separation Movement.*—A public meeting on the exciting subject of separation, took place in Melbourne on 30th December 1840, in the store of Isaac Hind. The chair was occupied by William Verner, the first Commissioner of Insolvent Estates, a gentleman much respected at this period in Port Phillip, but who returned to England a short time afterwards. The leading merchants of Melbourne, as well as the lawyers, physicians, stock and land owners of the district, were present, and it was demonstrated in a gratifying degree that there existed a strong political cohesion amongst the colonists, and that public opinion was aroused on the all-important topic—the independence of Port Phillip. The best speaker on this occasion was Dr. Bernard, the author of *The Voyage of the Nemesis*, then resident in Melbourne ; he spoke about an hour. A correspondent thus mentions his address : "The language was good, pure, and energetic, and embraced every topic under consideration." The meeting was also addressed by Messrs. Barry, Cunninghame, Mollison, Arden, and one or two others, and the greatest unanimity prevailed. A petition to Her Majesty to allow a

separate Government for Port Phillip, and to preserve intact the boundaries as appointed by an Order in Council of 23rd May, was adopted and numerous signed. A great deal of public spirit was displayed by the colonists of Port Phillip at this period, and a strong effort was made to counteract the influence of the aristocracy of Sydney, which had been brought to bear on the Colonial Office in order to prevent the dismemberment of the colony. On 1st March 1841 another meeting was held in the store of T. McCabe, and a memorandum was unanimously adopted for distribution among Members of Parliament. It was carried to England by three colonists, Messrs. Yaldwin, Mercer, and Gardiner. This document was compiled with considerable ability, and was fully adequate for the intended purpose. It proceeded to controvert the misstatements in fact, and the fallacies in argument, which the inhabitants of the middle district had put forth in the course of their agitation for preventing the division of the colony. Those persons had objected to the dismemberment of the southern from the middle district of N.S.W. "because it would deprive the colonists of the advantages of social and political unity—they being at present like one great family, bound together by interest and sympathies." The Port Phillipians replied to this argument very happily. They said, "The inhabitants of the southern district recognise no force in this objection, no truth in the assertion which accompanies it; for what advantages can accrue to the inhabitants of a free colony from social or political unity with a penal settlement? Social unity does not now exist between the two portions of the colony, and it never can exist between two districts so widely different in their social origin. With regard to political unity, it is true that there is, *de facto*, a political unity, inasmuch as the affairs of both divisions of the colony are administered by the same Governor, and in the same Legislative Council, yet the political unity extends no further. It does not exist in sentiment, in opinion, or in interest. The colonists of Australia Felix care little for what has long been considered the great question by the elder colony that, viz., which respects the rights and social position of the emancipist population; they wish for no share in the supply of convict labour given to the middle district, and they are happily free from the violent religious disputes which disturb the peace of Sydney. The assertion that there exists between the two portions of the colony a community of interests and sympathies is a mere begging of the question at issue, and will not be conceded by the colonists of Port Phillip, who know that with the older colony they have few common interests, and no mutual sympathies." Another objection which the Sydney petitioners point out is "that the dismemberment would, in reality, leave the parent colony all but destitute of a land fund. The competing colonies would demand the application of their respective land funds to their own exclusive necessities;

immigration would therefore be drained from the parent colony, and be absorbed by the urgent necessities of her growing offspring." The colonists of the southern district joined issue with their opponents here, and showed the great injustice of the claim of the middle district to have any portion of the land fund of Port Phillip, particularly when, at this very time, there was not a single landowner and scarcely a single stockholder in that middle district who had not a certain number of convict servants assigned, while in the southern district assignment to private individuals was unknown, and there were so few on public works that many large landowners on the Sydney side had more prisoners of the Crown assigned to them than was awarded to the whole public service of Port Phillip. The middle district had lamented over their scanty land fund; in reference to this the Port Phillipians pertinently observed: "What, then, has become of those immense tracts of land in the middle district which were available as the source of a land fund? Partly they have been already sold and the proceeds applied to colonial purposes, and it seems scarce reasonable to expect both to spend these proceeds and to have them. Partly also they have been alienated in grants to the individual settlers of the middle district, and if this mode of disposal has not swelled the public coffers, it has at least served to enrich almost all the older settlers who now seek, at the expense and by the assistance of the southern district, to cultivate these very lands the free grant of which to themselves has deprived the older colony of these portions of its land fund." The Sydney petitioners had further attempted to show that the division of the colony would be a source of great inconvenience to some who resided in the middle district, but had sent stock up to graze in the southern province; they had moreover asserted a parental claim. But the Port Phillip memorial proves that they had nothing to do with the settlement of Port Phillip, and that the great bulk of the then colonists had not arrived from Sydney, but either direct from Britain or from V.D.L. It is of some consequence to history that the dispute, even at this early stage, should be set forth in its true colours. The Sydney people had more influence in Britain, but the Port Phillipians had the best of the argument. The concluding portion of the memorandum seems perfectly conclusive, and it is scarcely necessary to offer any apology for extracting it:—"But there is yet more to be said with regard to this question of separation. The Sydney petitioners affect to be taken by surprise by it, as if they had never before heard of the probability of such an event, as if they had seen no previous arrangements anticipative of such a course. Have they forgot that at the first Government recognition of the settlement of Port Phillip Governor Bourke announced for this district a new system of survey and land sales, viz., a system of continuous survey and periodical land sales—a system which was not

extended to any other of the newly-opened districts of the colony, but solely and peculiarly to the southern or Port Phillip district? And following up this peculiarity of regulation, Sir Richard Bourke announced, in repeated proclamations, that there should be no assignment of convicts to the new district, a proclamation which, with two or three individual exceptions, has been strictly adhered to. But if all this escaped their notice, how could they be blind to the fact that from the very outset the accounts of the provincial revenue and expenditure were kept distinct from the general revenue of the colony, and the burden of supporting the province during the first three years of its existence made a charge, not upon the colonial treasury, but on the revenue arising from the sale of the waste Crown lands? Did the petitioners, did the public of N.S.W., believe that all this speciality of regulation with regard to the new district was adopted without aim or object? or did they not perceive that this separated system which marked the new district was indicative and anticipative of a separated government, and that the colonists of Port Phillip were deprived of the advantages of convict labour only to save them as a future colony from the stain of having been a penal settlement?" The cause of the new settlement was warmly espoused by John Richardson, M.P., to whom the petition for separation had been entrusted. Lord John Russell however, and other persons of rank and influence, received the advances of the Port Phillip advocates rather coldly, and it was too evident that Sydney influence had been at work, and that it would be a hard struggle to obtain the boon so much longed for by the colonists of Port Phillip. In the early part of 1841 it was found necessary to appoint a resident judge to the Port Phillip district. It was anticipated that Mr. Stephen (afterwards Chief Justice of N.S.W.) would have been selected, but the choice fell on John Walpole Willis, at this time one of the puisne judges of the Supreme Court of N.S.W., a very accomplished gentleman and an unusually able lawyer. His father was the well-known Dr. Willis, rector of Wapping, who attended George the Third in his illness, and was celebrated for his skill in treating the insane. Judge Willis had been brought up to the legal profession, and had practised for some time in the Court of Chancery. He was afterwards nominated Puisne Judge of the Supreme Court of Upper Canada, from which office he was removed for expressing an opinion which was contrary to the legality of the constitution of that Court. The provincial Parliament of Upper Canada, after investigating the whole matter, adopted an address to the King, praying that he might be re-instated in the office of puisne judge. This document bears date 19th March 1829. He did not return to Canada however, but was soon after appointed Vice-President of the Court of Civil and Criminal Justice, and afterwards first puisne judge of British Guiana. In

1836 Willis was compelled to go to England in consequence of ill-health, and he was on the eve of returning to Guiana when he received the appointment of a puisne judgeship in N.S.W. He bore a good character in Sydney, but not being on the best of terms with his brother justices was very happy to be removed to Port Phillip to occupy the position of resident judge. Some indications of his peculiar temperament were received from the valedictory address he delivered from the Sydney Bench, of which the following will be a tolerable specimen:—"Here I have no near relation or connection whatever. I am not directly or indirectly concerned in any land or commercial speculation, or in any of the public companies of the colony, nor have I any relative or connection who is in any way interested in them. I have in fact no local connection or interest, save that which arises from a due sense of the sacred trust of duly and impartially administering that justice which I am sworn to discharge. I come not within the scope of Mr. Bentham's apprehensions. The danger and suspicion of partiality through private connections must cease when such connection does not exist. Fearlessly do I say, with Samuel, 'Behold, here I am, witness against me, before the Lord and before His anointed. Whose ox have I taken, or whose ass have I taken, or whom have I defrauded? whom have I aggressed? or of whose hand have I received a bribe to blind mine eyes therewith? and I will return it.'" From this quaint mode of expressing himself, it will be inferred that the first judge of Port Phillip was slightly eccentric in his behaviour. A writer in Sydney thus alludes to the appointment of Willis: "I have to congratulate you on the appointment of Justice Willis as Resident Judge at Port Phillip. His Honor is not the nicest observer of the proprieties of the world, but he is an able judge, and, what is still better, an honest man. As an equity lawyer his Honor has no equal in the Australian Colonies, and, though his opinions in common law cases have been frequently at variance with those of his learned brethren on the bench, they have always been such as to ensure the respect of the bar for his legal abilities, and the admiration of the public for his integrity." The above appears to have been the general impression entertained of the Judge in Sydney. He arrived at Melbourne on 10th March 1841 in the *Australasian Packet*. The limits in which the Supreme Court of Melbourne should exercise jurisdiction were declared to be the same as those in which La Trobe had been empowered to discharge the functions of Lieutenant-Governor, under the notice of 10th September 1839. Willis was a judge in some respects well adapted for the post for which he had been selected. The community had for some time been in existence without any court, and an amount of lawlessness had, as a matter of course, been engendered. A certain number of persons had pushed themselves

into prominence who did not very much regard either the law or the judge who administered it; money was beginning to be scarce, and those deeply indebted to their fellow-colonists were not always very scrupulous in their mode of evading payment; the lower orders had been drained from the neighbouring penal settlements, and a majority were expired, until the large free immigration of 1841 and 1842 gave the freemen an enormous preponderance; and the settlement required a judge of firm and resolute conduct. This Willis undoubtedly was; but he exhibited an unfortunate infirmity of temper that increased tenfold the animosities which, under any circumstances, would necessarily have been raised up against him. He had no sooner fairly entered on his duties and discharged some of the disagreeable functions of the bench than the newspapers began to criticise his conduct. He seemed very much to forget his dignity on such occasions, and condescended to enter into personal altercations with the editors. It was not unusual for his Honour to send for any delinquent of this kind and reprimand him. It must however be kept in view that the settlement was in a very peculiar condition at this period; that Willis saw a good deal of shuffling and knavery daily brought forward, and was doubtless actuated by the best motives. He was arbitrary, and disposed occasionally to interfere with the private concerns of individuals more than became a person of his exalted station. He reprimanded one of the members of the bar for keeping a stallion, and ridiculed another for sporting incipient moustaches. When he opened the Supreme Court he intimated that he would insist upon the attendance of justices of the peace at all future sittings of the Supreme Court in its criminal jurisdiction. He did this that they might learn something of their duties. The magistrates not attending as suggested, the Judge again stated that under the 9 Geo., 4 chap., 64 and 65, he had power to inflict a fine for non-attendance. He declared he would enforce this clause, and also have their names struck off the commission of the peace and others appointed in their stead if they did not obey him. In this manner did the Judge proceed, until he aroused a strong feeling of indignation against him amongst the gentry of the district, and which eventually led to his removal from the bench. The colony was at this time in some danger of being dismembered in a manner not very much in accordance with the desires of the people who then inhabited it. The Land and Emigration Commissioners, in a letter dated 7th July 1840, recommended that the Portland Bay District, including the fertile valleys of the Glenelg and the Wannon and the plain of the Grange, should be added to S.A. As might well be supposed, this proposition met with determined opposition, and was not carried out. The argument made use of by the Commissioners was, that unless the eastern boundary of S.A. was extended that dependency would not be able to support herself and pay off the debt she had already

contracted, and must come to be a burden on Britain. On 15th September 1841 a meeting of the colonists of Port Phillip was held in Melbourne, and resolutions embodying the general feeling against the proposed alteration were unanimously adopted. In opening the Legislative Council of N.S.W. in June 1841, the Governor said in his address: "I am not quite able to lay before you any documents respecting the separation of the two colonies." Alluding to the very large sum of £217,127 brought to the territorial revenue from Port Phillip, he stated that "this afforded to the older parts of the colony the means of replacing the labour and capital which the opening of Port Phillip had drained from them." The new settlement was indeed progressing with great rapidity. The Customs revenue for the first quarter of 1840 was £1597; for the first quarter of 1841 it was £5609. The total amount of ordinary revenue for the first quarter of 1840 was £3319; for the first quarter of 1841, £10,490. Matters progressed pretty much as usual with young countries till 1841, when its prosperity received a considerable check through a monetary crisis taking place, which operated injuriously on the colony, and which may be said to have lasted till 1848. At the same time the population continued to increase, and land settlement to extend, much greater attention being devoted to agriculture than formerly; so that in 1843 there were 12,973 acres under cultivation. In 1842 (12th August) Melbourne obtained a Municipal Corporation under 5 and 6 Vict. c. 66, Henry Condell, a brewer, being elected the first mayor. In 1841 an accident occurred to the passenger ship *Clonmel*, on her voyage from Sydney to Melbourne, which had no little influence on the fortunes of the rising colony. This ship left Sydney on 30th December 1840, and on the 2nd January following struck on the beach near Corner Inlet. There were ninety passengers on board at the time, including Goodwin, of the firm of Hamilton and Goodwin, Elizabeth-street; D. C. Simson, of the firm of Dutton, Simson and Darlot; Walker, an extensive miller in Hobart Town; and various other persons engaged in the usual industrial pursuits of the colonies. A boat left the vessel with the intention of proceeding to Melbourne, and was fortunately perceived by Captain Lewis, harbour master, who was returning from the wreck of the *Isabella* in the cutter *Sisters*. The circumstances which led to the wreck of the first-named vessel were never exactly ascertained; but it must have been an error in the compass. The *Clonmel* went ashore during a spring tide, and became imbedded in the sand at some distance from the outer edge of the sandspit. Several small vessels were despatched to Corner Inlet, and a regular communication by water was by this means established with that fertile district of V. An association to settle this district was formed, containing the names of several influential stock-owners, and a vessel named the *Singapore* was chartered

to convey the pioneers to the new country. The passage to Corner Inlet proved very tedious, and it was not until 13th February that the vessel arrived. The passengers attempted to effect a landing on the north-west side of Corner Inlet, but were unable to accomplish this; and after undergoing much fatigue were under the necessity of abandoning the attempt. They effected a landing in another quarter, and travelled along the shore in quest of a desirable spot to form a settlement, until they came to the wreck of the *Clonmel*. They traced the channel in boats and explored the country, which was discovered to be very favourable for settlement. The party, which consisted of Dr. Stewart, Messrs. Rankin, Kirsopp, Broadrib, Orr, Kinghorne, McLeod, and MacFarlane, landed their stock, and formed an encampment. They had a very narrow escape from the aborigines, but were saved by the adroitness of their aboriginal guide, Charlie, who had previously attended Count Strzelecki on his perilous journeys through the district. Gippsland had been discovered in 1839 by Angus Macmillan, who at a public dinner given to him at Port Albert in March 1856, gave the following account of circumstances attending the discovery:—"In February 1839 I arrived at Carravong, Maneroo, having received instructions from M'Alister to look out for stations. I heard from the natives that there was to the south-west of Buchan (a place discovered by Bayliss) a fine country. I got Jemmy Gibber, chief of the Maneroo tribe, to obtain all the information he could from the old black, who affirmed he was once there, and on 26th May 1839, Jemmy volunteered to accompany me. I provided myself with arms, and also provisions for four weeks; in four days reached a hill, which I named Mount M'Leod, now called the Haystack, from the summit of which I had a bird's-eye view of the country lying between me and Corner Inlet, and of the long beach stretching to the south-west. My friend was beginning to get alarmed, and wished to return, but seeing me determined to proceed he threatened to leave me. On this night I was nearly paying dearly for placing so much confidence in my companion. Whilst lying at the camp-fire I was aroused by the circumstance of his raising his club to strike me. I had just time to present my pistol to his breast. He begged hard for his life, saying he dreamt a blackfellow was taking away his gin, and he wanted to kill him. I was satisfied that he intended to kill me, and report that I had been killed by the blacks of the district. Next morning started for Omeo; arrived there in six days. It was a very rough journey: was more determined than ever to explore the country, and form a station as near to it as possible. While at Omeo gleaned the intelligence that Walter Mitchell, a nephew of M'Farlane, had been as far as Bruthen, but had discovered no country worth occupying. I then started for Clifton, the station of M'Alister, and received from that gentleman every encouragement to explore the country, and find my way

to Corner Inlet. After many unsuccessful attempts I again, on 9th February 1841, formed a party, with instructions from M'Alister to abandon the country unless I could find a road to the Inlet; and we started from our station—which we had formed on the Avon—this time with the determination to accomplish it or die in the attempt. On the 10th crossed the Thompson, and the Glen-garry on the 11th; on the 14th discovered the Old Port, and marked a road from thence to the Plains. In May following came down from the Avon with a dray. Great credit is due to the driver, James Lawrence, and in fact to all my companions, who whenever an expedition was talked of were always eager to accompany me. I am proud and happy to see one of them here present, who shared with me many hardships and privations. For sixteen months, during two years, we never slept on a bed, and were deprived of many comforts of life, even the luxury of a tent. In my expeditions I had no other guide than a pocket compass, and a copy of Flinders' chart of the coast. With regard to the natives, who at that time were numerous, I will mention that at first they were very terrified at the sight of white men. On one occasion some of them approached our party, and as I dismounted to salute them they all set up yelling, and ran away. Since then I have learnt that they imagined that the horse and rider were one. On another occasion, after saluting us by a shake of the hand, they conferred the same honour on the horse by shaking his bridle. After we had been at the station, which we formed on the Avon, some time, they attacked us in a body, compelling us to leave the district; we however by force of arms again regained our station, and kept possession. Count Strzelecki, a Pole, has also claimed the discovery of Gipps Land, but I leave it to the public to decide. On March 7th 1840 he called at my station, where he was supplied with provisions, and a camp kettle. M'Alister went a day's journey with him; told him the name I gave the country (Caledonia Australis) and described where he might cross the rivers." Under the new regulations already referred to, the special survey system, which had until 1841 been confined to S.A., was incorporated with the land regulations of Port Phillip. A person paying £5120 into the Treasury might fix upon any portion of the unreserved territory, and require the authorities to survey eight square miles, subject to the provisions as to extent of water frontage, and depth of back run. On 8th June of that year it was notified by the Superintendent that eight special surveys, of the size indicated, had been applied for in the Port Phillip district; and it shows the high opinion that the colonists of that day had formed of Gipps Land, when it is mentioned that three out of the eight special surveys were applied for in that locality. The whole eight were applied for between 17th March and 1st May 1841, and their boundaries were as follows:—(1.) F. W. Unwin, 5120 acres, county of Bourke, parish of Bulleen; bounded on

the north by the Yarra Yarra River ; on the west by portion No. 1, containing 1019 acres ; on the south by Koonung Koonung Creek ; and on the east by a line bearing north from the said creek to the river. (2.) H. Dendy, 5120 acres, county of Bourke ; bounded on the west by the sea-coast of the Port Phillip Bay ; on the north by the five-mile Melbourne reserve, and on the east and south by lines to include the quantity. (3.) W. Rutledge, 5120 acres, on Powlett and Green's runs, near the Sydney-road ; bounded on one side by a creek, and on all others by lines to include the quantity. (4.) J. Orr, 5120 acres, about fourteen miles from Corner Inlet, on the east bank of the River Albert, to include the quantity. (5.) W. Rutledge, 5120 acres, near Corner Inlet ; bounded on the west by the river known as the Albert by the gentlemen who have lately explored the Gipps Land country. (6.) H. Jamieson, 5120 acres, between Mount Martha and Arthur's Seat, including Hobson's Flats ; bounded on the west by Port Phillip Bay, and on all other sides by lines to include the area. (7.) H. Elgar, 5120 acres, county of Bourke, partly in the parish of Boroondara ; bounded on the north by Koonung Koonung Creek ; on the west by the section line which divides portions Nos. 2 and 3 from portion 1, in the parish of Bulleen ; on the east by the section line which divides portion 4 from portion 5, in the parish of Bulleen ; and on the south by a line to include the quantity. (8.) J. Reeve, 5102 acres, near Corner Inlet, situated on the east bank of the Yarra. The various localities where those special surveys were situated are still at the present day the chief sources of agricultural production. Unwin's survey at Bulleen, Dendy's at Brighton, Elgar's at Boroondara, and Rutledge's at Kilmore are all densely settled ; and the like may be said of Atkinson's at Port Fairy, and various other surveys taken up after this date. The success which has attended the efforts of capitalists to open up and civilise the country demonstrate too clearly the impolicy of the Government in long keeping the lands of the colony shut up among a few monopolists. Governor Gipps visited Port Phillip in October 1843. By this time a great change had come over the settlement. It had gone through a crisis. The land speculations by this time had all subsided, leaving the place none the richer for the general extravagance that accompanied them. The colonists had boasted of endless profits by their dealings with one another in land allotments. So sure seemed the basis, that not a few could and actually did clear out with the hard money, while most of the remainder had been spending their profits right nobly. But when the high prices proved only temporary, and these profits to be based on a fiction, the expenditure remained real and irrevocable, and was simply the loss of so much of the capital that had come into the place. The colonists however were in good heart withal, and they gave Sir George Gipps a public dinner, at which they made as imposing and creditable an

appearance as the accommodations of their juvenile capital would permit. The Governor commented on the change that had come over a scene so lately alive with speculation and reputed money-making. He said that he found the outskirts of Melbourne strewn with empty champagne bottles. The colony nevertheless was improving socially as well as materially. The writer in the *Argus* thus describes it in 1845 :—"The population of Port Phillip has risen to 31,280. Upwards of 25,000 acres of land have been brought into cultivation ; the imports have increased in value, until they have nearly reached a quarter of a million sterling ; and the exports have also expanded to nearly half a million. The pastoral tenants of the Crown possess 9289 horses, 231,602 head of cattle and 1,792,527 sheep. The export of wool has attained the respectable dimensions of 6,841,813 lbs., and we have discovered that by boiling down a portion of our redundant flocks we can produce large quantities of valuable tallow, of which we send away this year 846,155 lbs. There are fourteen post-offices in the province, and we have built three small vessels in the Yarra. On an average as many as five craft of 100 tons each enter the harbour every week, and altogether we are getting on, although this is by no means a prosperous year. There is more activity in the criminal court than elsewhere, for a great many ticket-of-leave holders have found their way to Melbourne from N.S.W. and T., and their depredations bring them into contact with Justice Therry and the four members of the local bar, Messrs. Stawell, Barry, Williams, and Croke, three of whom are subsequently elevated to the bench. Superintendent Latrobe occupies a cottage upon a pretty eminence some distance from the town which he calls Jolimont, and where he gives pleasant little dinner parties to a necessarily small and select circle of friends. One or two cottages have been erected amidst the sylvan seclusion of the Eastern-hill, and green paddocks stretch between it and the courthouse. Sheep are grazing upon the thick grass growing upon a portion of the town containing a few isolated houses, and exhibiting a signboard marked "This is Bourke-street." There is a diminutive theatre which is open for performances twice a week. Two branches of Sydney banks have established themselves in Melbourne, and there is a solitary jeweller's shop in Collins-street, furnished with "a scanty supply of second-hand watches and pinchbeck brooches." There is no cab-stand, but an enterprising townsman has two carriages on hire, the use of either of which may be had for a wedding or a funeral at the rate of fifteen shillings a day. If you walk down to Liardet's Beach, taking care not to tread upon one of the venomous snakes with which the ti-tree scrub abounds, you may see a couple of merchantmen, three brigs, and some smaller craft lying at anchor in the bay, and you may hear the voices of a good many sailors in the one hotel erected near the jetty. There is a little village

opposite called Williamstown; and there are the beginnings of a seaside township further down the bay on its north shore. Emerald Hill has also been selected as an eligible site for building on by persons to whom a low-priced allotment is an object. The Market Commission, which formerly controlled the town of Melbourne, has been replaced for the last three years by a corporation; and there are three newspapers—the *Herald*, the *Patriot*, and the *Gazette*, which contrive to fan the flames of party feeling, and are conducted very much in the spirit of the two journals in Eatanswill. National and religious feuds divide the small community, which has so little commerce with the outer world that it is driven to concentrate its attention upon local matters, and these naturally assume a disproportionate magnitude in the estimation of the quarrelsome townsmen. Fortunately, the two principal religious denominations are represented by exemplary and pacific clergymen—the Rev. Mr. Thomson, who is the minister of the Church of England, and the Rev. Dr. Geoghegan, afterwards Roman Catholic Bishop of Adelaide, and the latter divine more particularly conciliates the respect and esteem of men of all beliefs by the benevolence of his disposition, the suavity of his manners, and the unaffected goodness of his daily life.”

IV. *The Separation Movement.*—The Act 5 and 6 Victoria c. 76, which came into operation in 1843, provided that in N.S.W. there should be a Legislative Council to consist of thirty-six members; twenty-four to be elected by the colonists and twelve to be nominated by the Crown. The Governor, with the advice and consent of this body, had authority to make laws for the peace, welfare and good government of the colony, provided they were not repugnant to the laws of England. The whole management of the crown lands and the revenues derived from them continued still under the sole control of the Crown. It was provided by the new act that the inhabitants of every county of N.S.W., or such divisions or districts as the Governor should see fit, should be incorporated, and that councils should be established in every such district for the local government thereof. The town of Melbourne and city of Sydney were incorporated by Act of Council in 1842, so that the people were called upon nearly at the same moment to elect both legislative and municipal representatives. The district of Port Phillip was allowed six members, as its proportion in a council composed of thirty-six. “It would have been well for the people,” says McCombie, “if they had refused this sham representation, which instead of being of the slightest benefit, became actually the reverse, as the northern district now plundered Port Phillip with her own apparent consent.” The first representative members elected were Ebdon, Dr. Lang, Condell, Walker, Thompson and Nicholson. The first Town Council of Melbourne consisted of the following members:—Henry Condell, Mayor

and alderman; A. Russell, H. W. Mortimer, and W. Kerr, aldermen; D. S. Campbell, G. James, J. Orr, J. P. Fawkner, J. T. Smith, Dickson, Beaver, and Patterson. J. C. King, Town Clerk. The council was elected by £20 householders, and the Mayor by the Council. “The Corporation,” writes Westgarth, “were excusably alarmed as they, for the first time, with corporate official eyes, glanced over their field of labour. For seven years the streets of the capital had run riot in wear and tear, natural and artificial, excepting where, here and there, some small expenditure had been doled out by the distant Sydney Government. The stumps of huge gum trees still diversified the thoroughfares, and were the cause of many mishaps, by day as well as by night. On occasions of rain, a river coursed through the town, and meeting no drains or other artifices of later times, it tore up for itself a bed of most ominous dimensions, which was the terror of toppers and night-larkers. Commencing its casual course about a mile outside to the north, it careered unrestrained to the river Yarra, along the entire length of Elizabeth-street. This casual stream was of such noticeable dimensions and doings as to be identified by a name of its own—the ‘Williams.’ The streets generally were in a sad mess; and from the wharf at one side to the ‘bush’ at the other the ups and downs, the ruts and holes, were past all counting. Without the town too the state of things was in some directions worse than within, for the circumnambulations of the Williams and several of its lesser rivals had so rent the surface where the traffic had removed the original protecting grass, that to ride or drive into or out of Melbourne was as precarious a pilotage as that of the most dangerous of seaports. From all this confusion Melbourne soon emerged a most presentable specimen of the successful result of municipal labours, and a striking instance of the use and value of municipal institutions. A moderate and usual rating of from sixpence to one shilling per pound on the yearly value of town property, together with market and other customary dues, had been sufficient to meet the demands upon the corporation during the first eight years, until the era of the gold-fields. Then indeed these ordinary means were no longer adequate to keep pace with the requirements arising from the sudden and great expansion of population and business. The traffic of the existing streets increased tenfold; while the town, expanding in every direction, invaded the virgin grass outside with alignments for additional streets, which, within a few weeks or months of these preliminary projections, were ploughed up with the traffic of an entirely new district of Melbourne, occupied by a new roll of citizens. A climax of difficulty was involved in the fact that the riches of the mines, and the scarcity of labouring hands, made money to be comparatively powerless; so that a pound sterling could scarcely be computed at a value of five shillings, when its present position was weighed

in the balance of its former power and consideration. A wail of despair arose simultaneously from a thousand draymen, carters, and cabmen, or more properly from the public, that eventually makes good from its pocket any disadvantage to its servants. In the year 1854, when the crisis had reached its worst, the Government stepped forth to the aid of the corporation, and a public loan of £500,000 was negotiated on their behalf; at the same time there was a similar loan for £200,000 procured for Geelong, which town, with the great gold-field of Ballarat at its back, had fallen into the same chequered category of riches, expansion, and inconvenience. These large sums in spite of all obstacles accomplished marvels for the respective localities. In the neat and finished condition of its streets Melbourne now rivals any of the time-honoured capitals of the old world, and it greatly surpasses not a few, and among them most if not all the towns approaching its own dimensions in the mother-country." The battle of separation was a warm topic in its day. No man was inclined, but at any rate none dared, to talk lightly of it. Every elected member of Council sent up to Sydney was sworn on the altar of separation. Even Sydney residents could not escape this ordeal. They well knew the terms, and also that the Port Phillip doorway was an easy entrance to the legislature if they were sound, or passed as such, on "the main question." In fact, it very soon appeared that, owing to the inconvenience and expense arising from the great distance between the two parts of the colony, very few Port Phillip residents would ever attempt the representation of their District—a circumstance that was one of the best arguments in the case. Conversation and newspapers were daily replete with the question. One leading Melbourne citizen of the time literally gave up his life to it, and found so many "reasons for separation," that it was feared the Home Government would lose its way in the mazes of so long a document, and thus the case be lost through its very completeness. Edward Curr, a gentleman of good abilities, freely and disinterestedly devoted himself to public objects, or rather to this one public object of the time. He died but a short while before the completion of the object he had so earnestly toiled for. Although the colonists were thus impatient on this question, its successive phases were presented at no lingering pace. The separation movement was formally inaugurated by a public meeting at Melbourne only five years after Fawcner's party had inaugurated Melbourne itself; and after eleven years more the whole business was finally and successfully settled. The first public meeting, as already stated, took place in the year 1840, and was held in Hind's store at the south-east corner of the Market Square. The edifice, of enviable dimensions for its day, was of wood like nearly all its contemporaries. With the aid of various props and repairs, alterations and additions, the fragile

fabric lingered to a good old age far into the colony's history, and outliving by some years the controversy it had served to commence. It was swept away to make room for Goldsborough's wool warehouse. The next step of importance was four years later and proceeded from a Sydney resident, one of those who had been elected to represent Port Phillip. This was the Rev. Dr. Lang. Early in the session of 1844 Dr. Lang moved:—"That an humble address be presented to Her Majesty praying that she will be graciously pleased to direct that the requisite steps may be taken for the speedy and entire separation of the district of Port Phillip from the territory of N.S.W., and its erection into a separate and independent colony." This motion was seconded by Joseph Phelps Robertson, who had, on the resignation of Condell, been elected without opposition as member for Melbourne, and supported by all the Port Phillip members. On the vote being taken it was lost by nineteen to six; all the members with one exception voting against the motion, except those who represented Port Phillip. The exception was rather a marked one; the member who recorded his vote in favour of Port Phillip with the representatives of the Southern District was Robert Lowe, then a Government nominee and very little known, but who was afterwards returned by the constituencies of Cook, St. Vincent and Sydney as their representative, and distinguished himself in the Legislative Council of N.S.W. as the opponent of the squatting system. This vote was unmistakable evidence that the people of Port Phillip had nothing to expect from the Legislative Council of N.S.W. At the suggestion of Dr. Lang, a petition was prepared and signed by the six representatives of the district and early in January 1845 presented by them to Sir George Gipps, in order that it might be transmitted to the Secretary of State for the Colonies for presentation to Her Majesty. A letter was received from Lord Stanley in the month of December of the same year, addressed to the Governor, acknowledging the petition and stating that Her Majesty had received it very graciously; but directing him to cause the Port Phillip members to be examined before the Executive Council, as well as any other witnesses the Council might think fit to hear on the subject. The Executive Council did as desired and reported in favour of the separation. Port Phillip was much indebted to Dr. Lang for his indefatigable exertions on this occasion, and that gentleman happening soon after to visit the district, he was invited to a dinner, or "Separation Festival," as it was termed, which came off in the Queen's Theatre in Queen-street on 11th February 1846. In this ovation, men of all classes, creeds and countries willingly joined; and no guest ever received a more flattering reception than did Dr. Lang from both his political friends and opponents. The chair was occupied by Alderman Moor, and amongst the company were observed all the clergy of the

district and the editors of the local newspapers. The colonists anticipated that no delay would now prevent the consummation they so devoutly wished for from taking place; but time passed on and separation appeared as far off as ever. The petition of the Port Phillip members brought the subject prominently before the Imperial authorities at this time; but Lord Stanley went out and was succeeded by a Secretary of State to whom the question was new; so that very little progress was made until the non-election movement, several years later, demonstrated to the inert politicians of Downing-street that Port Phillip would not be any longer trifled with, and that unless her just claims to be formed into an independent colony were recognised, and she were entrusted with the direction of her own affairs, she would violently rend asunder the ties which bound her, without either the assent or assistance of the parent state. About the time that the motion of Dr. Lang was so rudely rejected by the Legislative Council of N.S.W., a great public meeting was held in Melbourne. This event took place on the 4th June 1844, and was termed the "squatters' meeting," because resolutions condemning Sir George Gipps's squatting policy were carried unanimously, and because the squatters mustered on horseback at Batman's Hill, headed by Captain John Harrison (who at this period occupied a station on the Plenty,) and as a demonstration rode in procession to the meeting, which was held in front of the Mechanics' Institution. The majority of the speakers on the occasion were squatters, and a gentleman who some years after violently opposed the squatting system, seconded a resolution. This meeting was remarkable, exhibiting that up to that date nearly the whole influence of Port Phillip, nay, of the colony of N.S.W. was bound up in squatting. The persons who took a part in the proceedings were Isaac Buchanan, William Hull, Edward Curr, Adolphus Goldsmith, Archibald Cunningham, Claude Farie, Captain Hepburn, John Aitken, John MacCready, C. H. McKnight, Dr. Kilgour, Alexander Sproat, Henry Kent Hughes, J. H. Pyke, Dr. Playne, Edmund McNeil, J. Montgomery, Captain Webster, James Johnstone, Captain Harrison, Laurence Rostron, and Major Firebrace. It had been the original intention of those who called the meeting that it should have been held in the lecture room of the Mechanics' Institution, but as a large number of squatters rode to the meeting, and as the numbers who attended far exceeded the limits of the interior of the building it was held in the open air, the speakers addressing the audience from the low parapet which at this time stood in front of the institution. The chair was occupied by A. P. Mollison, who desired that no display of physical force should be made, but that they should deliberate calmly upon their grievances. It singularly exemplifies the public feeling at this time, that the only opposition was from Kent Hughes and Pyke, who moved an amendment

to the effect that the disposal of Crown lands should be vested in the Legislature instead of the Governor. This amendment, which was a step in the direction of popular government, had scarcely a solitary supporter. A very strong resolution in favour of separation was carried unanimously. In October 1844 the Yarra river was flooded to a greater height than had ever been seen, even by aborigines. On the first of that month the waters were observed to rise very suddenly, and in the course of the following night they swept over the flats around the city. The utmost consternation prevailed amongst those who resided in the swamps on both sides of the river on finding their abodes insulated from the city and surrounding country. They began to remove such of their property as was portable. The residences of the settlers were swept away by the rush of water along the banks of the river; and the lower portions of Melbourne adjoining the Yarra were submerged, and all communication had to be carried on by boats. The steps on the old Custom House formed a jetty on which persons landed, and who passing through the building arrived on terra firma in a line with Flinders lane. The stores and foundries were flooded, and much damage was done to property. A boat starting from about Flinders-lane in the city, could be steered across the flats straight to Liardet's Beach, near where the Railway Jetty now stands at Sandridge. Several persons were missing, who it was supposed were lost in this great inundation. The Ovens and most of the other rivers overflowed their banks, and many lives were lost. Towards the close of 1849 Port Phillip was again subjected to severe inundations. The floods in the various rivers led to the loss of many valuable lives and much property. The lower portions of Melbourne and the flats and swamps around it were submerged. A person could on this occasion take his stand on the crest of Batman's Hill, and look on little else than a vast sea, turn in whichever direction he thought proper. Property of every kind was swept away, and the damage done by the Yarra alone was incalculable. The whole of the small farmers on the banks of this river were utterly ruined by the event. The following statistics of the capital of the district of Port Phillip in 1844 appeared in the *Port Phillip Gazette* of 11th May of that year; it is interesting as exhibiting the progress that it had made from its settlement to the period stated:—

12,073 acres land reclaimed, grubbed,			
fenced and cultivated, at £10	£120,730
Crop on do., at £5	60,365
4,540 horses, at £15	68,100
92,493 horned cattle, at £3	277,479
2,840 pigs, at £1	2,840
1,417,422 sheep, at 7s.	496,097
One year's clip of wool on its way to			
England, say 3,500,000 lbs., at 1s. per lb.			175,000
Buildings, fences on farms, stations, includ-			
ing Geelong, Portland, Richmond, &c.			600,000

Chattel property, goods, floating capital, shares, stores on stations, &c. ...	£450,000
Agricultural implements ...	3,000
Value of property in the town of Mel- bourne ...	385,235

Making a total of ... £2,638,846

This calculation was based on sufficient data, with the exception of the item "floating capital;" the stock, land in cultivation, wool, &c., were all taken from official returns, and the prices were fair at the period; the property in the town of Melbourne was taken from the valuation by the Town Council. The Sydney press were astonished at the wealth that a handful of settlers in the new district had accumulated in a few years, and endeavoured to make it appear a vainglorious boast; it was however undoubtedly as nearly correct as it was possible to frame such a return. In 1844 Port Phillip was selected as a proper field for an experiment in "secondary punishments;" and in the latter part of that year a number of exiles from the new model prison at Pentonville were landed at Melbourne. The punishment of criminals, by imprisonment in Britain in the first instance, and banishment afterwards to some of the colonies, was brought forward by Earl Grey, and it had come to be considered a matter of national importance, and was receiving the serious attention of those who had taken an interest in colonisation and the reformation of criminals. A wide difference of feeling existed amongst the colonists of Port Phillip as to the propriety of allowing such persons to be introduced; public opinion for the first time divided, and two parties started into existence; it was clearly demonstrated that the interests of the squatters and townspeople were very far from being identical. Previous to the considerable free immigration of 1841, there were comparatively few who had come to Port Phillip direct from Europe. The population consisted mainly of adventurers from V.D.L. and N.S.W. The tone of morality was pretty much on a par with that of the two colonies from which the first settlers had been drawn. A number of young men—sons of respectable settlers in N.S.W. and V.D.L.—had adopted Port Phillip as their home; and this class began early to receive considerable accessions from England. In 1841 and 1842 the large free immigration at the expense of the land fund took place; the majority of those who arrived at this period were of a superior order; they formed public opinion and gave a tone to the society of the district. From this time the decline of the influence of the expiree order is to be dated. Indeed it was soon the interest of all of them, who could conveniently accomplish it, to throw a veil on their career in the penal settlements. In 1842 the population might be thus described:—The educated and respectable classes, many of whom had settled on the Crown domains and in some cases on purchased lands; the free working classes and tradesmen,

introduced at the cost of the land fund; and the expirees and their families who had come from the neighbouring colonies. Many of the free immigrants were settled in industrious pursuits, and although originally introduced by the land fund as labourers were already in a position to employ workmen. There was at this time unlimited space for stock; and flocks and herds increased at an amazing rate; land was cultivated in favourable situations; and business was increasing in the towns; but the great want of manual labour began to be very generally experienced, and as the land fund had become so low as to be utterly inadequate for supplying the district with any immigration, there was no probability of any free labour arriving from England. The settlers were once more under the necessity of having recourse to the neighbouring convict colonies. There were generally expirees arriving in considerable numbers from V.D.L., but in several cases subscriptions were raised in order to give them free passages across Bass Straits. The population was again deteriorated by this impure stream, but it was found impossible to check the influx of felony by legislative influence. The *Royal George* anchored in Hobson's Bay on 16th November 1844 with the first exiles. This vessel had several respectable colonists on board, who had carefully watched these men and who gave them an excellent character. No sooner however was it known that they had actually been criminals than a portion of the press denounced the system in the most violent language, and the indignation of the working classes was aroused to the highest pitch at the prospect of a speedy reduction in the rates of labour. The Town Council of Melbourne commenced the agitation against the exiles by passing a resolution in which it adopted a petition to the Legislature praying protection from the threatened inundation of convicts. There were many of the most intelligent colonists however who deemed this sudden condemnation of these strangers quite unmerited. Messrs. Black and Yaldwin, who had arrived from England in the *Royal George*, and who had devoted some attention to the subject, were disposed to view the exiles as a far less objectionable class than the off-scourings of the penal colonies. The former gentleman had moreover an interview with Lord Stanley, the Colonial Minister, and had urgently pressed him to assist the colony with free labour until the land sales could be resumed. That nobleman had however replied that it was quite useless to ask anything that required money from the Home Government, as such requests could not be granted. Acting upon these impressions, a public meeting of the inhabitants was held on 17th December in the Royal Hotel in order to induce the Imperial Government to take such steps as were necessary for forwarding exiles accustomed to rural pursuits to the country districts of Port Phillip. The chair was occupied by Major Firebrace and the meeting was addressed by Drs. Bernard and Palmer

Messrs. Carr, Foster, Cunninghame, Black and Hughes, who advocated the introduction of the exiles, and by Kerr, Broadfoot and McCulla, who opposed the measure. The following resolution was carried :—"That in the absence of the ordinary means of obtaining free immigration and to check the introduction of expiree convicts from Van Diemen's Land, it will be beneficial to the province of Port Phillip to receive the exiles." But the opponents of the measure were not satisfied with the result and resolved upon holding an opposition meeting in the Royal Exchange hotel. The working classes mustered in great numbers on that occasion, and resolutions condemning the Government for sending exiles were carried almost unanimously. It was remarked that no class were so much against the introduction of exiles as the old convicts, who could hardly be expected to be actuated by purely moral motives; indeed the question assumed a good deal the character of a dispute between the employers and the employed. The Home authorities forwarded several vessels with exiles in the early part of 1845, but finding that the public feeling was still against the experiment, they ordered them to be sent to V.D.L. A sad catastrophe occurred in August 1845 in Bass Straits. The only emigrant ship that had been despatched from Britain that season was wrecked, and the whole of the emigrants amounting to 423 were lost with the exception of nine. So disastrous a shipwreck has seldom occurred, and as the emigrants were urgently required in the district the loss was incalculable, and the colonists were overpowered with regret at the event, which was instantly recognised as a great national misfortune. In 1845 two public meetings were held in Melbourne. The first took place on the 11th September, and was held to consider the propriety of petitioning the Imperial Parliament for the admission of Australian grain into British ports upon the same terms as had been conceded to that produced in Canada. It was but thinly attended, and all the resolutions were passed unanimously. The other meeting which was of very considerable importance, was held on the 28th September, and was attended by all the leading gentlemen of Port Phillip. It was convened by the Mayor, pursuant to a requisition signed by a number of influential colonists, and was for the purpose of taking into consideration the necessity of petitioning for separation from N.S.W. A committee of the most respectable colonists was formed to watch the progress of the movement. The meeting appointed Archibald Cunninghame as delegate, in order that he might proceed to England to carry out the views of the colonists; and a committee was appointed to frame the petition to Parliament, and instructions for the guidance of the delegate. Before separating the meeting instructed the chairman to forward a copy of the proceedings to Lord Stanley, the Secretary of State for the Colonies, with a request that he would not proceed to pledge the Crown

lands of Port Phillip jointly with those of the middle districts until the arrival of the agent who had that day been nominated to proceed to Britain. Cunninghame was a barrister at Port Phillip, and rather a prominent politician at this period. He did not return to the colony, but died at Thornton, in Ayrshire, Scotland, his native place, in 1856. In July 1846, a riot occurred in Melbourne which kept the citizens in a state of excitement for more than a week. The members of the Orange Society had resolved to celebrate the anniversary of the battle of the Boyne by a festival in the Pastoral Hotel. The building was decorated for the occasion, and Orange flags projected from the windows which fronted Queen-street. This display aroused the ire of the Roman Catholic population who assembled in hundreds round the hotel, many arriving armed. The Mayor having been apprised of the disturbance hastened to the spot. He ordered the door of the hotel to be opened and entered for the purpose of quelling the riot, but the Roman Catholics now finding an entrance, rushed through the hall-way towards the staircase, where they were met by the Orangemen, and a regular scuffle took place. Those in front fired into the hotel and were quickly replied to from the Orangemen in the building. At this moment the Rev. Dr. Geoghegan arrived on the spot and attempted to restrain the Roman Catholics. Perceiving that the reverend gentleman was in great danger, John O'Shanassy and Hurley went towards him to get him out of the situation he was in, when the latter was shot in the shoulder. Another man, drinking a glass of ale in the St. John's Tavern opposite, was wounded in the cheek; the shot having entered through the bar window. The riot was now at its height; the doors, windows and furniture of the hotel were demolished; the one party attacking the building and endeavouring to force an entrance, the other defending every inch of ground. Fortunately the military were obtained, and through their interference peace was restored; the Roman Catholics were induced to disperse by the promise of the magistrates that the dinner should not be allowed to take place that evening. There were three or four persons severely wounded in the riot. A number of Justices of the Peace assembled in the Police office, and several of the Orange party were taken into custody and were bound over to keep the peace. William Hinds, who was charged with firing the shot which wounded Hurley, was committed to take his trial but admitted to bail. The town was alarmed the whole of that night by skirmishings between the individuals attached to the various factions, and on the following day the two parties were assembled in different quarters of the city. The Superintendent and magistrates consulted on the best line of conduct to be adopted and agreed to disperse the rioters. The whole of the hotels were ordered to be closed; many of the shops were shut, and as it was a dense fog the town presented a dreary enough appearance. The

police and military were called out, and having formed in Market-street, proceeded along Collins-street and Elizabeth-street to a hotel in Flinders-lane where fifty Orangemen were assembled, who immediately dispersed. The cavalcade next marched out to the top of Elizabeth-street where the Roman Catholic party to the number of eighty were drawn up; after some hesitation, the whole were prevailed upon to disband and go back to their avocations. The town was put under martial law for the night, and the soldiers bivouacked in Collins-street opposite the Royal Exchange Hotel, where the Bank of New South Wales now stands. It was something new and striking to see their watch-fires blazing in the middle of the main street of the usually quiet town. Next morning a number of persons who were ringleaders in the riots were bound over to keep the peace; and in a few days Melbourne resumed its wonted quiet and orderly aspect. The magistrates were censured for their conduct upon the occasion, but probably they acted as well as any other body of men who had been so placed would have done. This fracas was the occasion of the building of the Protestant Hall, in which the Orange festivals are now held. There were public meetings in 1846 for obtaining a supply of labour from V.D.L.—against some proposed squatting regulations—to extend the jurisdiction of the Court of Requests to £30—for promoting immigration by rendering ship-building safer—and for the purpose of rescuing the white woman supposed to be detained as a prisoner by a tribe of aborigines in Gipps Land. The meeting in connection with the supposed detention of a white woman by the Gipps Land blacks resulted in a party being sent there in quest of the supposed prisoner. From an early period in the history of Port Phillip this rumour had prevailed. By many persons the unfortunate female was said to be a Miss Lord, the eldest daughter of John Lord, a merchant of Sydney, who in the course of a voyage from Britain to N.S.W. had been wrecked on the coast, and made a prisoner by the natives. A reward of £1000 was offered by her relations, but no authentic intelligence could be learned of her fate. As time wore on rumors were circulated by the other tribes that a young lady, answering to the description of Miss Lord, was a prisoner with the blacks, and a native trooper announced in 1836 that he had seen the lady, and that she was kept a close prisoner. Many persons on the other hand thought that the white woman was a Miss McPherson, who also was wrecked on the same coast about that period. The party however did not discover any traces of the prisoner, as unfortunately there arose a difference of opinion amongst its leaders in reference to how far the law would protect them in any engagement they might have with the aborigines. This was a most important point, which those who had organised the expedition had apparently overlooked. In consequence of having strong doubts about how far the law would justify them, the party never

actually attempted to rescue the unfortunate prisoner. On 28th April 1847 a severe shock of earthquake was felt at Port Phillip, about four o'clock in the afternoon. The sensation to those inside their houses was exactly like that of a heavy body being violently thrown down in the upper portion of the buildings. It was less felt in the open air. In the Supreme Court, where a squatting boundary case—*Taylor and McPherson v. Sutherland*—was being tried before the Resident Judge and a special jury, the panic was considerable, and the Court was adjourned. The shock was severely felt in the lower portions of Melbourne, particularly about Elizabeth-street. There had been a previous earthquake in this colony in April 1841. In anticipation of separation it was announced in the beginning of 1848 that Her Majesty had been graciously pleased to allow Port Phillip, when erected into an independent colony, to be named after herself, and that instead of continuing to be called Port Phillip the Southern District should have the popular and world-wide name of Victoria—a name endeared to every subject in her dominions. In 1847 the Rev. Charles Perry D.D. was appointed Bishop of Melbourne; he arrived in the *Stag* on 23rd January 1848, and was installed on the 28th of the same month in the cathedral church of St. James's, Melbourne. On 13th February Her Majesty's letters patent were read in St. Peter's Church, which constituted Melbourne a Bishop's See. On 9th March 1847 the celebrated Orders in Council, under the authority of an Act of Parliament (9 and 10 Victoria, c. 104,) were issued. The early squatters had to contend with many difficulties, dangers and privations. To succeed they had to be adventurous and to wander far away into the untrodden wilderness in order to obtain ground which was still unoccupied on which to graze their flocks and herds. They lived in semi-barbarous regions far from civilisation; they had no society, and generally speaking saw no person from year to year, with the exception of a few ignorant shepherds; their habitations were usually miserable huts of bark, hardly a protection from the intense heat of summer or the rains and cold of winter; they had to combat with the savage tribes of aborigines, and to guard against the depredations of the wild animals of the wilderness; they were ignorant of the character of the country and climate; they were unable to grapple with the strange diseases to which their sheep were liable, and often saw them die by thousands; they were on the verge of ruin from ignorance of the system of business carried on in new colonies, such as high rates, extended credits and scarcity of flour and other stores; and at last after a hard struggle many of them were irretrievably ruined by the severe financial derangements of 1842 and 1843. When the young settler had wandered about the country for months with his flocks, seeing abundance of fine country over which they grazed but which was all claimed, and after boundless trouble at last found a spot on

which to rest his weary head, he found no disposition on the part of his distant neighbours to befriend or oblige him. Instead of being gregarious like most other civilised settlers, the Australian squatters desired to be as far as possible from companions. Instead of affording information they were cool and uncivil, always jealous of new settlers as occupying country which they had hoped to keep and use when their flocks and herds increased. Those who were fortunate by caution and industry managed to overcome the preliminary difficulties, but very few of those who were the real pioneers of V. reaped much advantage from their exertions. Most of them had bought their sheep at from 20s. to 30s. and they started with the wool at 2s. a pound; in a few years sheep were at 1s. 6d. and wool had fallen to 9d. or 10d. Agents, merchants, bankers, were all alike unable to assist, and friendless and forlorn the great majority of the poor squatters were left to their fate. The pioneers of V.—the rough champions of the bush, to whom society is indebted for a new field for industry, who took the land and held it against all comers, like the knights at tournaments in ancient days, who opened and cleared the way to fortune for thousands—are nearly all forgotten. This country however is deeply indebted to them, and their remembrance ought to be held in honour. After the great crisis in 1843, and the application of the boiling-down system, squatting became a very lucrative branch of industry; not only did the boiling-down of the sheep into tallow place a steady value upon them, but wool again advanced; the new squatters had none of the incumbrances of the original settlers, who had purchased their sheep partly on credit, and at high prices; they had become acquainted with the climate and skilful in the management of stock. When they had overcome the preliminary difficulties of settlement they succeeded beyond their most sanguine expectations. The young man just from home and school, who had been able to start with a solitary flock, soon found himself the possessor of a large property in stock, and began to make himself comfortable; he was now independent, with nothing in prospective to alarm him, and in the possession of all the solid comforts of life. If he could only keep his flocks free from the three great scourges of A.—scab, catarrh, and foot-rot—he was on the high road to fortune. The squatters have mostly been a highly respectable, well-educated, and industrious class; nor did they originally betray the grasping disposition of the Sydney squatters, however anxious they may have been about the uncertain tenure on which they held their lands. They claimed no rights in the soil, otherwise than as squatters; and it was not until after Boyd, Wentworth, and other stock-owners in N.S.W. had commenced their great crusade in favour of fixity of tenure, that their compatriots in Port Phillip began to reflect on their actual position. The Orders in Council were not however

procured through any influence which the Port Phillip squatters had brought to bear on the subject; and the majority were quite as much astonished as the other classes of the community when they first appeared in the *London Gazette*. The Order in Council was hailed by the squatters with no ordinary gratification; but it in no way altered the position of the occupier of Crown land in reference to his tenure, nor was it intended that it should. To the Crown he was a mere tenant at will before the Order was issued, and his position was very little altered afterwards, for, as the report of the Select Committee of the Legislative Council of N.S.W. remarked, "It is the singular anomaly of these land orders that, while, as against his fellow-subjects, the actual colonist, or intending emigrant, they fortify the squatter with every muniment which can give permanence to possession, as against the Crown, they leave him as they found him—utterly defenceless." The official notification of the Order in Council was received by the Government about four months after it had been agreed to; and its provisions were partially acted on. Applications for leases were received at both Sydney and Melbourne; and regulations for the disposal of new and vacated runs, and for the transfer of runs already occupied, were issued. The Act 11 Victoria, No. 61, for appointing Commissioners to examine and report on disputes respecting boundaries of runs between claimants of leases was passed. The recognised claimants were allowed to occupy the Crown lands in all cases where the general interests did not demand their final appropriation for other purposes, and they were allowed to purchase under pre-emptive rights their homestead sections or other portions of their runs, but both the local and Imperial authorities were unwilling to issue leases. There existed so many debatable points, and the claims of the squatters had become so extravagant that the matter was allowed to continue in abeyance, both parties being unwilling to risk all on a final issue. Then the discoveries of auriferous wealth, and the great flow of population which followed, demonstrated that the colony must sustain a serious injury if the Orders in Council should be interpreted in the way that the squatters appeared to desire, which would in fact shut up the public lands from legitimate occupation by the people. At last an appeal was made to the Imperial authorities and the reply of the Duke of Newcastle virtually destroyed the sanguine hopes in which the squatters had for years indulged. Port Phillip was ready to assume her new name and the responsibilities of self-government. The material for forming a local legislature was at hand, and the people had respectfully petitioned the Throne and the Imperial Parliament for separation from N.S.W.; they had been amused by vague promises, and the year 1848 had been long entered upon without any definite arrangements for admitting of the dismemberment of the country and the erection of the southern district into an

independent colony. Nearly every class now exhibited symptoms of dissatisfaction; all the true friends of the district perceived that its best interests were being sacrificed, that its memorials were trifled with, and that it was the recipient of a much greater share of injustice than any other community had ever experienced, much as Britain had been in the habit of ill-treating and neglecting her colonial possessions. The systematic misappropriation of the revenues of the district was in a particular manner calculated to irritate and annoy the colonists, who were naturally most indignant that they were drawn out of their local treasury and forwarded to Sydney to be appropriated towards the advancement of public works there, while at the same time the money was most urgently required in the locality where it had been contributed to promote the development of its resources. In the previous year the monstrous injustice of this spoliation was more apparent, in consequence of the Legislative Council having refused a motion in the month of August for separate returns of the revenue and expenditure of Port Phillip; and the colonists believed that these documents were refused because they would have exhibited a series of injustices to their district which were unparalleled in the history of British colonisation. But it must be observed, that not only did the Legislative Council refuse to vote funds for public works in Port Phillip, but that even when sums were legally appropriated, the executive Government declined upon one pretext or another to expend them; and as the money did not lie over and accumulate for the benefit of the district, as it ought in accordance with constitutional law to have done, the impartial reader will at once perceive the unfair means adopted to plunder Port Phillip. The amount of the money thus voted and not expended for public works within the southern district may be correctly quoted from official returns at about £60,000 sterling. Superintendent La Trobe was, for some time, thought to be blameless in this system of injustice; and such an impression might have been entertained to the present time had not certain official papers been published, in which it was made apparent that he had used his interest to prevent many of those sums from being expended. In 1846 the City Council of Melbourne passed two resolutions having reference to the unexpended moneys due to the Port Phillip district. The Superintendent in handing the petition of that body into the hands of His Excellency, also gave in a letter written by himself, in which he argued against their prayer. This paper was dated Sydney, 22nd September 1846, and happening to be published in the following year, excited the utmost indignation in Melbourne. The following passage was particularly censured:—"And, lastly, possessing within herself, for the present, neither the experience nor the means of prudently devising, or properly executing, many important works highly conducive to the prosperity and comfort of the inhabitants,

she has had necessarily to await a period of greater maturity, and more settled and manageable principles of internal government, before the application of these funds, though actually at command, could be undertaken." It could not be expected that Port Phillip would rest satisfied with La Trobe as the chief executive official, after this letter had been made public. It was his duty, when the money was voted for a particular purpose, to appropriate it immediately; instead of doing this however he connived at the injustice of allowing those grants to lapse, and recommended that the illegal and unfair system should be pertinaciously continued. The colonists saw clearly that his mind and his policy were alike narrow, and there were none in the district who did not desire to see him removed from his office, unless, perhaps, the few government officials and the little clique who were countenanced and supported by him. On 15th June 1848 the following motion was submitted to the Town Council by T. M'Combie:—"That the Legislative Committee be instructed to prepare an humble petition to her Most Gracious Majesty the Queen, praying for the removal of his Honour Charles Joseph La Trobe, Esq., from the office of Superintendent of the District of Port Phillip, on account of his systematic mismanagement of the money voted for the service of the province; his neglect of public works of paramount consequence; and his repeated breaches of faith in his official transactions with this Council in matters of high public importance." A long and interesting debate ensued; and an amendment, moved by Armstead, and seconded by Moor, that the motion be considered that day six months was lost, and the original motion affirmed by nine votes to five. A full report of this interesting debate will be found in the *Port Phillip Gazette* of 19th June 1848; the charges on which the motion was founded were substantiated; and, although Moor, who was a clever lawyer, made as able a defence as could, perhaps, under the circumstances have been put forth, yet his attempts to excuse and palliate the conduct of La Trobe were unsuccessful. The vote of the Town Council, which was at this period the only representative body in the district, had very great weight; indeed, many of those who subsequently became prominent politicians in V. were at some period of their career members of that board. So completely were the sympathies of the people in unison with those of the majority of the Town Council, that a requisition signed by seven hundred colonists was presented about a week afterwards to the Mayor of Melbourne, requesting him to convene a meeting, in order to lay a petition for the removal of the Superintendent at the foot of the Throne. In compliance with this requisition, the Mayor convened a meeting for 3rd August, to take place opposite the Court-house, near La Trobe-street. This was the spot where the elections were usually held; and here a large hustings was prepared for the occasion. It was known beforehand that the meeting would be a

great success; and it was remarked that the Superintendent and his adherents should put up prayers for rain in order to damp the ardour of the indignant people. The day was all that could be desired by the most ardent supporters of the Superintendent; for the rain fell in torrents. The result was therefore the more mortifying to the Government, for at least three thousand persons arrived to take part in the proceedings of the day. The Mayor was present but the chair was occupied by T. M'Combie, and the following gentlemen took part in the proceedings:—Newman, Fawcner, Annand, Young, Johnston, Robertson and Bingley. The motion for the petition was carried unanimously; only one solitary hand having been held up against it. The meeting appointed a Committee to obtain signatures and transmit the document through the proper official channel to Her Majesty, and quietly dispersed. The Secretary of State for the Colonies returned a most courteous reply to the petitioners; but their prayer was not granted. The Superintendent had made himself so obsequious to his direct superiors in Sydney that the Imperial Government threw its protecting mantle over his shoulders. The only official in the Colonial Office who took much interest in the details of Australian affairs occupied no higher position than that of a clerk; he was an able man, but partial to prerogative, and did not understand that the *vox populi* could exist in a colony sixteen thousand miles distant from Britain. It was indeed impossible that a Secretary of State, who was often but a brief period in office, could make himself acquainted with colonial subjects. He was a Cabinet Minister, and had to attend to his parliamentary duties; and it was not surprising that the memorials from Port Phillip were treated with neglect. At this crisis in the history of the colony an event occurred, which aroused considerable interest in Britain, and hastened separation. It has been already stated that many of the most intelligent colonists were of opinion, at the time the representation in the Legislative Council of N.S.W. was granted to Port Phillip, that the people ought not to have accepted it. Events soon arose which demonstrated that this view was correct; when Port Phillip complained that she had been systematically plundered, she was curtly answered that the revenues of the entire colony were appropriated by the representatives of the people. The irritation of the public mind can be easily imagined at this particular period; the loss of their revenues was not a financial question alone—it was a social question as well. The money going away to Sydney was that portion of the hard-earned wages of the people which they had contributed to the common weal; and was the price of education, and in fact of everything that constitutes moral and physical progress. The just indignation of the colonists at this system of spoliation was further aggravated by rumours which had prevailed for a long time, to the effect that a considerable amount of corruption prevailed

amongst those who were connected with the local government. This charge had been clearly made by Fawcner, one of the speakers at the public meeting already noticed; and, upon a notification appearing in the *Government Gazette*, signed by the heads of the various departments, denying the truth of the assertion, that gentleman published a letter in the newspapers, asserting that one of the persons signing the said document, who had been Police Magistrate, and who was, at this time, one of the Commissioners of Crown Lands, was guilty of the charges. An action for libel was commenced; but, when it was tried, the charges were so clearly substantiated that no verdict could be obtained. The jury was divided in opinion, eight being in favour of the defendant, and only four for the plaintiff; and even the minority were only for giving nominal damages. The charges were therefore morally proven; and the official—whose name we refrain, for the sake of his family, from publishing—was compelled, by the force of public opinion, to leave the colony. It appeared that the Superintendent had been made acquainted with some of the charges previously to the meeting at which they were reiterated, and referred to by Fawcner, as a matter of notoriety; and that he had made no effort to stop such practices amongst his officials. The general election for 1848 arrived, the Legislative Council having been in existence the full legal term of five years. With the solitary exception of J. F. L. Foster there was no person connected with Port Phillip who came forward as a candidate for the honour of representing the district. Indeed, there was but one other candidate really before the public; and he had only just landed from England, and was connected with Sydney. The nomination took place on the 20th July; there were about four hundred persons present, when a great opposition was exhibited to sending any members to Sydney. Ebdon, who had been returned as one of the first representatives of Port Phillip, informed the electors that “he would have again solicited their suffrages, but that he could not any longer lend himself to the perpetration of what was only a farce; Port Phillip was not, in fact, represented; she was misrepresented.” The feeling was so strong against sending up members to Sydney that Foster, who had been nominated, was at the earnest solicitation of his friends and supporters induced to withdraw, and the meeting dissolved; and the people at length determined upon using every effort to break the degrading tie which had up to this time bound Port Phillip to the chariot-wheels of Sydney. The nomination for the Borough of Melbourne was advertised to come off on the 25th of the same month; but during the short interval that took place, the friends and supporters of the local Government had not been idle. It was resolved to place Foster in nomination, as it was contended by the friends of the local Executive that if only half-a-dozen votes polled for that gentleman—nay,

if he were only proposed and seconded—he must of necessity be returned. A consultation was held on the afternoon of the 24th, by one or two of the friends of non-election, and it was agreed to place some other person in nomination, in order to carry out the nullification principle; and Earl Grey was selected, as being a nobleman in so elevated a station that his nominal election must draw attention to the peculiar position of the settlement at Port Phillip. He was, accordingly, placed in nomination in opposition to Forster, and returned by an overwhelming majority. The adherents of the local Administration were very anxious to carry Foster's election; but every effort made was fruitless. It is a curious fact, moreover, that nearly every lawyer of eminence in the district stood forth opposed to this movement; and when the Mayor, as Returning Officer, declared the state of the poll, two protests were handed in against the return of Earl Grey, which had attached to them several eminent legal names. The reports circulated by the supporters of Foster made it necessary for the non-election party to clearly set forth their reasons for returning Earl Grey; and a meeting was held at the Royal Hotel for that purpose. It was agreed to forward a memorial to his Excellency the Governor, praying that during the pending of the reference made to the Secretary of State for the colonies, the whole revenues of the district be reserved for its own wants. The proceedings in the metropolitan city were not only opposed by Sydney, which under the circumstances might have been anticipated, but they were repudiated in Geelong, which was at this period next in importance to Melbourne; and a meeting was called there for the purpose of giving the electors an opportunity of expressing their disapprobation. By this time a very important question in reference to non-election had been raised; for the Constitutional Act was so worded that it was illegal for the Council to proceed to business if the number of members deficient by the non-return of writs was more than two. It was an object of the utmost importance to the Government to have members returned for the district of Port Phillip; and it was most adroitly managed by delicately flattering Geelong, and by taking advantage of its jealousy of Melbourne. The writ had been already returned without any names endorsed on it; and it was a considerable stretch of law to issue another, but the responsibility was incurred, and Geelong was appointed the place of nomination. Before the writs were issued it was reported that five residents would be found ready to go to Sydney as real *bonâ fide* representatives; but when the time drew near that was to test this it was found to be untrue, as only one or at most two residents ready to undertake the duties were found. The second writ having been received, a public meeting was called by requisition to the Mayor on the 13th September and about 150 electors met to consider what steps should be adopted. This meeting was addressed by Curr, O'Shanassy, McCombie, Colin

Campbell, Johnston, Cole, Duerdin, Williamson, Annand and M'Arthur. The resolutions agreed upon by the majority were in substance that, as representation in the Legislative Council of N.S.W. was an utter mockery it ought to be abandoned at once and for ever; that in order to prevent *bonâ fide* representatives from being returned, the meeting approved of placing five members of the British Cabinet in nomination to complete the returns of the writ and enable the Council to be legally constituted, and proceed to the ordinary business of legislation, while it would afford no pretext for oppression under the colour of representative government. The meeting appointed George Ward Cole, J. S. Johnston and J. P. Fawcner a deputation to proceed to Geelong for the purpose of supporting the election of five cabinet ministers; in the event of the non-election principle not being unanimously carried out. On 21st September the nomination took place at Geelong; when Drs. Dixon and Palmer, James Williamson, E. Curr, and Lauchlan Mackinnon, were placed in nomination by the one party, and the Duke of Wellington, Lords Palmerston, Brougham, Russell and Sir Robert Peel by the other; and the show of hands being in favour of the local candidates, the supporters of non-election demanded a poll. A great public meeting was also held in the theatre at which Capt. Fyans presided. It was addressed by Fawcner, Johnston and Curr in support of the non-election movement, and Wright, Harrison and Duggan against it. The meeting was discreditable to the opponents of separation; as, towards the conclusion, it became riotous, and the lights having been extinguished great confusion occurred. It is singular that Curr should have been one of those nominated, as he had up to this period been one of the most strenuous supporters of non-election, and had voted for Earl Grey for Melbourne. He certainly displayed no little inconsistency in thus allowing himself to be partially brought over to the side of the pro-electionists; at the same time it is but just to remark that Curr was honest, but vacillating and easily swayed by the arguments of persons very much inferior to himself in mental capacity. Another extraordinary circumstance was that Foster drew back from the ranks of the pro-electionists, and refused to be placed in nomination; the reason assigned at a public meeting held in Geelong by this gentleman was that he did not think four *bonâ fide* representatives would be found to proceed to the Council Chamber in Sydney; and that some gentlemen who had promised to allow themselves to be nominated had changed their minds, and found that their business engagements would prevent them from being so long absent from the district. The pro-electionists triumphed in the district and the local candidates were elected. This is not so very surprising when all the circumstances of the case are taken into account. The Government were anxious for many reasons to carry this election; the candidates were

anxious to be returned, with the exception of Curr who was most probably indifferent to the result; those who voted for the peers used no influence, and they were actuated to decline to vote for local candidates solely from principle. The district of Port Phillip however declared by a majority of twenty-one of the gross poll, that they were against misrepresentation in Sydney. The following table exhibits the numbers for election and non-election respectively:—

	Pro-Election.		Non-Election.
Melbourne	... 102	...	295
Port Phillip	... 230	...	58
	<hr/> 332		<hr/> 353

V. *The Anti-Transportation Movement.*—In the early part of 1849 the colonists of Port Phillip were warned by Mr. Jackson, who was at that period agent for the colony of V.D.L. in England, that Port Phillip was about to be declared a colony where ticket-of-leave men might be sent, and that arrangements had already been completed for forwarding the first cargo of them to Melbourne. This information was soon found to be correct, and the utmost indignation was immediately expressed by all classes. It is only fair however to state that the Legislative Council of N.S.W. had in April 1848 passed resolutions accepting the offer of the Home Government to send exiles and ticket-of-leave holders, to be followed by their wives and families, and an equal number of free emigrants—all at the expense of the Imperial Treasury. The members of the Council were led to accept these exiles by dire necessity, from the great scarcity of labour; and it was understood to have reference to the middle district, as Port Phillip had at this time only nominal representatives in the Legislative Council of N.S.W.—her members being Sydney men, identified with the northern portion of the colony. But while the Minister for the Colonies determined on taking the qualified consent given by the Council as an excuse for again deluging A. with prisoners, he seemed to have overlooked the other portion of the compact, and did not send one free emigrant at the expense of the British Treasury; and no attention whatever was paid to the resolutions of the N.S.W. Legislature. A public meeting was held in Melbourne a few days after the warning had been received—on the site of the present Town Hall—and a large number of citizens assembled to condemn this invasion of the rights of the free citizens of the district. The speakers were S. Stephen, R. Balbirnie, B. Reynolds, W. Hull, J. O'Shanassy, J. S. Johnston, W. Kerr, R. Heales and J. P. Fawkner, and the resolutions condemning the proposed introduction of felons as a breach of faith with the great majority of the inhabitants who emigrated on the distinct assurance that Port Phillip should never be a convict settlement, were carried; a committee which was appointed waited upon the Governor, who was at this time on a visit to Port Phillip, and impressed

on his Excellency the imperative necessity—for the preservation of the public peace—of prohibiting the landing of any convicts that might approach the shores of Port Phillip. A few days afterwards a meeting of the magistrates of the city and district was held, and very strong resolutions were passed condemning the attempt about to be made by Earl Grey, and a deputation waited upon his Excellency with a memorial on the subject. To both deputations his Excellency promised that no convicts should be permitted to land in Port Phillip until the feelings of the colonists were made known to the Imperial Government; and he directed the Superintendent to order any vessels arriving with felons of any class to proceed to Sydney. La Trobe's friends attempted to raise his character for patriotic feeling to Port Phillip on the occasion of ordering the *Randolph* to proceed to Sydney a few months later, but it was to Governor Fitzroy that the colonists were in reality indebted for the preservation of the fair fame of their province; and this forbearance rendered him very unpopular in Sydney. On 8th August 1849 the *Randolph* approached the Port Phillip Heads, where instructions had been left by the authorities that the captain should not allow her to enter, but at once proceed to Sydney. He thought fit to disobey this order, alleging that he was chartered for Hobson's Bay; to that port only was he insured, and there he was determined to go. The excitement was considerable, and the people resolved that if any attempt should be made to violate the promise made to the people, by landing the convicts on the shores of Port Phillip, they would oppose it by physical force. The Superintendent wisely averted bloodshed, and in accordance with the arrangement which had been entered into between the people and the Governor, directed the *Randolph* to proceed to Sydney. The Town Council of Melbourne, although it had some months previously petitioned for La Trobe's recall, at once passed a resolution conveying the grateful thanks of that body to His Honor for sending away the felons in the *Randolph*. A public meeting was convened to consider the steps rendered necessary by the issue of the Order in Council permitting the deportation of convicts in British colonies, in order to prevent the Home Government from sending convicted offenders to the district of Port Phillip. The Queen's Theatre in Queen-street, in which the people assembled on this occasion was densely crowded. The Mayor was voted to the chair, and the following persons took part in the proceedings:—L. McKinnon, C. Campbell, Dr. Thompson, Messrs. Kerr, Willis, Balbirnie, Ramsay, Marsden, Johnstone, McCombie, Langlands, Dr. Greeves, and Captain Webster. This meeting passed a resolution protesting against the right asserted by the British Government in the before-noticed Order in Council, dated 4th September 1848, of sending convicts to any of the British colonies contrary to the express wishes of the inhabitants, and claiming the protection

of the great constitutional principle—that Britain has no right to tax the people of the colonies for imperial purposes, which it was now attempting to do by requiring them to maintain a portion of its criminals. The second resolution declared that Port Phillip although joined for a short time to N.S.W., had never been in any sense a penal colony; and that the Secretary of State for the colonies had on the first establishment of the province, issued express instructions prohibiting the introduction of convicts; and that being a free colony, the people were prepared to undergo any extremity rather than submit to become the receptacle of felons. The third resolution expressed the sympathy of the meeting for the colonists of the Cape of Good Hope, and declared that Port Phillip would make common cause with it or any other free British colony in resisting the unjust and tyrannical edict. The fourth resolution declared that the people of Port Phillip desired to be free and virtuous; and that no motives of expediency would reconcile them to the moral evils that must arise from the association of the men, women, and children of Port Phillip, with the convicted felons of the empire. The fifth resolution declared, that the attempt to introduce felons would disgrace the fair name that Port Phillip had acquired in Europe, and deter the most eligible classes of emigrants from coming out, and thus cut off the main source of its future greatness and prosperity. The sixth resolution declared, that in carrying out their theories of criminal punishment at the expense of the colonies the Government was guilty of a gross breach of faith; that the meeting denounced those Ministers of the Crown who would insist on this obnoxious measure, and appeal to the Throne and the people of England against a system of injustice that would never be submitted to in Great Britain. A petition embodying the resolutions was then agreed upon and the meeting separated. The Legislative Council of N.S.W. passed a resolution about this time, which was brought forward by Cowper, declining to receive convicts upon any terms; protesting against any measure by which the colony would be degraded into a penal settlement; and earnestly entreating Her Majesty to revoke the Order in Council, by which N.S.W. was again made a place to which British criminals might be transported. On 11th June a violent meeting was held at the Circular Wharf, Sydney, in consequence of the arrival of the *Hashmey* from Port Phillip. A protest was solemnly made by the people against the landing of the convicts, and a deputation appointed to wait at once upon the Governor. On arriving at Government house the gates were shut, and the members were refused admittance, but after a parley six of the number were allowed to pass the gate. They found however that his Excellency was engaged with the Executive Council, and could not be intruded upon and they retired. The people severely censured his Excellency and passed resolutions condemning

him; on the other hand about six thousand colonists signed addresses of confidence which were presented to him; party feeling ran high, and at one period it was feared that the landing of the convicts from the *Hashmey* would give rise to an outburst of public indignation. The Imperial authorities could hardly have been blind to the danger which they ran in persisting in this course; indeed a new world of political thought seemed to have opened. At the great public meeting held in Melbourne, a clergyman openly talked about the independence of Port Phillip, and the sentiment was responded to and loudly applauded by thousands. The speeches might not perhaps have commanded much attention from their ability, but the speakers dealt with facts, and the expression of opinion upon them was unmistakable. They expressed their utter detestation of the effort to turn the fertile colony into a vast prison, and their resolution to resist by physical force, and rather die than submit to such dishonour—a Demosthenes or a Chatham could have said no more. The people were resolved to maintain the good name of their province at any sacrifice. It is only just to Earl Grey to state that in the beginning of 1850 a despatch was published in the neighbouring colony of V.D.L., addressed to Sir William Denison, in which his lordship stated that Parliament had granted a sum of money in order to enable the Government to send free emigrants to the colonies which received convicts. It is doubtful however if Earl Grey would have adopted this second portion of the proposal if he had not perceived the unpopularity of the intended deportation of exiles; it is more generous to give his lordship credit for good faith, but it cannot be denied that it was very bad policy on the part of the Colonial Office to send the bitter draught six months before the sweet potion. The effect was the rejection of the whole scheme by the colonies that were originally favourable to it. The Secretary of State was however wise enough not to drive the people to extremities; and in April 1850 a despatch was received, dated 10th November 1849, in which it was stated that, as the Imperial Government found that convicts would be more willingly received in Moreton Bay than in the other districts of the colony, it had been determined to direct all sent to N.S.W. to be landed there. The agitation had now abated in Port Phillip, but it broke forth in the middle of 1850 in V.D.L., in consequence of the arrival at Hobart Town of the ship *Neptune*, which had been unceremoniously driven from the Cape colony; thus demonstrating practically that that colony still continued the "dust-hole," of the empire. The colonists charged the British Government with a distinct breach of faith, having in 1848 promised to discontinue transportation to their shores; and they declared that this resumption of transportation was a positive violation of this pledge. Port Phillip had a special interest in this dispute; sending convicts to V.D.L. was indirectly sending them to the neighbouring settlements,

where they could obtain higher wages, and she at once expressed her sympathies with her neighbours on the other side of Bass Straits. In August 1850 the question of transportation was once more brought before the Legislative Council of N.S.W. by Lamb, who moved a series of resolutions to the effect that no more convicts ought, under any circumstances, to be sent to the colony. An amendment having been moved that the debate be adjourned for a month, the votes were equal, and the speaker gave his casting vote in favour of the amendment. A public meeting was held in front of the Police Office, Melbourne, on 19th September, and resolutions were passed in favour of Lamb's motion. A similar meeting was held at Sydney, and very strong resolutions carried against transportation in any shape. The result of the debate on Lamb's motion surprised nearly every person, for with the exception of Wentworth and Martin, none of the members appeared in favour of the resumption of transportation, and the motion was carried without a division. The Legislature of N.S.W. behaved with no little inconsistency on this great social question for in half-a-dozen years it gave nearly as many conflicting decisions. In 1846 it approved of the famous transportation report; the following year Cowper's resolutions against transportation were passed; in 1848 the Council agreed to Earl Grey's offer to take exiles if accompanied by their wives and families, and an equal number of free emigrants; and in 1850 Lamb's resolutions, declining to take convicts on any terms were passed. The last resource of the Imperial authorities was V.D.L., and here the battle continued to rage as fiercely as ever. The neighbouring colonies sympathised warmly with the Tasmanians, and in the beginning of 1851 it was resolved that all the Australian Colonies should make common cause, and enter into a league for the obtaining of the abolition of transportation to any portion of Australasia. The colonists of V.D.L. appointed delegates to proceed to Melbourne, to confer with delegates to be selected by the people of Victoria; and Aitkenhead, editor of the *Launceston Examiner*—Weston, a gentleman of standing residing near Hobart Town—and the Rev. John West, Independent minister, residing in Launceston, came across in the *Shamrock* steamer, and landed in Melbourne. They were received with enthusiasm by the citizens, and after a series of protracted and anxious deliberations on the part of the Tasmanian delegates and a sub-committee of the Anti-Transportation Association of Victoria, the 1st February 1851 was fixed on for the conference of delegates. An effort was made to give the ceremony an imposing appearance and a banner was unfurled in the old Queen's Theatre, where the ceremony took place, bearing four stars forming the southern cross. The object of the league was declared to be "to secure, by legal and moral means only, the abolition of transportation to the Australian Colonies." It was agreed that the league should be governed by

delegates from the various colonies, and that local councils should be appointed in each of the colonies, who should appoint the delegates, and manage the local affairs, and the money contributed in the particular colonies in which they were elected. The Australasian League was then agreed to, and a considerable number of persons came forward to attach their names to it. A public meeting was held immediately after the conference had been brought to a termination, and resolutions were passed strongly condemning transportation under any form and enunciating the necessity of the Australian Colonies uniting in a moral and legal resistance to the influx of criminals into any of them, and strongly recommending the objects of the League to the colonists generally. A great meeting was held in St. Patrick's Hall, Bourke-street, on 13th February, and resolutions of a similar character were carried unanimously. A large number of persons subscribed what might be termed munificent sums, considering the condition of the colony at this period for the purposes of the League. The Victorian branch of the League resolved upon sending a delegate to Britain, and the Council selected John Charles King, Town Clerk of Melbourne, to fill this office; and so far as education and talent went the gentleman was well qualified to discharge its important duties. He sailed in the *Sacramento* on the 3rd April for England, and was directed to endeavour to procure the total cessation of transportation to the Australian Colonies. On 7th April a great public meeting was held in Sydney, at which the people resolved to dissolve the N.S.W. Anti-Transportation Association and join the Australian League; and the delegates from V. and V.D.L. were received in that city with the greatest enthusiasm. The unanimous feeling of the colonies against transportation thus so plainly demonstrated in the League, and the great discovery of gold which immediately afterwards succeeded, fortunately prevented any attempt to thrust convicts upon the three colonies, and Britain had to look for other outlets for her felony.

VI.—*End of La Trobe's Administration.*—The treacherous conduct of the Superintendent of Port Phillip was brought rather unexpectedly under the observation of the public, in consequence of a private despatch, dated 10th August 1848, which was published amongst the documents attached to the Report of the Committee of her Majesty's Privy Council for Trade and Plantations, on the subject of the proposed Bill for Separating Port Phillip from N.S.W., and for other purposes. La Trobe's despatch professed to set forth the position of Port Phillip. It contained the following observations: "No doubt the erection of the (Port Phillip) District into a distinct colony will at once remedy much that is anomalous in the present state of things; but one fact, if not clear before, seems to be demonstrated beyond dispute by the past proceedings in the district that any form of constitution which may be proposed for the future colony

for some years to come, at least, which takes the Government out of the hands of a Governor, Executive, and Nominee Council, and substitutes for the latter a representative body, will be ill-suited to its real state and position, and will render the administration of its Government as a distinct colony upon whomsoever it may devolve a task of exceedingly great difficulty and responsibility." The indignation of all classes was aroused by the publication of this untrue picture of the position of the district emanating from its ruler. The Melbourne City Council passed a resolution to the following effect :—"This Council, as the only representative institution existing in the province, deem it in these circumstances to be a duty they owe to the citizens of Melbourne, and to the body of the colonists, to place on record their emphatic denial of the existence of any unfitness on the part of the inhabitants of this City and Province for the full enjoyment of all the rights and privileges of free-born British subjects; and they cannot refrain from the expression of their extreme astonishment and regret that an attempt should have been made by the Chief Officer of the Government to prevent the Colony of Victoria from obtaining a Representative Legislature, and such an extent of civil liberty as had previously been promised to the colonists by her Majesty's Government." In due course a reply was received from the Secretary of State for the Colonies in reference to the above resolution; and the public were again lost in astonishment at perceiving that La Trobe had sheltered himself from the burst of honest resentment which had been aroused against him by allusions to the opinion of a public meeting in Geelong as favourable to him, and inferring that the City Council of Melbourne did not represent the general feeling of the colonists. It was evident that a deliberate deception had been practised, and that his Lordship had been deceived; a fact which spoke pretty strongly as to the mode in which information was in La Trobe's time conveyed from the Colonial officials to the Home Government. There was no public meeting held at Geelong; and the only ground that the Superintendent could have for making such an allegation was that, at the period alluded to, there happened to be a meeting of a committee of inhabitants, who had been nominated to watch over the Geelong Incorporation Bill during its course through the Legislative Council; and on one occasion about six or eight of these committee-men felt injured in their dignity because the City Council of Melbourne had refused to recognise them as forming, at that stage, a duly constituted municipal and representative institution. They did pass a resolution cavilling at this; but it did not contain any expression of confidence in La Trobe or any attempt to justify his calumny against the people in his district. That gentleman, when he found Melbourne rallying to a man on the patriotic side, turned his attention to Geelong; he changed the place of nomination for the district from Melbourne to that town and

threw many little additional sops towards it; but the most he could obtain in return was quiescence. The western metropolis continued, under the system of misgovernment, subdued, but not contented. One or two perhaps of the natural leaders of the people had been bought; and La Trobe really exhibited a disposition to oblige that district, so that its cordial co-operation in any popular movement at this period was hardly to be expected. But the people of Geelong, notwithstanding their natural jealousy of Melbourne were sound at heart, and a very large number sympathised with the patriotic party in the metropolis. Earl Grey was therefore either deceived or he wilfully misrepresented the matter; the people of Port Phillip believed the former to be the true state of the matter. They arrived at such a conclusion in this manner :—While Earl Grey did not condemn La Trobe he certainly did not condemn the people; and in principle he admitted that the nullification of their privileges was not blameable. In one of his dispatches, written about this period, he said—"Local self-government if necessary for the good of the whole colony is not less necessary for a particular district. Port Phillip representation has become an unreal and illusory—not a substantial—enjoyment of representative institutions." Such language might not have been out of place in the mouths of those non-electionists so much condemned by La Trobe. When the election of Earl Grey for Melbourne was referred to in the House of Lords, the following remarks were made :—Lord Montague—"There was another point; it was thought desirable that Port Phillip should be divided from the main colony of Australia. As the returned member for Melbourne, in Port Phillip, he might ask the noble earl, the Secretary for the Colonies, what his views were on this question (laughter.) It appeared that the electors were so dissatisfied with the representation that although they had six candidates they chose to elect the noble Earl (Grey) as their sole representative" (laughter.) Earl Grey—"They complained of the hardship of being called on to elect representatives to an assembly sitting at a distance of 600 miles from their own habitations; they called such a scheme of representation 'a mockery,' and in order to show that they deemed it a mockery in fact, they had actually done him the honour to elect him as one of their representatives" (laughter.) Lord Stanley—"Are you going to sit?" (a laugh.) Earl Grey—"No. As I have had the honour to take my seat in this house I intend to decline" (a laugh.) Now, with reference to the measure then immediately under consideration, he objected much to its postponement, although aware of the difficulties which under present circumstances might be interposed to its progress this year. He was most anxious that it should be passed if possible during the present session. The sensible view which the Secretary took of the matter no doubt startled La Trobe, who considered the

conduct of the people in making free with his lordship's name as little, if anything, short of treasonable. Sir Charles Fitzroy had also adopted this impression, and had refused to insert the return of Earl Grey in the *Government Gazette*; he had even written a despatch to express his concurrence in La Trobe's views, in which he said—"Mr. La Trobe's remarks respecting the memorial, and the extraordinary course pursued by the electors on the occasion referred to, appear to me to be so clear and judicious that I feel it unnecessary to do more than express my entire concurrence with them, and particularly with the concluding portion, which throws a doubt on the expediency in uniting [erecting?] Port Phillip into a separate colony, or of granting it a representative Legislature." But the more discerning Secretary of State saw the affair in a very different aspect, and did not condemn the course adopted by the people of Port Phillip. Early in 1849 public meetings were held in both Melbourne and Geelong in order to petition the Queen and the Imperial Parliament to extend the elective franchise to the licensed occupiers of Crown lands and the tenant farmers. The propriety of allowing a fair representation to all classes of the community was unquestionable; but so great had the jealousy of all the other classes of the squatters become, that the proposition to allow them the franchise met with great opposition. Indeed, in taking a retrospective glance at the amount of ill feeling entertained towards the squatters at this period, the future historian or intelligent inquirer will be at fault in arriving at the true cause of such displays. No person could deny that at this period squatting was the main branch of industry, and that the gains of those who followed it made the colony what it was. The licensed occupiers did not, it might be said, buy the land which imported the labour, but they supported the merchants and tradesmen who were the principal purchasers of the land and the main contributors to the emigration fund; their success had been doubly advantageous, having enriched themselves and civilised the country. This was not to be denied; but the other classes began to discover amongst them a grasping spirit, and it appeared to be feared that they would endeavour to confiscate the great public domains which they occupied. In cases where they had erected dwelling houses of the annual value of £20 they already possessed the franchise; and many were opposed to allowing every licensed occupier to vote simply as a Crown tenant. The resolution was carried in the affirmative in Geelong, but lost in Melbourne, by a considerable majority. In March 1849 the district was honoured with a visit from Sir Chas. Fitzroy, who arrived in H.M.S. *Havannah*, Captain Erskine. He met with a most enthusiastic welcome; the *élite* of the city turned out to meet him on his landing at Sandridge and escorted him to the Royal Hotel Collins-street, where apartments had been fitted up for

his reception. Sir Charles remained ten days in the district; he received deputations from all the public bodies of Port Phillip, and held levées in Melbourne and Geelong which were most respectably attended. He deserved the good opinion of the future inhabitants of V. for the concession he made to the colonists—that no convicts should be allowed to land contrary to their wishes. On his return to Sydney he was severely censured for having made this promise; but Fitzroy probably saw that the people of Port Phillip would resist the landing of felons, and that they would repel any such attempt by force of arms. He gave however as the ostensible reason for his conduct that there would be a great difficulty in the absence of the requisite machinery for the registration and discipline of any convicts which might be landed. The Sydney Executive had been particularly niggardly in expending any of the money collected in the Port Phillip District on public works within its limits; but in 1849 it took advantage of the contemplated dismemberment of the colony to refuse to spend any more money on any public undertaking. The Colonial Secretary wrote in July to the Superintendent "that His Excellency had desired him to say that Her Majesty's Secretary of State for the Colonies having, in a recent despatch, incidentally intimated to him the immediate proposal of the separation of Port Phillip from New South Wales, it appears to His Excellency that the proper course will be to leave the initiation of all new works in that district for the consideration of the local Government and Legislature after it has been constituted a new colony." This would have been unfair even if the money had been about to be reserved for the use of the new colony. Such however was not the intention, as not one farthing of the surplus revenue thus wrung from the district was ever returned. The course thus proposed was flagrantly unjust. L. Mackinnon gave notice of his intention to move a series of resolutions upon the surplus revenue which Sydney had thus taken by the strong hand; and one of the number stated—"That, as well to do an act of common justice to the inhabitants of Port Phillip, as to vindicate the character of N.S.W. from imputations of an unpleasant nature which under existing circumstances may fairly attach to it, this Council declares it to be its deliberate opinion that the sum of £266,882 2s. 6½d. shown by the said returns to be the excess of revenue over expenditure in the said district of Port Phillip, from its first settlement in 1836 up to 31st December 1848, together with all balances that may accrue from 1st January 1849 up to the final separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W., be paid back to the said district of Port Phillip out of the general and territorial revenue of N.S.W. in the exact proportions in which each of these has been benefited by the surplus revenues of Port Phillip." The motion was however withdrawn, and for very extraordinary reasons. Mackinnon said—"At variance with his

own feelings and at variance with what he was sure must be the feelings of his constituents, he was compelled to withdraw the notices of motion standing in his name. He was forced to this step because he had reason to know that one of his colleagues would oppose him, and the other had not made up his mind as to which course he should take. What was the reason for this course of proceeding he was at a loss to say; for he was sure they would have thought the motions very proper ones while they resided in Port Phillip; and it could only have been the atmosphere of N.S.W. that had produced such a change in their ideas. His object in placing these motions on the paper was to elicit the opinion of the House upon every one of the points raised." A dispute, originating in this notice of motion, arose between Mackinnon and Moor, another of the representatives of the district, which occupied the notice of the public; but it merely showed that much ill feeling existed. Each of the members had a pet plan of accomplishing the desired object; they agreed to differ in opinion, and nothing for the benefit of Port Phillip was accomplished. Indeed as the money had most probably all been expended, Sydney had resolved not to pay back a farthing. The amount which the absentee Government of Sydney had squeezed out of Port Phillip was calculated to be about £400,000; it had been taken with the greatest effrontery, and every remonstrance treated with neglect; and the resolution which was now taken to expend no money on public works until separation irritated the public mind, particularly as there seemed little probability of securing any portion of the revenues which were being collected. These substantial evils were aggravated by others of a social character; the colonists were not represented; their political privileges were dormant; for the representation in the N.S.W. Council had at last come to be rated at its true value. The social and political condition of Port Phillip at this period was most unsatisfactory; the Executive department of the Government was administered by an officer who was responsible, not to the Imperial authorities, but to the Colonial Secretary at Sydney; the Superintendent had no constitutional method of explaining his measures to the people; he was condemned, often justly, and sometimes no doubt unjustly, without being heard in his defence. The men of education and influence felt that they had no means of explaining their wants, and they would not take any part in State affairs. The press of the district however continued indefatigable in its exertions to obtain justice; the claims of Port Phillip were urged; her unfortunate position, as a dependency of a dependency, daily commented upon; the weakness and wickedness of the Government was exposed; and although separation was delayed, upon one pretext or another, it was at last wrung from the reluctant authorities of Downing-street very much to the private chagrin of N.S.W. whose public writers could hardly speak in terms of

ordinary courtesy of the inhabitants of the southern district, who only struggled for their *independence* and just rights. The great boon so earnestly longed for had been promised in 1849, as the quotation from the letter of the Colonial Secretary of N.S.W. will show; but towards the close of that year intelligence was received that, although the principle had been conceded, there was great danger that, upon one flimsy pretext or another, it would not actually be granted for some years. A Bill for the Better Government of the Australian Colonies had it is true been introduced; one of the main features of that measure was the erection of Port Phillip into an independent colony under the name of Victoria; but several of its clauses provoked discussion, and the measure had to be withdrawn in order that it might be so amended as to meet the views of the various parties in the House of Commons. In the course of the discussion Earl Grey and Lord Stanley had expressed their desire that Port Phillip should be at once separated from N.S.W., and it was beyond measure disheartening to the colonists that a matter of such vital interest to their progress and prosperity should be mixed up with many questions on which those Whig and Conservative leaders could scarcely be expected to agree in opinion. A great meeting was held in the Mechanics' Institution on 26th November to consider the steps necessary to be adopted in consequence of the delay in separation. The chair was occupied by the mayor of the city, and the speakers were—Ebdon, Moor, Foster, McCombie, Haywood, Hull, Fawkner, Annand, Kerr, Stephen, Young, Johnstone, Langlands and Captain Cole. The resolutions pointed most indignantly at the wrongs which Port Phillip continued to suffer, and stated that in the event of separation not being at once conceded the people would be wound up to such a pitch of exasperation as must be highly detrimental to those feelings of attachment to the mother country and loyalty to the Throne, which ought to distinguish a British colony. So violent was the indignation that these strong resolutions were carried by a large majority over others of a milder character submitted to the meeting. A division of opinion having unfortunately arisen the meeting separated without adopting a petition; but a second meeting was held (opposite the Court-house) on 6th December, at which the greatest unanimity prevailed, and a petition to the Throne was adopted setting forth the injustice which Port Phillip had suffered, and praying that irrespective of the general Bill for the government of the Australian Colonies, a separate measure might be introduced for the separation of the Province from N.S.W. and its erection into an independent colony, bearing the royal name of Victoria. Meanwhile the trade of Port Phillip had been steadily increasing; the exports for 1848 amounted to £737,067, and the imports to £479,831. The ships inwards for 1849 were 484; and her pastoral pursuits had expanded

with great rapidity. The financial minute of his Excellency for the year 1850 was laid before the Council on 19th June, and in the estimated revenue and expenditure Port Phillip and Sydney were for the first time divided, in anticipation of separation. The estimated revenue for the year was—for Sydney, £204,448 7s. 2d.; for Port Phillip, £123,650. The estimated expenditure was—for Sydney, £242,886 6s. 7d.; for Port Phillip, £123,212 18s. 11d. For the first time, Port Phillip appeared, now, likely to reap the benefit of its revenues; instead of paring down the expenditure to the lowest farthing for all the departments, there was exhibited a judicious liberality, for it was contemplated that separation would be immediately granted, and the appropriation of the revenue had become a merely nominal act on the part of the Legislative Council of N.S.W. The Australian Colonies Government Bill went triumphantly through the second reading, and the clause which provided for the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. passed in Committee on the 22nd March. A warm debate arose on the constitution of the Legislature, and an effort was made by Mr. Gladstone, Sir William Molesworth, and several other colonial reformers, to have the mixed House of Legislature altered into two chambers. After an abortive attempt, on the part of Sir William Molesworth, to have the Bill recommitted, in order to change its character, and give the colonists responsible government, the Bill passed the Commons. It was discussed in Committee on the 10th June in the House of Lords; and Lord Stanley opposed the federal clauses, and had them erased. On the 11th of that month an attempt was made by the Hon. F. Scott and Robert Lowe to obstruct the measure in its course in the Lords. The proposal that counsel (Mr. Lowe, of course) should be heard against the Bill, at the bar of the House, was not however entertained. In proroguing Parliament, a few days after the measure had become law, Her Majesty said—"The Act for the Better Government of the Australian Colonies will, I trust, improve the condition of those rising communities. It will always be gratifying to me to extend the advantages of representative institutions, which form the glory and happiness of my people, to colonies inhabited by men who are capable of exercising with benefit to themselves the privileges of freedom." The public mind in Victoria, as the colony was after this officially named, had been on the very tip-toe of expectation watching for the intelligence of the passing of the Bill. The people cared but little that it had been materially altered by the Lords, that the clauses which had reference to the Federal Assembly had been expunged, that the powers of the colonial Legislatures had been abridged;—they were so happy at the prospect of emancipation from the thralldom of Sydney, that they would have welcomed almost any Separation Bill, however objectionable some of its details might have been in principle.

The Act for the Better Government of the Australian Colonies did not arrive until the 13th January following. It came into force in N.S.W. on that day; but the independence of Victoria actually dated from the day on which the first writs for the election of members to serve in the Legislative Council of Victoria issued, when, and not before, the District of Port Phillip was by the Act erected into and thenceforth formed a separate colony, known and designated as the Colony of Victoria. A great public meeting was held on 21st March in the Mechanics' Institution for the purpose of deliberating on the steps proper to be taken for securing a fair and equitable representation and also for providing for purity of election by means of the ballot. The following gentlemen took part in the proceedings:—Drs. Palmer and MacArthur, Messrs. Kerr, Johnston, O'Shanassy, M'Combie, Hull, Fawkner, Westgarth, Tankard, Bear, Watson, and Major Mercer. The discussion on the first question continued so long that the meeting could not entertain the second; and an adjournment was carried, in order that the ballot might be fairly entered upon. Several resolutions were put forward at the first meeting; but the one proposed by Kerr—"That this meeting regards population as the only true and safe basis of electoral power; and is therefore of opinion that the division of the Colony of Victoria into electoral districts should be determined in accordance with that principle, by the establishment of districts containing as nearly as may be an equal extent of population, each district to return one member only,"—was affirmed by a considerable majority. Dr Palmer argued in favour of giving only one-half of the representation to two-thirds of the population and wealth of the province; he proposed to accomplish this by giving the counties of Bourke and Grant one-half of the representatives, and to divide the remaining half amongst the other parts of the colony. This proposal met with little favour; indeed, the only question on which any real difference of opinion appeared to exist was, as to whether the principle of equal electoral districts should be applied, in the same way, to the towns as to the country; for some, who were in favour of the principle in general, were averse to cutting Melbourne, and other towns, up into electoral districts. The members who had been elected to represent Port Phillip were present, in order to acquire a more accurate knowledge of the wishes of the people, and took their departure the day after, to be present at the opening of the Council. The last session of a N.S.W. Legislature, possessing any authority in Port Phillip, was opened on 27th March by Sir Charles Fitzroy, who stated that the object for which he had called the members together was, the enactment of the measures necessary to give effect to the provisions of the Imperial Act for the Better Government of the Australian Colonies; that the necessary bills had been prepared, and would at once be submitted to the House. The

Victoria Electoral Districts Bill gave general dissatisfaction. The total number of members proposed was thirty, ten of whom were to be Government nominees, leaving twenty to be elected by the people; and Melbourne, with a third of the population of the whole colony, was only allowed three members. The people of V. petitioned against the measure, but the Council declined to make any alteration; indeed, the members did not wait for any remonstrance, but entered on the consideration of the Bill in Committee on 22nd April, at a quarter to four o'clock in the afternoon, and by seven in the evening they had settled the distribution of the representation of the colony. An amendment of Ebdens's, to give Melbourne four instead of three members, was lost by sixteen votes to eight, although supported by all the Port Phillip representatives, as well as by Dr. Lang, Lamb, and Oakes. A motion to give three members to Bourke, and another, to increase the members of the Legislative Council to thirty-six, were both lost, and the Bill passed without any material amendment. The Colonists of V. regarded it as a very objectionable measure, inasmuch as their desire to have population made the main basis of representation was not taken into account in the distribution. The electoral district of Melbourne had only a member for every 7714 people, whereas Belfast and Warrnambool, with a population of 1347, had one member, and Portland one, with 1025; North Bourke had only one member for 6546, and South Bourke but one for 5256, while Gipps Land had a member for 1770, and the Loddon for 1127. The last act of tyranny perpetrated by N.S.W. towards V. has now to be considered. By the division between the middle and southern districts, as settled by the Imperial Government in 1840, and announced to the colonists in a despatch from Lord John Russell, of date 1st May of that year, the large country known as the Tumut and Murrumbidgee district formed a portion of Port Phillip, and the Billibong Creek was supposed to be the proper dividing line. The Bishop of A. had moved an address to the Crown against this boundary, and the Imperial authorities were induced to adopt his Lordship's view in the new Act. An attempt was now made by the Port Phillip members, assisted by Dr. Lang, to have the matter adjusted in an equitable manner, but this Wentworth opposed, and the boundary for the time was left as settled by the Act; and V. was unjustly deprived of one of her most flourishing provinces. On 25th April 1851, a message was sent down by Sir Charles Fitzroy to the Legislative Council of N.S.W., transmitting the draft of a Bill for extending the laws of N.S.W. to the Colony of V. until they were altered or repealed by the Legislature of the latter colony; and on the 29th of the same month the Bill was read a first time, read a second time on the following day and passed without any discussion. The last session in which Port Phillip formed a part of N.S.W. immediately afterwards came to

an end. The Colonial Secretary of that colony expressed the good wishes of his government towards the new colony; but no financial explanation was given. During the long period that Port Phillip had been plundered there had been hopes continually held forth to the people that, when separation was conceded, there would be an account current made out between the two colonies, and the balance owing Port Phillip paid over to her; indeed, the superintendent had, upon several occasions, encouraged this impression, and his partisans had urged that all the surplus revenue taken to Sydney would be repaid. The colonists of V. were rather disappointed that the financial obligations of N.S.W. to the new colony were not even alluded to, and were apparently the very last thing which the Sydney politicians had in view. The good wishes of the Colonial Secretary were therefore taken at their true value both in Melbourne and Sydney. On 1st July the Governor-General issued the writs for the election of members to serve in the Legislative Council of V. That act constituted the legal separation of the new colony from N.S.W. and gave it a separate and independent existence. The increase of population had now rendered it necessary that squatting should be in some degree checked. The lands of the colony had, for the purposes of the Orders in Council, been divided into three classes, viz., the settled, intermediate, and unsettled. The first contained the lands most accessible to the people; and it was here that the first direct blow was dealt to the squatters. The orders had authorised the Governor in Council to grant leases of land (exclusively for pastoral purposes) for one year, and, if he deemed it expedient, to make general rules under which the holders of purchased lands within the settled districts might be allowed to depasture stock, free of charge, on any adjacent Crown lands. At this time the lands within the settled districts were held by three classes—the owners in fee, the holders of occupation licenses, and the holders under squatting licenses. The total annihilation of the latter interest at this period is an important event, and forms a landmark in the history of the progress of civilisation in the colony. The management of the unsold lands is intimately connected with the good government and prosperity of any new colony. The local administration at this period cannot be passed over without censure; in the management of the land it displayed a great deal of vacillation and incompetency. In attempting to carry out the spirit of the Orders in Council, a code of regulations had necessarily to be framed, and a considerable discretion had been left in the hands of the Executive; this power exhibited to the world that it was very incompetent to deal with the task which had been thus in all confidence left to it by the Imperial authorities. During the ten years that the province of Port Phillip had been settled it had been daily progressing in population and wealth. Vast interests had been

silently growing up, and new classes were beginning to emerge into importance. All depended upon the land. The first wealth of Port Phillip was acquired from pastoral pursuits, and nearly every person was either directly or indirectly engaged in squatting. The tenants of the Crown had been informed that they only held the land until required for a denser population, and that so soon as sheep and cattle could be replaced by people, it must be relinquished by the squatter in favour of the *bona fide* cultivators; but the evil day appeared distant and those in actual possession laid the flattering unction to their souls that a very considerable period would in all probability elapse before their right would be questioned. The first victims to progress were the squatters within the settled districts who had remained quietly in possession without observing the course which events were taking; indeed they appeared not to have reflected on their danger until threatened with instant and utter annihilation. Many of the class were amongst the first who had arrived with stock who had settled in close proximity to the coast and had not been so enterprising as some of their neighbours. Being in comfortable circumstances they had not desired to change their position, and hoped that they might not be disturbed in their life-time. They were however nearest to the advancing tide of civilisation, and had first to be swept away by it. The proclamation of 29th March, cancelling the regulations of 21st August 1841, for settlement within the bounds of location, and in pursuance of Her Majesty's Order in Council of 9th March 1847, establishing new regulations for occupying lands within the settled districts, fell like a thunderbolt upon the unsuspecting occupiers of squatting runs. By the new system the owners of land in fee were to be permitted to use the vacant Crown lands immediately contiguous to their properties free of charge; but this permission was not supposed to give any other than a right of commonage. Those persons however who owned a square mile of purchased land could demand a lease of three adjoining sections of a similar size, at the nominal rent of ten shillings a section; but no smaller quantity was, under any circumstances, to be let; and the land held under squatting license was to be immediately withdrawn on being either required for sale or applied for under the right of pre-emption. This may be regarded as the commencement of the great conflict between squatting and civilization, which divided colonial society for years into two bitter and contending factions—those who had got a share of the public domain, and those who had not been so fortunate. The Government found it necessary to introduce a change of system, and the squatters within the settled districts being, for the most part a weak and friendless class, their ruin created no great sensation. The rich and influential squatters in the intermediate and unsettled districts viewed the immolation of their poorer brethren without joining in any effort to avert it, deeming themselves

quite secure from molestation. It was anticipated that the new code of regulations would be inaugurated in the settled districts on 1st January 1849, and it was not until 11th October 1848 that the classes most interested aroused themselves, and shaking off that apathetic feeling which had been their distinguishing characteristic, entered the arena of public life in order to delay if possible the movement which threatened to engulf them. A meeting was held and resolutions adopted to the effect that the new regulations would depress the value of stock and totally ruin a numerous class of respectable colonists who had contributed large sums of money to the public revenue, and who had mostly been Crown tenants for the long space of ten years. A memorial setting forth the injustice and impolicy of the proposed measure was adopted and presented to the Executive. This would not perhaps have had much efficacy in that quarter had it not happened that a large class in the middle district was affected injuriously by these regulations, and the rules were found ambiguous, contradictory, inconclusive, and in some cases incomprehensible, instead of being simple, complete, and easily brought into operation. His Excellency resolved to modify them and a second notification appeared in the *Gazette*, dated 21st November 1848, directing that persons in actual licensed occupation of runs might purchase any portion of them not less than thirty acres; and that they might continue to occupy their stations as before. The new regulation was, in fact, only applicable in practice to the class who occupied land in the settled portions of the middle district, but it answered well the objects of the squatters in the Port Phillip district, by prolonging their term of occupation. They were allowed until January 1849 to forward their applications. The Government had then to send officials to mark out thirty acres, which, considering the small staff of surveyors, was a work of time. The land was applied for, but in few cases actually purchased. The time occupied in the surveys was very useful to those interested, as it gave breathing time to look about them, and decide upon the best course to pursue. A class will meet with little sympathy under oppression when the exigencies of a country render them necessary victims. The squatters in the settled districts had become exposed to ruin from the very cause by which they intended to make their fortunes. The land nearest markets and the sea, and of course the most valuable, was first required by the people, and there was no man bold enough to stand forward and say they should not have what was their own. The Government allowed those about to be deprived of their runs a period sufficient to enter into such arrangements for their future support as they could, and most of them were wise enough not to neglect the opportunity. Finding that the new system must ultimately be brought into operation, most of them managed to purchase sections

which entitled the holders to large pre-emptive rights. In the course of a few years when by the discovery of gold real property advanced, these purchases placed the whole of these quasi-squatters in a most independent position. The 6th February 1851 has obtained a place in history as Black Thursday. For two months preceding the country had been under desiccating winds, which appeared to be highly charged with electricity. The herbage was parched up, and everything that the eye could rest upon was dry, dusty and disagreeable. The 6th February dawned much as very hot days generally do: the roseate tints of the horizon were rather brighter and more lurid than usual—the glassed glare over the sky more vividly perceptible. The north wind set strongly in early in the morning, and by eleven o'clock in the forenoon it had increased to almost a hurricane. In the streets of Melbourne the heat was intense and the atmosphere densely oppressive. Clouds of smoke and dust hung over the city. The fires which blazed in the surrounding country no doubt increased the suffocating sensation which was generally experienced. It was hardly possible to go abroad; the streets were nearly deserted; and the few persons who were compelled to make the effort to traverse them stalked along with their faces closely enveloped in cloth; no man, however bold, appeared able to face the furiously-suffocating blast, which seemed to wither up their physical energies. By noon the inhabitants generally had shut themselves up in their various dwellings, too happy to have got out of the reach of the overpowering blast. They continued to sit until night listening in terror to the howl of this real sirocco. Had any portion of Melbourne ignited the whole of the city must have been reduced to ashes, as no effort of the inhabitants could have prevented the conflagration from extending and becoming general. The citizens were providentially preserved from so terrible a disaster. In the country the scene could hardly be portrayed. Early in the morning the wind increased to a hurricane, and bush fires swept across whole districts with the speed of lightning; crossing roads and wide streams; destroying men, women and children, cattle and sheep, crops, fences, houses, and in fact everything that stood in its way. The devouring flames spread everywhere, careering along the dried herbage on the surface, dancing up the large forest trees, and wantoning in the excess of devastation. When the flames first appeared many brave men attempted to impede their progress and avert the ruin of their hopes. They endeavoured to meet the devouring element and beat it back with green boughs. But these attempts were useless; for the fire swept over them with a giant's strength, as if in mockery of such puny efforts, leaving them charred and lifeless lumps on the ground where they had stood. The herds and flocks, the wild beasts and birds of prey, the reptiles, and other animals, endeavoured to flee, but were speedily overtaken, and fell a prey to the

crackling and roaring flames. The Black Forest was, on the morning, healthy and verdant (as the leaves of the trees, even in the summer heats seldom change their dusky green colour); in the evening nothing could be seen for fifteen miles, from Gisborne to Carlsruhe, but charred and blackened trunks. In the majority of cases it was impossible to know how these fires occurred. The whole country far and wide was filled with dense clouds of smoke; the thermometer ranged from 118° to 119° in the shade throughout the day. The settlers generally were not aware of their danger until the furious roar of the bush fires broke upon their ears, when they had to fly and abandon the whole of their property. Not a few escaped death by taking shelter in creeks and water-holes until the violence of the fire had abated and the atmosphere had become bearable. Some individuals were eighteen hours in the water, and in one or two instances died in consequence of this exposure, notwithstanding the intense heat. There were many persons travelling in the bush who had narrow escapes, as they became suddenly enveloped in the flames, and almost suffocated in the sweltering fumes of the surging blast. The craving for liquid in such circumstances was intense, and the thirst almost intolerable. The wind suddenly changed towards night-fall, and at ten o'clock the thermometer had gone as low as 80°. What a scene did the morning of the 7th present? The most fertile districts were utterly wasted: the flocks and herds had, in many cases, been abandoned by their keepers, who fled for their lives; the inhabitants of the country who had escaped were utterly destitute, and the greatest amount of suffering had to be endured by the ruined colonists. The people made very great exertions to alleviate the sufferings of these unfortunate colonists; a public meeting was held in Melbourne, and attended by all the leading men in the metropolitan district, and a large sum of money subscribed, which, under the direction of a committee, was distributed amongst the unfortunate individuals who had been left in a state of destitution.

VII. *The Gold Discovery.*—The history of the gold discoveries in V. is given under the proper heading. The first effects of the gold-mines produced the curiously abnormal effect of reducing the value of real property. In and around Melbourne and Geelong houses and land were for a time very difficult to be disposed of, and were actually falling to lower prices and rentals. There was for the moment too much reason for this effect. In the general impatience to be off to the gold-fields, and to provide an adequate outfit for the occasion, many were pressing their property upon the market, glad to take anything they could get. But this sudden depression soon passed away, and a noble harvest was reaped by all those who, having faith in the ultimate effects of gold, laid out their money upon the tempting bargains of that transition interval. But if one kind of property fell in value at the first, another

kind took the opposite course. Various articles of merchandise sprung at once into unwonted prices, as speculators came in and cleared and recleared the limited market. Beer and spirits went up to double and treble rates. Flour took a rapid rise from £25 to £45 per ton, but with proverbial inconstancy went down again to £16, and finally took with comparative steadiness, an intermediate range. There was an extraordinary pressure of demand for horse food, so that a bushel of oats brought nearly the old price of an entire quarter, while hay rose in like proportion. The fitful market jumping hither and thither in its wide quotations, showed all sorts of curious and unusual relations of price; for at one time oats were dearer, weight for weight, than oatmeal, and hay than the finest flour. Canvas was everywhere bought up at two or three prices for tarpaulings to endless relays of carts and drays, and for tents to the ten thousands at the mines. The towns were alive with new industries, and unheard-of wages were being earned at cradle-making and other novel occupations introduced for the goldfields. The first cargoes of American goods—mining tools, stout cheap furniture, and that world of small ware called “notions,” brought fabulous prices and profits. But as the outside world abounded with all these goods, the colony soon abounded with them too, for importation was indefatigable, and as usual ended in a glut. Those kinds of colonial property that could not be thus competed with from outside, enjoyed a longer career in the market. When many kinds of imported goods were selling below cost price, the shops and warehouses that contained them were maintaining a tenfold value, and the colonial land allotments were still on the rise, after reaching in many cases twenty, fifty, and even one hundred times the prices that were current before the exciting days of gold-mining. The first great accession of population came of course from the adjacent colonies. The earlier news from Ballarat had been fairly resisted by the *vis inertiae* in favour of home; but the reports from Mount Alexander were irresistible. This swelling tide of arrivals commenced in December. In October following the response to Mount Alexander and Bendigo was received from Britain in hundreds of ships and cargoes and ten thousands of emigrants. For a considerable time thenceforward the monthly immigration amounted usually to from 10,000 to 20,000 persons. Melbourne seemed pervaded by one continuous fair that extended almost alike to all its streets. The original citizens, a kind of antediluvian handful of humanity, were everywhere elbowed off their old familiar and peaceful pathways, or swept indistinguishably along in the flood of a new world. Strange indeed were many of these new accessions. The eccentricities of the occasion might have passed all but unnoticed, as they dribbled in handfuls through the crowds of Melbourne or along the great highways, but they were concentrated

in full force at the goldfields. Around these were gathered the representatives of the four quarters of the world. In many a busy and diversified scene, within the compass of a single square mile of her territory, might be heard the tongues of nearly all European nations, as well as the varied intonations of Anglo-America, a substantial detachment of Asiatic speech, a sprinkling of Polynesian, and even a representation of the African; for these negroes that we see here and there, “surfacing” and “tailing,” if they diversify their mother-tongues by an attempt at English, it is surely in a dialect that is all their own. In the first few days of 1852 any tenement in Melbourne might have been leased at next to a nominal rent; the great prizes had attracted the attention of all classes, rich and poor, and persons in trade left their shops and workshops because, in the general confusion, trade was nearly paralysed. The amount of wealth which was obtained on Ballarat and Mount Alexander, and which rumour much exaggerated, induced many persons from the neighbouring colonies to inter-emigrate, and the streets of Melbourne soon again exhibited the appearance of activity. Rents advanced as the demand for dwellings recommenced, until, in February, every house in Melbourne was let at a very much advanced rate. Trade now rallied, and as the crowd of diggers increased, the shops and stores began to exhibit a bustle which was wonderful to behold. Those who brought down gold squandered the proceeds in the shops and hotels, without sense or discrimination. The citizens who had gone to the gold diggings, finding that they could obtain fortunes more speedily in their usual avocations than in searching for the precious metal, returned, and abandoned the hard work and the chance of lucky prizes to the working-men; the merchant returned to his counting-house, the grocer to his counter, and the tradesman to his workshop. The extent and vast richness of the gold-fields became gradually developed; the stream of population flowed in upon the colony with increasing volume; the necessities and luxuries of life were much in demand, and, as money was abundant, the value of every article advanced to a most exorbitant price. Indeed, so high were the profits in trade, that no rent was regarded as too extravagant for business premises in first-rate positions in Melbourne; a long lease, at an ordinary rent, was a considerable fortune, and the good-will of an hotel often brought as much as five thousand pounds, and this, too, in cases where the lease had only two or three years to run. As wealth accumulated the exchangeable value of real property increased with unexampled rapidity; and the colonists began to make their calculations in thousands instead of hundreds. The price of all kinds of mechanical labour advanced in about the same ratio; bricks, which were wont to bring about fifteen to twenty shillings, could not be purchased at this time below from ten to fifteen pounds a thousand; and other building materials were high in proportion. A

building which previously might have been completed for three hundred pounds, could scarcely be finished for as many thousands. The limits of Melbourne were too small to confine the people, who began to scatter themselves over the adjoining country. Land in eligible situations was greedily purchased. The local authorities exhibited a supineness and apathy upon the occasion which cannot be too strongly censured. Instead of meeting the mania for land, in the first instance, with the proper antidote—viz., by putting up a sufficient quantity for public sale—the Government, by their injudicious conduct, which we have already condemned, brought disaster upon the trading portion of the community. The plethora of gold, and the great increase of population, combined to give this enormous value to land and real property. The squatters did not at first feel any of the good effects of the change, for they had very great difficulty in procuring servants, and they were unable to forward the wool, on which they depended, to market. After the first year however the demand for meat became so great that cattle and sheep began to advance with astonishing rapidity; and meat that had brought no more than 1½d. now advanced to 7d. and 8d. per lb. The sheep and cattle farmers were inclined, in the first instance, to believe that they would be ruined by the gold; but perhaps no class of the community ultimately reaped so great benefit from that event. Indeed, from 1852 to 1857 stations and stock were the most lucrative investments in the colony. The agriculturists, on the contrary, were far from being equally benefited; the produce of their farms could easily be imported from other countries, and the difficulty of procuring a regular supply of labour compelled the owners of many hundreds of acres to allow them to lie untilled. It is true that, in the first year or two after the discovery of gold, the supply of flour and other articles was far beneath the demand, and such as raised grain made small fortunes; but, for two or three years afterwards, the colony was literally inundated with provisions from every quarter of the globe, and the prices of produce fell to a ruinously low rate; many farmers were unable to live, and were under the necessity of abandoning the land which had taken them much capital to reclaim. The case was very different with the Australian squatters; the market for fresh meat was secure from foreign competition, and they were thus in a position to exact such rates as they thought fit to impose. The position of the trade of the colony at this period may not be unworthy of a passing notice. The branches of the two great Anglo-Australian banks nearly monopolised the exchanges, and did the greater portion of the business, as the merchants generally traded upon the resources of these establishments. The branch of the Bank of New South Wales had just been opened and was transacting a moderate share of business. The resources of the banks and merchants were well able to grapple with the

exports of the colony previous to the gold discovery, which only amounted to £700,000 per annum; but when, unexpectedly, and without any warning, an amount of trade something like ten times as great was thrown upon them, it was not very surprising that all the resources at the command of those classes were taxed to the very utmost. The gold escort was established in October 1851 and the suddenness with which the vast wealth of the diggings was poured into Melbourne will be gathered from the fact that in 1852 there was produced in V. 173 tons 19 cwt. 1 qr. 12 lbs. 3 ozs., valued at 70s. an ounce, worth £14,163,364. The majority of those who dug out large quantities of gold were most anxious to dispose of their treasure; some persons, there is little doubt, forwarded it to England at their own risk; but they were few in comparison with those who desired to sell on the spot. The means to purchase were not at hand, and yet the banks were called upon to buy; and so extraordinary a position were they forced into that one great bank could not have paid its depositors by at least two millions had there been a run upon it about this time; true, the establishment would ultimately have been right enough, as in time this foreign balance would have become reduced and the local creditors would have been paid. In the early part of 1851 the value of the gold had not been ascertained, and the merchants were very cautious in purchasing until a correct assay could be obtained from England. In January 1851 gold was disposed of at Bendigo as low as fifty-shillings an ounce; and in Melbourne it ranged from fifty-six to sixty-four shillings. About June of that year it was ascertained that the real value of Ballarat gold was from eighty-two to eighty-four shillings an ounce; Mount Alexander gold was not worth so much by about four shillings. From that period gold-dust has had nearly a fixed value in the colony. In the first instance the banks refused to purchase, but had no objection to advance at the rate of fifty shillings an ounce; and all those who bought at the rates which prevailed in 1851, and shipped to England by means of the money of the banks, realised large fortunes. These establishments soon perceived the golden opportunity which they were allowing to slip through their fingers; they entered the market, and since that time have nearly monopolised the gold trade. The stores of the merchants were quickly emptied, and even the supplies which could be obtained from the neighbouring colonies were found inadequate to meet the demand of the large population now on the gold-fields; indeed many began to fear that provisions would become scarce and that a famine would ensue. Those who had stocks on hand or who operated quickly in the market as importers, realised fortunes; but about 1852 supplies poured into the colony from all quarters of the world, and the merchandise increased so much in amount that in July 1853 a glut appeared inevitable. Persons in

every part of the United Kingdom who could not come to Australia to get gold engaged in a speculation of some kind or other to the golden city of Melbourne; and as a vast quantity of the goods were unfit for the market they threw agents and merchants into great perplexity and confusion. Many thousands of pounds worth of merchandise were allowed to remain untouched on the wharf at Melbourne, and must have become a total loss to the owners; the roads to the diggings and the inland towns were completely cut up by the severe winter; indeed there appeared no outlet for any kind of merchandise. The storage accommodation of Melbourne was very limited, and the rates charged most exorbitant; the carriage was paid at the rate of £160 a ton to the diggings, or 1s. 6d. upon every pound of flour or other article of consumption; and out of 60,000 persons, said to be on Bendigo in the winter of 1852, at least a third were not able to buy food sufficient to maintain themselves. The lesson was not however lost upon the population on the goldfields; and the succeeding winter found the people much better prepared: not only the store-keepers, but even the diggers, had laid in large stocks of provisions and general stores. A marked alteration was, moreover, visible about the end of 1852 in the social organisation of the great mass of the diggers; the colonists had, as we have already mentioned, rushed to the gold-fields expecting to pick up treasure in masses, and return at once with sufficient fortunes. Many set forth barely supplied with the necessities of life, intending merely to be out campaigning for a few weeks. They seemed to think that it would be a hard case if the old colonists should not obtain a share of the treasure, and with that view they started. But when it became apparent that digging was a pursuit which would only remunerate those who followed it with steady energy, they at once abandoned it and returned. The majority of the original colonists had some other mode of living, or were enriched by the rise of property, and therefore independent of so very laborious a pursuit. The gold fields were abandoned to those who had no other occupation, and who followed mining or gold-hunting as a means of earning a livelihood. The diggers formed a society independent of the other classes, and in 1853 they commenced agitating for the repeal of the license-fee, and, the Executive declining to accede to their prayer at the time, the foundation of that unfortunate spirit of discontent was laid, the results of which were so much to be deplored in the succeeding year. The fatal effects of the blundering incapacity of the Government at this period were exhibited in the Ballarat Riots, a narrative of which is given under the proper heading. The subsequent history of the gold-fields does not need to be repeated here.

VIII. *Independent Government.*—The separation of the Port Phillip District from N.S.W., and its elevation into an independent colony under the name of Victoria, was celebrated by the citizens

of Melbourne with rejoicings of three days. The date is already stated as the 1st July 1851. On the 16th Superintendent La Trobe was officially installed as first Governor of Victoria. The proceedings on the occasion were rather imposing; a salute was fired, and the commission was read by the Colonial Secretary, in front of the Government office. The whole of the officers of the Government were present, and His Excellency held a *levée* immediately afterwards, which was attended by a number of colonists. The former sub-treasurer, Captain Lonsdale, was now nominated Colonial Secretary, Ebdon was appointed Auditor-General, Stawell was Attorney-General, and Barry was Solicitor-General. Some discussion had antecedently occurred in the colony as to the consistency of British institutions and constitutional principles, with the concession of the franchise to Crown tenants. But as the colony could hardly be said to possess political privileges, when its chief interest did not participate in them, this discussion was promptly settled. And now approached the sounds of preparation for the first of the colony's elections. There had been no little grumbling in the chief centres of population at the stinted share of political power doled out to them by the electoral arrangements of the Sydney legislature. There were to be thirty members in the Assembly, of whom twenty were to be elective; and of these twenty, Melbourne, with nearly one-third of the colonial population, had but three. The great proportion of power had been thrown into the thinly-peopled regions, especially where squatting influences predominated, and with such good effect, too, that it was feared the Assembly would usually present a clear majority of members consisting unitedly of Crown nominees and Crown tenants. This anticipation, indeed, proved correct, and the Imperial arrangements were, in consequence, rendered somewhat illusory, if honestly intended, as they doubtless were, as gradations towards popular government. The position in the meantime was further unfortunate in protracting a settlement of the Land Question, and in arousing against the squatting interest a strong popular opposition which, when eventually victorious, pressed rather hardly in turn upon its foe. The Imperial authorities had already taken Conservative guarantees of the colonies in retaining the one-third of the nominee element, and it was reasonable to suppose that they had no intention of any further action in the same direction by any electoral manipulation in A., such as the local Crown Governments further fortified themselves with. The elections passed off with the pleasant excitement that attends an interesting but novel incident. The interest and the novelty alike conspired for the time to free them from those grosser features of popular elections that are but too soon superadded by partisan experiences and matured arrangements. Party questions were not much defined in the torrent of electoral addresses; in other words, the colonists had not as yet

sufficiently studied public affairs to be clear or copious in their political views. There was a strong denouncement against the transportation system to A., which was at the time being actively opposed by the Australasian League. The differences on the squatting privileges had not risen to the height which they shortly afterwards attained when the colony was overspread with additional population poured into it by the attractive influence of the gold-fields. There was everywhere an increased expression of loyalty to the parent state. The Council assembled on 11th November 1851, and elected Dr. Palmer as its Speaker. On the 13th the Governor opened the session in due form, and delivered his maiden speech; he referred to the great alteration which the discovery of gold would effect, and the possible difficulties that might arise in consequence. He informed the Council that bills on education, and the judicial arrangements of the colony, would be introduced by the Executive Government; and congratulated the House on the completed independence of the colony, and the representative institutions which it had received. On the 18th of the same month a message was sent down by His Excellency, with the Supplementary Estimate for 1851, amounting to £19,014 18s. 6d., and announcing that the estimated revenue for 1852 was £175,350; while the provision for services was £173,063 18s. 6d. The session was short; not only the Government officials, but the popular members, were rather inexperienced in their duties, and they followed pretty nearly the example of the Sydney House. The first question discussed was the propriety of offering up prayers on each occasion of meeting, which was supported by most of the adherents of the Church of England, but generally opposed by the members belonging to the other sects. The motion was lost by one vote; and another subsequent effort met a similar fate. This is a question upon which much difference of opinion has always existed in the colony; and after Responsible Government had been introduced the discussion was again renewed. The votes in favour of opening with prayer were fewer in the Assembly than those against such a course; but in the Council the votes were about equal; and a proposition to open the proceedings by reading the Lord's Prayer was subsequently carried. The most important matters which came on for discussion in this session were those arising out of the increased expenditure consequent on the rapid development of the gold diggings. On the 26th November, on the motion for going into committee on the Estimates being put, an amendment—"That it be an instruction to the Committee, that the public expenditure originating in the discovery of gold ought to be borne by the territorial revenue, and that no part of such expense should be taken from the general revenue"—was carried. On the 2nd December a message was received from the Governor, stating that the Estimates were framed at a time when it was

impossible to calculate the influence of existing circumstances on the price of labour; and that there should be such an advance of pay to subordinate officers as to place the Executive Government in a position to secure the public service from embarrassment. A long discussion took place on this message, as it was regarded as an indirect attempt to nullify the former resolution; this objection was taken by the Speaker, and criminal prosecution was even instituted, as the secret was divulged in confidence, on the principle of "telling the lawyer the whole truth: letting him tell the lies afterwards." Four men, named John Jones, James Morgan, James Duncan, and John Roberts, were indicted for the offence, and found guilty after a lengthened trial. The second session of the Legislative Council was opened on the 22nd June 1852, and extended over nearly eight months. At the commencement abortive efforts were made to have some settlement of the accounts between V. and N.S.W., in order to claim the balance due to the former, and to have the boundary line between the two colonies placed upon a more satisfactory footing. The Executive was called on to sell land, both town and suburban, for the use of the people near the cities, and large quantities of agricultural land in the neighbourhood of the goldfields. On the 7th September a most important despatch was laid on the table of the Council from Sir John Pakington, placing the gold revenue and the land fund at the disposal of the Legislature. On the 17th of the same month the House passed a resolution conveying the thanks of the Council to him for the kind and considerate tone of his despatch, and for the concessions he had made to the colony. In the course of this session a letter from J. C. King, the delegate of the Anti-Transportation League in England was published, announcing that Earl Grey was still determined to continue transportation to V.D.L., notwithstanding the gold discovery; the Council was petitioned to introduce a bill for the prevention of convict immigration. The measure was brought in, and notwithstanding great opposition from some of the officers of the Government, it passed the House, and was assented to by the Governor. On the 4th February 1853 the House carried a cordial vote of thanks to His Excellency for his prompt assent to this bill; it also severely censured the conduct of the Governor of V.D.L., and expressed its strong feeling against transportation to the Australian Colonies, and requested the Governor to transmit the resolutions on the subject to Her Majesty. The great influx of Chinese was first taken notice of during the course of this session, and the social evils which would flow from it appeared to have been feared even at this period. The Government promised to direct its attention to the subject. The Act to facilitate the apprehension and prevent the introduction into the colony of offenders illegally at large, imposed a penalty of £100, or imprisonment for six months, on any master

mariner conveying into V. any run-away convict, or any one under conditional pardon, ticket-of-leave, or indulgence of any kind other than a free pardon. This Act was very stringent, and informations under it were laid in the Water Police Office, Williamstown, against masters of passenger vessels trading to V.D.L., and in not a few cases convictions were obtained. The measure was denounced and condemned as unconstitutional by the Press of N.S.W. and V.D.L.; but when the peculiar circumstances of the colony at this period are taken into consideration, any impartial person will admit that the enormity of the provocation demanded such an enactment, in order that an intolerable nuisance might in some degree be abated. On the occasion of opening the first criminal sessions at Castlemaine, in the course of his opening address to the jury Mr. Justice Barry entered into various details respecting the number and nature of the crimes which had been previously brought before the courts of the colony; he stated that these crimes had been committed chiefly by runaway convicts from V.D.L., and that in one quarter there were no less than sixty-six persons of this class tried and convicted in V. And there appeared at this period every probability of the evil increasing to an almost unlimited extent; for a despatch from Sir William Denison to Earl Grey had been published, in which that perverse official actually attempted to argue that so far from the gold discovery being a reason why convicts should not be sent to A., it was exactly the reverse. The free labourers, he argued, would all desert to the diggings, and agricultural and pastoral pursuits be left dependant on convict labour. He observed, "In point of fact, for some years to come at all events, we must rely upon their labours to supply us with food; and although the temptations to the convicts to abscond would, *to a certain extent*, be greater in such a case than they are at present, yet I do not imagine that I shall find any difficulty in maintaining such an effective police as will check this tendency, or at all events prevent the evil effects which might arise from it." Of course, had Sir William Denison confined his observations and recommendations to V.D.L., he might have been excused on the plea of public duty; but he argued that convicts were necessary for the whole of the Australian Colonies; and he urged on Earl Grey the propriety of sending out annually, in addition to the number of convicts usually forwarded, two thousand probationers, and the like number of free emigrants. No wonder that the people of V. should have entered their protest against this scheme; that they should have condemned the proposal to inundate their colony with hordes of wretches steeped in crime. The Convicts Prevention Act was imperatively demanded to avert the threatened ruin of the colony. On the 8th February the Legislative Council was prorogued by the Governor, who made a lengthened speech. He congratulated the members on the success of the new tariff, which

was likely to increase the customs' revenue. He expressed his conviction that the establishment of county courts and general sessions would materially assist those entrusted with the administration of justice. In alluding to the Act to facilitate the apprehension of offenders illegally at large, he said he was satisfied that such a measure was imperatively necessary for self-protection. He alluded briefly to the Harbour Regulation and Pilotage Act, and the measure for general registration, and expressed his conviction that the enactment relating to the organisation of the constabulary force would be the means of securing peace and maintaining order in the cities and populous districts. He said that he had given a ready assent in Her Majesty's name to the bill proposing additional and liberal provision for public worship; and also to the bill for altering the Electoral Act of 1851, and increasing the number of members of the Legislative Council. He expressed his regret that no general postage act had been introduced; and said that a serious inconvenience and loss had resulted to masters and owners of vessels by the desertion of seamen; some measure to prevent the continuance of this system was necessary. There were forty-five bills passed during the session; the most important of these have been noticed in the above review of His Excellency's address. The Legislature had bestowed considerable attention on many subjects; but the most important, perhaps, of all had been next to neglected. It had blamed the Government freely enough when the sole responsibility of the management of the goldfields rested with it; but after the despatch from Sir John Pakington had been received, and the importance of the concession acknowledged, which virtually, on behalf of the Queen, abandoned the control of the goldfields, and invested the Legislature of the colony with the privileges thus voluntarily conceded, the Members of the Council made no effort to reform the abuses which they had so loudly condemned. The only attempt in this direction was made by W. Campbell, Member for the Loddon, who obtained a committee on the state of the goldfields, which commenced its labours towards the close of a very prolonged session, and only had ten sittings; the persons who gave evidence before it were, the Colonial Treasurer, S. J. Cooke, J. Harrison, G. Gilbert, and W. H. Wright, Chief Commissioner of Goldfields. The report was unworthy of the chairman, whose industry and intelligence were acknowledged; it was unconnected, inconclusive, and worthless for any practical use; it contained however a few interesting facts. It said, in reference to the Government officials, "The present staff of Gold Commissioners consists of eleven at Mount Alexander; seven at Bendigo; one at Korong; one at Daisy Hill; five at Ballarat; and two at the Ovens; making, in the aggregate, twenty-seven; which staff is considered insufficient for the collection of license fees, and a due co-operation with the police." And it quoted the

Chief Commissioner's estimate of the number of persons digging at about "15,000 at Mount Alexander; 15,000 at Bendigo; 1500 at Korong; 1500 at Daisy Hill; 10,000 at Ballarat; and 3000 at the Ovens; making 46,000 in the aggregate; and that about one-fifth evade payment of the license fee, which, under a more efficient system of subdivision, would not be so easily evaded; whereby a greater revenue would be collected, and better police protection afforded to the diggers." The report referred to the necessity of preserving water-holes, destroying butchers' offal, and compelling the diggers to discharge their washing stuff outwards from the water-holes, so that the muddy water might filter back through a stratum of soil or gravel. In treating of the license fee, the report exhibited the greatest want of thought and acquaintance with the subject; recommended its continuance, and stated "it was well adapted both for the purpose of revenue and police supervision." It concluded by recommending that an Act for the regulation of the gold-fields be passed in the course of the session. No action, however, was taken on the report; for the only measure introduced was the Export Duty on Gold Bill, which emanated from the Government, and was rejected by the Council; indeed, the popular representatives separated, leaving the gold fields in the same position as they were when Sir John Pakington's despatch was received. The population had doubled itself in 1852; those who arrived in that year (77,661) being, as near as possible, equal to the whole population in 1851. The number of persons attracted from the neighbouring penal colonies increased crimes against life and property, and the highways and public streets were unsafe at noon-day. The Police force was in a state of disorganization; and the members of it, which really could be termed effective, were under different heads. The new Act, which (in imitation of the Metropolitan Police Act) placed the whole body under one general chief, tended very much to restore order and security. W. H. F. Mitchell was appointed Commissioner; the pay was raised, and respectable men induced to enlist into the constabulary; the old adage, "set a thief to catch a thief," having been found to work but very indifferently. The Government, in their anxiety to rectify the error of giving insufficient pay, fell into the opposite extreme; the Council, that had previously found fault with the Executive for its parsimony, now complained of its extravagance, and cut down the estimate submitted for the support of a police force. The Act to apprehend offenders illegally at large had a most important and beneficial effect. Its provisions applied to escaped convicts, and even to those who had obtained conditional pardons, not available in England; and numbers of felons found at large were apprehended and punished. Amongst the number was the notorious bushranger, Dalton, who was fortunately arrested by the Melbourne Detective Police in so extraordinary a manner that

the facts appear stranger than fiction. One of the questions which early attracted a great amount of attention was the necessity of establishing a mint for the colony. At first the capital of the colony was totally unable to grapple with so great an export; for a long time the price was much lower than in Europe; indeed, from October 1851 to June 1852 it ranged from fifty-eight to sixty-three shillings and sixpence for virgin gold, which was worth about eighty shillings in London. This was a mere accident, which must have rectified itself in the course of events; for, when British merchants discovered that so great a return could be obtained upon capital, it was next to a certainty that the ordinary laws of supply and demand would have caused a sufficient influx of capital to buy all the gold there was to sell. The diggers would not, however, wait the effect of competition on the price of bullion, but began to argue strongly in favour of a local mint, in order that they might turn their gold into standard coin. These views were supported by several influential colonists, but opposed by others. The Imperial Government granted N.S.W. the privilege of having a mint in Sydney; but not till many years afterwards was a similar privilege conceded to V. The Legislative Council, which had been increased in numbers, in accordance with the expansion of the wealth and population of the colony, was opened in its third session by the Governor. The St. Patrick's Hall, where the members assembled, presented a more than usually animated sight upon this occasion. The new Colonial Secretary, J. V. F. L. Foster, made his appearance as the leader of the Government or official division of the House. He was one of the early colonists of Port Phillip, and had been returned as one of the members to represent the colonists in the old N.S.W. Legislature. He had after this returned to Britain, and by dint of perseverance and the exertion of such interest as he possessed, succeeded in obtaining the Colonial Secretaryship of V. The Governor, having congratulated the members of the Legislature on the general prosperity of the Colony and the augmentation in their number under the act passed in the former session, announced the intention of the Imperial Government to grant enlarged constitutional privileges to the Australian Colonies; and on proper safeguards being adopted, to make over to them the power hitherto reserved for fixing a civil list—controlling the Crown revenues—and managing the waste lands of the Crown. The only other matter of importance touched upon was the proposition for abolishing the license on gold diggers, and imposing merely a registration fee. On 1st September the new Colonial Secretary introduced the important question of this session, by moving for a committee to prepare a constitution in order to submit the same to the Council. The great point in dispute in reference to the proposed constitution was the double chamber. In the discussion on the former bill Earl Grey had stood alone in maintaining that one House

would be sufficient. Sir William Molesworth, Lord Monteagle, and Mr. Gladstone on the contrary were all favourable to two chambers. This was the opinion usually entertained in the Colonies, the nominee system being generally regarded as a partial if not a total failure. But a wide diversity of opinion prevailed as to the exact functions of the upper chamber and the basis upon which it should be constituted; and there can be no doubt this was a question of considerable difficulty. It was very desirable to have a second branch of the Legislature, less subject to influence than the Assembly of popular representatives, in order to guard against impulsive action and hasty legislation, and yet to create such a chamber as would possess puissance and influence was difficult. If the Council were to be composed of nominees of the Crown few men of respectability would enter it, and seats in the other branch would be held in so much greater estimation that the upper chamber would not command the confidence of the inhabitants of the colony or sufficiently influence public opinion. In the discussions which followed on the framing of the constitution under which responsible government was introduced, there were some who advocated the nominee and others the elective principle, and there were one or two who proposed a kind of compromise between the two, by what was termed the intermediate plan. This was simply that the Assembly should nominate the members of the Council and that they should not be members of the Assembly. After the subject had been discussed at some length, the elective principle was adopted as the least liable to objection; and in the absence of materials from which to form a chamber of hereditary legislators, it must be evident that no other basis would have sufficed to give the Upper House a sufficiently independent standing with reference to the Executive Government and the other branch of the Legislature. In the course of his opening address the Governor remarked on the probability that before the close of the session he would have surrendered the charge into other hands, and said that he could not but entertain some degree of personal pride in having being permitted to mark and record the advance of V. for so many successive years in importance and material prosperity; that he entertained the confident belief that the moral growth of the colony would be found fully proportionate to her physical expansion. The session extended over seven months, La Trobe still continuing Governor. His administration, disastrous for the colony in all respects, came to an end on the 22nd June 1854.

IX. Governor Hotham.—The arrival of Sir Charles Hotham was hailed by the colonists with extravagant demonstrations of delight. The most sanguine anticipations—which were doomed to be bitterly disappointed—were indulged in, of a firm, temperate, and equable rule. At his first public appearances the Governor, in reply to the addresses

of welcome he received, announced his intention of conducting his Government on the most broadly popular principles, adding—"In the present day a Government cannot be conducted with satisfaction to the people without the fullest and freest communication with the people." The Governor could scarcely have anticipated that the advanced intelligence of the colony, and the owners of property, would take alarm at such expressions. Such however was the fact; for Hotham was not in the same position as when sent out on diplomatic missions to foreign states, where what he said was deemed mere compliments; all his words were now deeply weighed and regarded by the colonists as an enunciation of his intended policy. The heads of the Departments were perhaps less sorry at the mistakes which His Excellency unfortunately made than any other class, for they must have at once perceived that he would have work enough upon his hands without making unpleasant investigations in the public offices, the result of which no man could well foresee. Hotham desired sincerely to do his duty to his sovereign, to govern the people well, and to deserve their approbation. No ruler could have been actuated by better intentions; he was far from deficient in ability, but he wanted tact and experience. He had no one to aid him, and he failed in accomplishing what he intended. The Government departments were at this period in a state of bewildering disorganisation. The high officials had been guilty of conduct which an officer like Hotham, who had said he would regard no man in his administration of public affairs, would probably have visited with the severest censure. The noble revenues of the colony had been squandered under the imprest system. The confusion in the public accounts occurred after the resignation of Ebden, and the introduction of the imprest system. This was tolerated, if at all, to a very limited extent, when Ebden was in the Audit office; but the money imprested was small in amount, and had to be accounted for to the Government before the department could obtain any more funds. In the time of Ebden's successor sums of enormous magnitude were allowed to the heads of the departments, and no correct account delivered for a long time afterwards. No proper account had even been kept of the manner in which they had been swallowed up. Enormous amounts had thus disappeared; in one department, that of the Civil Commissariat, a very large sum, amounting to nearly three hundred thousand pounds, was unvouched for. Regular statements were however prepared and submitted to the Legislature, which under the old system had no means of obtaining correct information on the state of the public accounts. La Trobe was plodding enough in composing despatches to the Colonial Office, but was wanting in the necessary energy to grapple with such an accumulation of abuses as had grown up within a few years. Hotham found that the revenue for the six months

previous to his arrival was short of the estimate by a sum that seemed incredible, and that his administration was plunged into monetary difficulties. He at once instituted a rigorous personal enquiry into the condition of the various public departments, and set about rectifying the manifold abuses he discovered with an unsparing hand. The result was that he found himself involved in bitter personal enmities with the official heads of the departments. With Foster in particular the quarrel was open and avowed. It soon became evident to those who reflected on public questions that Hotham was not receiving the cordial support of the officers under him, and that he must soon be in a serious dilemma, acting, as he appeared to be, on his own unaided judgment. He would have made a very good Governor had he found responsible government in operation, for he really had a warm desire to do justice to the people. He soon discovered that all who were nominated to governments in colonies under the despotic administration of the Colonial Office had good cause to know but too well that, in order to comply with the wishes of Downing-street, they would in some cases have to govern in direct antagonism to the views of those over whom they were placed, and who were alone interested in the measures they were called on to carry out. A short time after His Excellency had been enunciating the most liberal sentiments, and stating that "all power proceeded from the people," a despatch arrived from Sir George Grey in reference to the re-enactment of the Convicts Prevention Act during the preceding session. The Minister denied the right of the colonists to pass any law interfering with the Queen's prerogative, and instructed the Governor to release the criminals who had been imprisoned under the objectionable Act. There was no subject on which the people and the Legislature were so determined as the maintaining of this law in its integrity; and Sir Charles must have had his mistake, as to his position, corrected. He had acted as an independent ruler; he must have now seen he was but the nominee of the British Cabinet. There were but few colonists who understood this subject but would have spent the last drop of blood in their veins rather than admit the right of the British Crown to let felons loose amongst the free population, already cursed by too many of the refuse of society from the adjoining penal settlements. The comparatively small community of 1849 had solemnly declared that they would resist the landing of convicts even by an appeal to arms; and now that the population was quadrupled, and the people felt their strength, it was not likely they would allow the sanctity of their hearths to be violated. The almost simultaneous expiration of the Convicts Prevention Act by the effluxion of time with the arrival of this crisis on the Colonial Minister excited the public mind. The crisis had come, and no compromise could be allowed; indeed if so odious an exercise of the prerogative had been

insisted upon, and the doors of the gaols had been opened for those confined under the Act, the colonists would have resisted, and the connection between the colony and Britain would perhaps have been severed. A great public meeting was held in front of the Court House, at which resolutions were carried strongly condemning the measure, and protesting in the most solemn manner against it. The speakers were Westgarth, Michie, Ireland, Eades, Clowes, Blair, Marsden, Owens, Kent, Mackinnon and Newton. The meeting adopted a petition to the Legislature praying, "That in order to the protection of the colonists from further inundation with foreign crime, and in vindication of their own right of freedom of legislation, their Honourable House would re-enact the Convicts Prevention Act with such additional clauses as would prevent the introduction to Victoria of the convicted criminals of other countries or colonies under any pretext whatsoever." The popular indignation was increased by the great favour shown to Sir William Denison, the adviser of this unconstitutional effort to set the felons of the mother country loose on V., through the convenient convict colony of V.D.L. He had been raised to the rank of Governor-General of N.S.W., although notoriously unpopular in all the Australian Colonies, having almost excited the free people in V.D.L. to revolt. He appeared indeed to delight in advising the British Government to adopt measures which he must have been aware would raise the indignation of the Australian people. The resolute language at the public meeting held in Melbourne was re-echoed at another meeting held in Geelong; the people even pledged themselves at the latter to "go the length of extreme means in order to avert the threatened plague." Indeed, the Legislature scarcely kept pace with public expectation, for the Convicts Prevention Act had expired in October, and a measure of a more lenient character introduced by the Attorney-General had been referred to a select committee, which did not report on it until the beginning of November. The committee then simply stated that there were so great difficulties in carrying out the Government measure, and which was entitled "A Bill to prevent the influx of unreformed criminals," that it could not be adopted. The great demonstration of the 23rd October and the now unanimously expressed resolve of the people to resist at all hazards—to throw the consideration of all that was usually held sacred aside—the honour of the Crown—the respect for the Government—the desire for ease and social tranquillity—the aversion to violent measures—and, in short, to sacrifice all other considerations that they might maintain their character as a free people, so that the stigma might never be cast upon their offspring that their fathers had suffered such an outrage without displaying the indomitable spirit of the race from which they were descended, now encouraged the Legislative Council to adopt decisive

measures. The petition from the colonists was presented by the Mayor to the Legislative Council on the 24th October, and on 3rd November Nicholson obtained leave to bring in a bill to prevent the influx of criminals. This measure was even more stringent in its provisions than the act of the former year and it included the class of persons objected to arriving from Britain as well as from the neighbouring colonies. This important enactment, which may be deemed the fixed and inexorable resolve of the people of V. on the question at issue, passed into law on 16th November, and the Government, wisely perceiving the unalterable determination of the colonists, did not attempt to interfere with the course of legislation on this subject. The people were far in advance of the Legislature in patriotic feeling, and were indignant that their representatives did not affirm by a solemn declaration the right of the colony to enact whatever laws it deemed necessary for the good of society. The officials of the Government opposed the measure. This was not much to be regretted, as had they condescended to support the representative members they would have no doubt endeavoured to soften down its best, because its most decided, features. The colony was now forbidden ground to all convicted persons, who were liable to be arrested, and either confined or sent out of the colony. In the fourth session of the Legislative Council a bill was introduced by Captain Clarke, Surveyor-General, for conferring municipal government on country districts, with powers for levying rates for public purposes. This measure, framed after the American model, had a very beneficial effect in ameliorating the condition of the suburban towns and country districts, and has tended almost more than any other towards social and physical improvement. Hotham issued a commission on 2nd November 1854 to inquire into the laws and usages then existing by virtue of which the waste lands of the colony were occupied, and to ascertain what alterations in such laws would be for the public advantage, and the nature and extent of all claims which had arisen, and how they were to be adjusted. On 12th September 1854 the Hobson's Bay Railway was opened, in the presence of His Excellency and a large assemblage of the most influential persons in the colony. The Ballarat Riots which occurred in November 1854, led to the forced resignation of Foster, the Chief Secretary. They also ruined the popularity of the Governor. The more experienced colonists began to doubt his judgment and aptitude for administering the government; and totally unacquainted with the difficulties which he had then to contend with, held aloof. He required advice, for he had no cordial sympathy or assistance from his constitutional advisers, and he had too little knowledge of the state of affairs to govern without such aid. His Excellency, however, displayed considerable discrimination in selecting a successor

to Foster. W. Haines had been returned by the popular voice to the Legislative Council, and was an Englishman and a member of the Church of England, and, therefore, likely to be acceptable to a large portion of the community. Haines may be regarded as a Minister called to power by the favour of the Governor and the good opinion of the people. The events which had passed had taught Hotham a useful lesson; and from this time to his death he evinced a greater desire to govern the colony in a constitutional manner, and the consequence was that it continued prosperous and tranquil. Hotham had learned from practical experience—what he might have learned equally well from history, if he had bestowed any share of attention on that most useful study—that to administer the Government of any country in accordance with the interests and wishes of the community is comparatively easy and simple; but no authority can long exist without the confidence of the people. On 13th December 1854 the new Secretary was introduced to the Legislative Council by the Attorney-General and the Collector of Customs. In his first address he said that the Government contemplated great changes in the administration of the gold-fields, by conceding a proper representation in the Legislature and introducing amongst the people institutions for local self-government. The true method of tranquillising the diggers was at last adopted by granting them political privileges co-equal with the other classes of the community. The insurrection at Ballarat had a beneficial effect on the colony; it promoted social and political progress, and helped materially to place the relations of the Government and the people upon a proper and defined basis. The two bills for carrying into effect these necessary and conciliatory measures towards the people on the gold-fields passed the Legislative Council in May. The number of members of the Council Increase Bill gave Sandhurst, Castlemaine and Ballarat two, and the Avoca and Ovens one representative, being eight members, which gave His Excellency the privilege of nominating four. The Gold-fields Law Amendment Act provided for the issue of a Miner's Right which should give the holder power to work upon the Crown land for one year. A local court was also called into existence before which the miners were enabled to bring their differences for adjustment. The miners could sit as members of the local courts and vote at their election. The Government was empowered to issue leases for auriferous land subject to certain conditions to be framed by local boards. These important measures for extending the franchise to the diggers and introducing self-government amongst them had the desired effect. Tranquillity has ever since reigned at the gold-fields. The close of the session was marked by a partial vote of censure upon the Government. J. F. Strachan moved "That this House deems it inexpedient and impolitic in the Government introducing any new mode of taxation during the present session." A long debate

occurred on the question and it was affirmed by a majority of only one. In closing the session Hotham spoke very briefly and merely alluded to the ordinary topics; in reference to the vote we have just noticed he said, "I am compelled to stop such of the public works as are not under contract and to make further reductions in those establishments which the Council have resolved to be necessary for the performance of the public service." The colonists were deeply grieved at the death of Major-General Sir Robert Nickle, on 29th May 1855. This distinguished officer had entered the army in 1798 and served throughout the Peninsular war with great distinction. He had afterwards been in the States of America and Canada and in the East and West Indies, and was at this time Commander-in-Chief in the Australian Colonies. He had acquired some share of popularity in V. from the great temper and forbearance he had exhibited towards the digging popularity after the insurrection at Ballarat. Hotham had become so unpopular that it was seriously in contemplation to forward a requisition to the Governor-General in Sydney to come and investigate the position of the Government of V. The movement was not ultimately acted on; but it occasioned some sensation. The powers of the Governor-General were set forth at length in a despatch from Earl Grey when Secretary of State for the Colonies to Sir Charles Fitzroy, dated 13th January 1851 and published in the *Sydney Government Gazette* in the following June. The agitation of the matter was far from being agreeable to the Executive. Hotham, who appeared to have deemed Commissions the only method of attaining correct information on questions of public interest, appointed a Committee of three to inquire into the financial condition of the colony. Their instructions referred to the large sums under the head of imprests remaining unbalanced, the necessity of a searching inquiry into the finances of the colony, and also for devising a financial scheme suitable for the future. The gentlemen who formed this "Secret Commission" were the Auditor-General, William Hamilton Hart, and David Charteris MacArthur, and they reported on 11th September 1854. The Committee exposed some of the frightful effects of the imprest system; by returns they furnished it appeared that on the 28th August the sum of £1,682,328 had been imprested, and no adjustment of it effected; and, deducting £372,089, the accounts not due, there was the balance of £1,310,238 unaccounted for; of this balance accounts for £8093 had been received and passed for warrant; accounts for £157,835 were in course of examination; accounts for £182,599 had been received in the audit office; accounts for £677,964 had been received, but the authority for the expenditure was insufficient, leaving the sum of £283,745 wholly unaccounted for. Of the large sum of £1,310,238, which remains unadjusted, the Civil Commissariat, Police, and Public Works departments, represent £883,250. The Committee

recommended that the imprest system should be abolished, and accounts discharged after final audit only at the Treasury. The New Constitutions, as framed by the Legislatures of the different colonies, were brought before the Imperial Parliament by Lord John Russell, and passed with scarcely any remark. Robert Lowe opposed the nominated Upper House for N.S.W., but his opposition was ineffectual. The New Constitution Act was received by the *Shalimar* on the 16th October 1855. It was officially proclaimed on 23rd November by His Excellency, who had recommended a general holiday in honour of the event. The Government offices were closed, and business generally was suspended, but there were no public rejoicings. On the same day the Legislative Council was opened for its last session prior to dissolution, by a speech very different from the Governor's former efforts. This document evinced very considerable ability, and a skill which is seldom met with in the State papers of Hotham. He congratulated the Council upon the working of the new Acts for the regulation of the gold-fields, and upon his own financial reforms, and the improved aspect of public affairs generally. The new organ of the Executive received considerable credit on this occasion; but a movement which he, in conjunction with the other high officers of the Government, thought themselves called upon to make, in order to introduce responsible Government into the colony, lost him much of the popularity he appeared to be attaining. A wide difference of opinion existed as to the exact period when the various heads of departments should cease to be responsible to the Crown and become responsible to the popular Legislature. The officials felt themselves in a difficult position in framing the estimates; the doubtful point was this: should they regard the estimates as framed by his Excellency, and the Ministry as being responsible to him for the manner in which they carried them out as had hitherto been the case, or should they look upon the estimates of revenue and expenditure as their own, and introduce them in the approved budget fashion? The Colonial Secretary asked the Governor in what position as to responsibility he considered the officials to stand? and, after the subject had been duly considered, the high officials received a circular releasing them from office on "political grounds." Haines, the ex-Chief Secretary, was then sent for in the most approved form, and having been requested by His Excellency to form a Ministry, immediately appeared with the members of the Executive who had just resigned. The Council and the people concurred in thinking the members of the Ministry were actuated by a desire to secure their pensions. Under the 50th clause of the New Constitution Act, persons released from office on political grounds were entitled to pensions, but this clause was qualified by the next clause, which provided that pensions shall be granted subject to the regulations in force in Britain, which shut out all

who may not have been two years in office. The new Ministers only escaped a severe vote of censure for thus prematurely assuming "responsibility" by one vote. They had, moreover, anything but an agreeable task before them with the great bulk of the popular members decidedly hostile to their policy, and the Governor inclined to exact compliances hardly in accordance with their vaunted responsibility. On the 18th December 1855, William Nicholson proposed a motion for the introduction of the ballot. The terms of the motion were—"that in the opinion of the House, any new Electoral Act should provide for electors recording their votes by secret ballot." This resolution was not only opposed by the newly-appointed responsible Government, who contrary to Nicholson's express desire made it a Ministerial question, but by Mollison, Smith, Fawkner, Greeves, O'Shanassy, and O'Brien, who were opposed to the Ministry. It was, notwithstanding, affirmed by thirty-three votes to twenty-five, and the Cabinet had of course no alternative but to resign. They had made an error in consequence of their having over-rated the influence of those popular members who were notoriously antagonistic to the measure. They became the victims of this misplaced confidence. The advocates of the ballot had not anticipated this, and were scarcely prepared for assuming the responsibility of forming an administration. Hotham adopted the constitutional course of sending for Nicholson, who rather unwillingly accepted the task of forming a Ministry. With some difficulty he obtained the services of a gentleman competent to carry on the various departments. But when he had organised a Ministry he found that they were not likely to have that political cohesion and unanimity of sentiment which in his opinion were necessary to carry on the official business of the country. He therefore reluctantly abandoned the task and assumed the whole responsibility of this failure. In the short explanation he made to the House he stated that if he had desired office he might perhaps have got a Ministry together, but under the present constitution he had thought it difficult to find men capable of forming a Ministry; and the difficulty was this, that persons were not politically consistent, and it was hopeless to attempt to form a Ministry differing from him on almost every question." On a subsequent occasion he interrupted Chapman, who was proceeding to excuse the failure, and said "It would be better not to enter on details; he alone had failed and he was willing to take the responsibility of it." During the pending negotiations between Nicholson and the other supporters of the ballot in the House, Sir Charles Hotham's death occurred; and Major-General Macarthur, the officer who assumed the administration of the Government in accordance with the letters patent appointing the former to be Governor-in-chief of the colony, recalled Haines and the other members of his Ministry back to office. Had Hotham lived there is little

doubt that he would have endeavoured to construct a new Ministry out of such materials as were within his reach. Like Lord Metcalf, when Governor of Canada, he would have canvassed the colonists to become Ministers rather than be placed in a position which he deemed humiliating. Perhaps under the circumstances Major-General Macarthur adopted the wisest course which was open to him, and at any rate it was a step which relieved him from a considerable amount of responsibility and annoyance. In his explanatory speech to the House Haines stated that "Mr. Nicholson having had the opportunity of forming a Ministry and not being able to succeed, he thought the resolution which had been arrived at by the House in reference to the ballot no longer binding, and he should proceed as if it had never been passed." The House however agreed to the ballot clauses proposed by Nicholson, and they were incorporated in the new Electoral Act; and so well did they answer the purpose that the adjoining colonies adopted them. On 14th December Dr. Embling moved two resolutions in the Legislative Council condemning State-aid to religion, and recommending his Excellency not to take action on the 53rd clause of the Constitution Act until the colonists generally had had an opportunity of expressing their views in the forthcoming elections. These resolutions were negatived by a large majority. Hotham had commenced his career by enunciating the democratic principle, that power proceeds from the people. He had not been long in office before his opinions and measures were alike viewed as tyrannical. The Governor, who had been received with the most lavish demonstrations of satisfaction; who had been regarded as the model of perfection, the most liberal of rulers; was now viewed as a narrow-minded martinet, whose proper place was the quarter-deck. The people who had over-rated him now fell into the opposite extreme, and did not give him credit for the abilities which he unquestionably possessed. Hotham had under such adverse circumstances to discharge the difficult duty of introducing Responsible Government. There could hardly have been a task requiring more judgment, temper and discriminating firmness; and as he did not possess these in any eminent degree, it is not much to be wondered at that he succeeded but indifferently in his task. He was, by emphasis, the wrong man in the wrong place. The progress of the colony, meanwhile, had been unparalleled during the first five years of its independent existence. The city of Melbourne had been nearly rebuilt, and spacious warehouses and handsome dwellings occupied space which could previously boast little beyond mere hovels. The commercial relations of the colony had not, however, been by any means so satisfactory as could have been desired. The markets had been glutted with merchandise in consequence of the high rates which had been obtained in the first year of gold digging; prices

fell and severe losses were sustained. The progressive improvement of the colony, and the expansion of its own resources, restricted business. There were many persons engaging in supplying and distributing produce which began to be grown in the colony, and they soon found their occupation gone. Credit had been carried to an extent almost unprecedented. No merchant refused goods to any trader, and the idea of insolvent debtors had not startled them out of their false security. In 1854 the crash fell with great violence; many traders became involved, and there was wide-spread distress in the towns and on the goldfields. The low prices of most articles of foreign production ultimately tended to the increase of the national wealth, as the great proportion of the merchandise was sent out at the risk of persons who were not connected with the colony in business. It was now made apparent that too many persons had embarked in commercial pursuits, and that a considerable portion of the trade was of a forced and unnatural kind; and that numbers of those who expected to obtain a permanent footing as merchants must be disappointed, and compelled ultimately to look out for more legitimate pursuits as a means of living. The banking interest had emerged into very considerable importance. There had been branches of the two great Anglo-Australian establishments in Melbourne from its very infancy; and the Bank of New South Wales had opened a branch just before the date of separation. After the gold diggings had become a fact, the want of another bank became evident to many mercantile men, and the first local institution for banking purposes was launched into existence under the designation of the Bank of Victoria. It has been skilfully and carefully managed, and succeeded admirably, giving the public confidence in domestic associations. The Colonial Bank was commenced in 1855, and promised to be quite as successful as its predecessor. The London Chartered, the English, Scottish and Australian and the Oriental Banks opened branches in Melbourne. A considerable amount of attention began to be bestowed upon agriculture and stock-breeding. Several gentlemen imported "blood" of the first character from Europe. There had been two associations for the promotion of those objects for some years in existence—the Port Phillip Farmers' Society and the Industrial Association. Local societies began to be formed throughout the various districts of the colony, whose operations have been most beneficial. The gold had been obtained in the first instance from alluvial digging and by individual exertions. It was found that the inexhaustible quartz-reefs were all auriferous, and machinery and capital were soon brought to bear upon them; and a far wider field was thus opened for industry in combination with capital. The banks established branches on all the principal gold-fields. In the early phase of Victorian colonisation the want of a continuous stream of free immigration was

urgently felt. Such persons as arrived from the mother country, with very few exceptions, were agricultural labourers and tradesmen, with their families, whose passages were defrayed from the land fund of the colony. But the discovery of gold made a marked change in this respect. Vessels of the largest size crowded into Hobson's Bay, crammed with living freights, until six hundred ships lay at one period there together, many of them destitute of their crews. The sailors at this period usually deserted for the gold-fields. The people arrived in such numbers that no accommodation could be prepared for them, and much suffering and discomfort ensued. Had the government of the colony been better conducted, and the Crown lands been more accessible, the greater part of those persons would have remained. But unfortunately the agricultural lands were not easily purchased, and labour and other appliances were unattainable, so that many who acquired fortunes departed again with their wealth to other countries.

X. *Governor Barkly*.—Sir Henry Barkly succeeded Sir Charles Hotham on the 26th December 1857. The first parliament under the New Constitution had assembled on 21st November 1856. By the 3rd March following a crisis had arisen, and Haines and his friends resigned. The event was interesting, as being the first of its kind occurring after the New Constitution was fairly under way. The stumbling-block arose out of a vote for immigration purposes which had been taken for the sum of £270,000, while, as it afterwards came out, the Ministry's intention at the time, and in fact the arrangements they had made, involved an actual expenditure of only £120,000. The larger sum looked better in the face of some considerable expenses attending a new system of immigration; and besides the £150,000 of spare money might prove convenient to the wants of an uncertain future. But the House rebelled forthwith at this laxity of principle, and on its condemnatory vote Haines was succeeded by O'Shanassy. The new Minister, although himself an able and well-informed public man, was encumbered by a following of a miscellaneous character in a political sense. There was indeed a difficulty as yet in finding "workable" Ministries in the new political field, as Nicholson had already experienced. Public men, even if they had as yet emerged with fixed principles of their own from the race and agitation of the colony's politics, were still little disciplined into mutual co-operation. The new Government lasted hardly six weeks when Haines was again Premier; and as he was personally in general esteem and had brought with him on the whole a better following than his predecessor he succeeded in standing longer. In fact he held his ground, as his impatient opponents of these restless days might have said, for the unconscionable period of almost an entire year, when at last he was in turn upset upon a schedule of an Electoral Districts' Act,

and once more O'Shanassy "reigned in his stead." This last proceeding brings us to the 24th February 1858. By this time much had been accomplished in constitutional questions, notwithstanding what might seem to outside observers the slipshod aspect of the Government as indicated by the repeated ministerial changes. The Legislature that had closed the past order had been considerably pervaded by influences outside the parliamentary walls, and with so much effect that it passed with a fair majority a motion in favour of the ballot—a thing it had never shown any disposition to do previously. Indeed a large proportion of this majority, including even the mover himself, had formerly been opponents of the ballot. But the searching political ordeal of the new system had caused every one to re-examine his political views and to test the theoretical by the practical. In consequence the accustomed anti-ballot theories mostly disappeared. Subsequent experience more than confirmed all the anticipations from this measure both as to its nullifying effect upon bribery and intimidation, and even more, its influence in restraining disorderly excesses and violence during the exciting times of political elections. The first elections under the Ballot Act took place in 1856. The effect was quite extraordinary, the elections having passed off without the least confusion or disturbance, although there was immense popular interest felt in the results. The Ministry of that day too as well as the Assembly were prone to liberalities. Although they opposed the ballot they introduced and passed an Electoral Act which greatly equalised the previously imperfect representations, and thus gave a fairer starting ground for the new order. The Ministry continued the Government during the transition interval; and its leading members having addressed the new constituencies and been elected into the Assembly of the new parliament, they prolonged their administration into the new era. They pleaded strongly for a fair trial being given to the New Constitution, condemned although it now was for its restrictions. They however expressed themselves generally as disposed to accept the new conditions and ideas; and thus the colony enjoyed the advantage of starting on the new course with its old guides under a reciprocity to some extent of confidence and good-will. The development of the programme of the colony's new political career was very rapid. The manhood suffrage, a Government measure, was passed in 1857 with a conservative clause giving a non-residential vote in right of £50 of property or £5 of yearly rental. On the motion of an opposition member (Mr. Duffy) the property qualification as regards membership in the Assembly was abolished. The numbers of this body were increased from sixty to seventy-eight members, and the electoral distribution received on the occasion a further degree of accordance with the population-basis principle. Other measures

of the democratic programme were tried but they were less successfully dealt with. State-aid to Religion after being lost by one vote of the Assembly was still preserved by a majority of one vote in the Council; while all efforts to fuse the two existing Educational boards, representing respectively the rival national and denominational systems, and to introduce some general and truly national system, proved at that time futile although accomplished at a later period. Such were the attainments at the date alluded to. The colony had entered on a democratic course already far in advance of home example, and the proclivities (as an American would express it) were strong. As each Ministry was bowed out its successor braced itself better up to the democratic regimen which accordingly it administered with a more accustomed and less irresolute hand. Three more years elapse without any special results. But in 1861 there seemed to be a reactionary movement. More than one Premier had appeared and passed away in that busy and shifting interval. The Heales Ministry was in office; but Heales' call to the premiership was hardly announced ere the Assembly by a very decided majority pronounced its want of confidence. The House had its likes or dislikes to Heales and his following, or rather to the latter, for that was ever the high ministerial difficulty; and besides Heales was a protectionist. The democratic development had sensibly increased the strength of a colonial protection party which was previously of no consideration, and confined mainly to certain agricultural districts which had hoped for a reign of high prices during the confused prospects of the first years of gold-mining. Under these circumstances it was generally expected that the Governor, Sir Henry Barkly, would have called another Minister. He did not do so however but at Heales' request granted him the chances of a new Assembly. The new elections resulted so far favourably that they diminished the hostile majority; but as they did not remove it, the adverse votes being still forty against thirty-four, Heales and his party quitted office. The programme, as sketched by the Governor in his opening speech to the new Assembly on 30th August 1861, was more ample, perhaps, as well as more precise, than any of its predecessors, and illustrative of what may be called the advanced democratic school of the colony. First, as to the Crown Lands, which although termed "waste," were occupied by squatters. A plan was to be adopted by the Government of permitting occupation of any waste lands by simple license to persons who, with the purpose of settling and cultivating, took 160 acres, on the condition of paying 2s. 6d. per acre of rental. Next, the principle of Protection was to be adopted, partly with the view of increasing revenue by increased customs dues, partly to give the "incidental advantages" to home industries by directing the taxation of imports to those articles that competed with home production. In the same spirit colonial

distillation was to be encouraged by levying a less duty on colonial than on imported spirits. Thirdly, it was proposed to adopt a system of payment of members; and the plan, as understood, was that each member of parliament was to receive a salary of £300 a year. The other chief propositions were, a reduction of the export duty on gold from 2s. 6d. per ounce to 1s. 6d.; the introduction of the Torrens Real Property Land Transfer Act; the substitution of one Education Board for the present two divisions, with the twofold object of economy, and of giving a sound secular education; the abolition of State-aid to religion; and the reform of the constitution of the Council or Upper House. Regarding these proposed measures, the proposals generally were not unsuitable to the colony's circumstances, and were in fact likely for the most part to be carried out gradually in the quieter political procedure that seemed promised to the colony. Already the gold-duty was reduced, and the Torrens Land Transfer Act made law; while a Crown Lands measure, with greatly increased facilities to the purchasing public, was passed by Heales' successors. The State-aid and Education questions either had already taken, or seemed on the eve of taking, the issues indicated above; and the constitution of the second Chamber was to be reformed towards a less restricted qualification, unless that body was content to exist with a legal rather than an actual influence and consideration in the colony. On the other hand, there was evidently a strong prejudice with many at the time against the proposition of the payment of members, arising in the main from a feeling that members should be possessed independently of at least sufficient means of subsistence, so as not to trust to their politics for a livelihood. O'Shanassy succeeded Heales. This time he was aided by more promising coadjutors, as they included Haines and Nicholson; and the Ministry lived to the unprecedented term of nearly two years. The wants and aims of the colony were growing clearer, and thus permitted of more extended co-operation among its public men. The new Ministry applied at once a conservative check to the momentum of change and progress instituted by its predecessor. The "re-arrangement of the tariff" was to have operated protectively by means of duties to be levied on imported vehicles, furniture and other articles that competed with colonial production. An array of wharfage rates was, amongst other purposes, designed to give a slight protection to agriculture, which was not however to be otherwise favoured—to the disappointment of many farmers who themselves restricted in many things by the proposed code, hoped that their interest above all others would be reciprocally cherished. Some extra income derived from these arrangements was to have permitted of a reduction of the tea duty (6d. per pound) and of the duty on the lower qualities of sugar (5s. per cwt.) £20,000 a year was expected from a duty on bank-notes.

The new Ministry disowned all the protective projects and would let the tariff and minuter proposed changes alone for the present. Their attention was given to a final settlement of the long-protracted Public Lands question. That question was complicated by the many interests that had arisen under past and present systems. There was also the difficulty of dealing with the squatters, whose slight and surface use of the natural country, besides the comparatively large area that each sheep and bullock required, suspended that class in a sort of dubious mid-air as to the question of its pertaining to a fixed and permanent system of the colony. By the Imperial Act of 1855 the colonial lands administration was transferred to the colonial legislature. After five years discussion both within and without the parliamentary walls, Nicholson when Premier in 1860 ventured on the first exercise of the new colonial authority on the contentious subject by passing the Land Sales Act of that year, which prevented any further operations of the "Orders in Council," although not expressly repealing them. The other provisions did not embrace the whole land question. Heales' proposition too, besides the same defect, was deemed of an unsuitable character for a colony already well peopled, full of markets and municipal towns, and more or less settled throughout. In laying open all the squatting runs to the agricultural lessee as if they were literally a waste or empty territory it did much more than maintain the old doubts about the relative value of squatting settlements—it really excluded from consideration the very existence of squatting. These discussions and tentative efforts and propositions were not useless, and prepared the way for a comprehensive measure, the Land Law of 1862. The contention hitherto about agricultural settlement being impeded by the squatters must be set finally at rest. This could only be done by the Government reappropriating, as it were, all the lands suitable for agriculture. These the squatters must give up, using them on mere sufferance till wanted. On the other hand, they would enjoy the pastoral use of the rest of the colony, with all the reasonable security of possession that the public interests could afford them. At the same time, even as to these agricultural lands, the squatters were not to be exposed to the casual inroad of any intending purchaser or lessee; for there were to be no sales or settlements prior to the regular survey of the lands, and their proclamation as open to purchase. Regarding the rest of the public, the great object was to promote the permanent settlement of the country by giving encouragements and privileges to a residential agricultural population. Great exertions would be made with the surveys, so that the widest area of choice might be given to intending settlers. To such there would be no delay or uncertainty such as attends the public auction ordeal. Advanced as the colony now was, the price must be maintained at twenty shillings

an acre, but intending residents could select at will over the area surveyed, and they were facilitated in their payments by an option of buying one half of their section, and leasing the remainder at a yearly rent of 2s. 6d. an acre, with the understanding that, after eight such yearly instalments, the remainder was also their own. The land was to be surveyed in sections of from 40 to 640 acres, and no one was entitled to purchase under these regulations more than the latter quantity in any one year. The condition of the colonial lands had been ascertained to be as follows:—There were altogether in round numbers fifty-five and a-half millions of acres of colonial area. Of this extent four and a-half millions had been alienated from the Crown by sale, half a million acres existed in worked gold-fields; there were about two millions appropriated to commonage, and thirteen millions were sterile. There remained ten and a-half million acres suitable for agriculture, and twenty-five millions more that, although not suited to agriculture, were available for pasture. The long lane of the land question seemed about to be run to its final end under the O'Shanassy Administration when there came once more a change of Government. The Ministry had lasted twenty-two months. What were things political coming to? How were all the many expectants on either side the House to come in as Ministers in their day and turn, if any one set takes such a lease of the official seats? Even the fourteen years leases after being demolished in one shape might return in another on the colony at this rate. Nevertheless it was a good sign of the colony's political steadiness. But what caused the mishap? A decided mishap it was, for it was indicated by forty-two votes against twenty-six. It occurred on the occasion of discussing amendments to the New Land Act. The particular point was with regard to the assessments on the squatters. These dues as the Government had promised the Assembly were to yield an increased income, by the adoption of a system of arbitration for ascertaining the depasturing capability of the runs, instead of the previous plan of sworn returns from the respective squatters themselves. The unexpected result was however that the new mode yielded a less revenue, and as the arbitrations had been rather a costly business, the Ministry felt itself in an awkward position before the House. To get out of their difficulty Ministers preferred the course of abandoning the new and reverting to the old mode. This course was however opposed, as savouring of repudiation towards those squatters whose arbitration cases had resulted in the lesser amount. The new system was law for the time and they claimed their advantage accordingly. An opposition was organised in accordance with this view of the case headed by McCulloch, one of the principal merchants of the colony; and when O'Shanassy's Ministry after some consultation on on the subject had decided to resign, McCulloch was entrusted by the Governor with the formation of a

Ministry. These occurrences were in June 1863. McCulloch's Government was well supported, including in more than usual measure the social position, ability, and political experience of the colony. The new Ministry amended the Electoral Act of their predecessors by restoring the secrecy of the ballot, which had been to some extent invaded by a clause of the Act that connected the voter with his voting-paper by means of a number to be affixed to the paper by the returning officer upon taking the vote. There were improved arrangements made in the assisted immigration department, chiefly with the view of introducing from among the poorer classes of the mother country persons of a training suited to the colony's wants, and, in particular, female domestic servants. The suspension of land sales under the new Act, pending an amendment of some of its clauses, left comparatively small means at the Government's disposal for immigration projects. The Land Sales Act of 1860 had caused endless discussion both in and out of Parliament. Ministerial difficulties had occurred on the subject, and on the re-assembling of Parliament after the adjournment usual on such occasions, the excitement reached its climax. This was on 28th August 1860. Large public meetings had been, shortly before held, at which several of the members of the Assembly stirred up the populace, in effect, to make a physical demonstration in the open area around the parliamentary buildings, in favour of a popular and anti-squatting Land Act. In the afternoon of the 28th an immense assemblage had come together, who by degrees proceeded to violence, in breaking windows, throwing stones, by which many of the police were wounded, and shouting for a rush into the Assembly, where the members were at the time engaged in business. But at this threatening stage the Riot Act was read, and the area was cleared without difficulty by a small party of mounted troopers. This very unusual event in the capital greatly outraged the public feeling, and accordingly, on the following day, sixteen hundred of the citizens enrolled themselves as a special defensive force in case of future need. All the military force of the colony had shortly before been despatched to the aid of the N.Z. Government in the war with the Maories—a circumstance somewhat truculently alluded to in the exciting speeches of some of the leaders of the movement. A number of the rioters had been laid hold of and were duly brought before the magisterial bench of the Mayor. In most of the cases, as often happens in such occurrences, there seemed no evil purpose, but a mere excitement of the moment. The parties really blameable were sure to be out of harm's way. Those who had been arrested were only anxious to make all kinds of excuses. One had an order for admission to the Parliament House and merely tried to put it in force; while another was pushed on by those behind; and others had wives and families to think about instead of disturbances to

the peace. All were leniently enough dealt with, but a legislative Act was immediately passed which prohibited for the future any public meetings or gatherings within certain distances of the buildings of Parliament. One of the earliest duties of the new Governor Barkly after his arrival was to entertain an Act of the Colonial Parliament by which the salary of his office was reduced from £15,000 to £10,000 a year. There had been some disagreement between the home authorities and the colony in the preceding year on the subject of reducing the Governor's salary. The large amount of £15,000 had been agreed to eight years before, in consideration of the excessive costliness of everything at the time in Melbourne. Latterly however there had been such a complete change in this respect that the expense of living was now perhaps hardly more than one-third of what it had previously been. The Colonial Parliament therefore decided at first on a reduction to £7000 a year, with a proviso that the Act was to take effect after the current tenure of the office had run the customary term, understood to be seven years. Exception however was taken to this proceeding by the Imperial Government, and for this reason, amongst others, that the Queen might be pleased to prolong the Governor's viceroyalty, in which case the reduction of salary might be held as inconsistent with implied engagements. The Act therefore was not ratified at home, a circumstance that caused some slight dissatisfaction in the colony at the time. After an interval however, during which it was understood that Sir Henry Barkly was to be appointed elsewhere after the usual term, the salary for the future was fixed at £10,000, exclusive of course of a Government house, provided and kept in repair at the colony's expense. Sir Charles Darling reserved this Act for Imperial approval, according to the usual course in this question. The death of Richard Heales in 1864 led to the appointment of J. M. Grant as Minister of Lands. The new Minister framed and succeeded in carrying into law a popular Land Act, which still bears his name, and which virtually put an end to the squatting occupation, and threw the whole of the territory open to agricultural free selection. This Act has been since amended in some of its details, but it practically continues still in operation. Sir Henry Barkly's term of office, which had been extended by the Imperial Government for two years beyond the ordinary term, came to a close in September 1863. He took his departure from the colony amidst universal regrets. He was the first popular Governor V. ever had. His rule was mild, temperate, and just. He maintained the dignity of the Crown, at the same time that he was courteous and affable in his bearing towards all classes. A sharp contention on a point of constitutional form arose between Sir Henry Barkly and the Ministry of which O'Shanassy was chief. Popular feeling ran very high on the matter, but went entirely with the Governor, who received addresses

of sympathy from all parts of the colony. On the other hand, O'Shanassy became so unpopular that when his short-lived Ministry fell, he lost all chance of regaining power, and was subsequently exiled from the political arena for several years. During Sir Henry Barkly's Administration the material progress of the colony steadily increased. The yield of gold however had fallen in 1862 to £6,685,192, which was a little more than half the export of 1855. On 30th September, 1864, the total population was 596,529, of whom 343,525 were males and 253,004 females.

XI. *Governor Darling.*—Sir Henry Barkly was succeeded by Sir Charles Darling, who arrived in September 1863; he was nephew of Sir Charles Darling, who forty years before had been Governor of N.S.W. He was destined to troublous times, for he had not long arrived before another vexatious hitch took place in the working of the Constitution. A large part of the revenue in each colony was raised by means of duties levied upon certain goods on their entrance to the various ports. Now the list of articles subject to such duties was in 1864 shorter in V. than in any of the other colonies; but the Ministry then in power, headed by McCulloch, desired to place a duty on many articles previously admitted free. This change was agreed to by the Assembly, but the Council evinced a very decided hostility to the proposal; the Ministers determined to coerce it, and adopted a plan which had several times been successfully employed in England. According to the British Constitution—which was closely followed by V.—all bills dealing with money matters must be laid before the Upper House, which may pass them or reject them according as it pleases but has no power to make any alterations. Now the money required by the Government each year is voted by the two Houses in an Appropriation Act, which is a bill prepared by the Government, discussed and amended by the Lower House, and then sent up to the Upper House for its assent, which is seldom refused. But on this occasion the Government inserted its Tariff Bill as one of the clauses in the Appropriation Act for 1865. The whole was agreed to by the Assembly and passed on to the Council, which now found itself in a difficult position. If it passed the Act it would thereby give its assent to the obnoxious Tariff Bill; if it rejected the Act there would be no money forthcoming for the payment of the public debts; and any intermediate course was forbidden by the Constitution. It chose the alternative of throwing out the Act, and the affairs of the colony were thrown into confusion; all the officers of government, clerks, customs officers, gaol officials, policemen and seamen, together with all the workmen on the railways or public buildings could receive no wages, and the contest of the Upper House with the Ministry and the Lower House was watched by the people with intense interest. Matters were becoming serious when the Ministry discovered an ingenious device

for obtaining money. According to British law if a man is unable to obtain from the Government what it owes him, he sues for it in the Supreme Court, and then if this Court decides in his favour it orders the money to be paid quite independently of the Appropriation Act. In their emergency the Ministry applied to the banks for a loan of money; five of them refused, but the sixth agreed to lend £40,000. With this sum the Government servants were paid, and then the bank demanded its money from the Government; but the Government had now no money, and the bank then brought its legal action. The Supreme Court gave its order, the money was paid to the bank out of the Treasury; and thus a means had been discovered of obtaining all the money that was required without asking the consent of Parliament. Throughout the year 1865 the salaries of officers were obtained in this way; but in 1866 the Upper and Lower Houses agreed to hold a conference. Each made concessions to the other, the Tariff Bill was passed, the Appropriation Bill was then agreed to in the ordinary way, and the "Deadlock" came to an end. But in its train other troubles followed; for the English authorities were displeased with Darling for allowing such a state of things. They showed how he might have prevented it, and to mark their dissatisfaction they recalled him in 1866. He bitterly complained of the harsh treatment; and the Assembly regarding him as in some measure a martyr to the cause of the people determined to recompense him for his loss of salary. In the Appropriation Act of 1867 they therefore placed a grant of £20,000 to Lady Darling, intending it for the use of her husband. The Upper House owed no debt of gratitude to Sir Charles, and accordingly it once more threw out the Appropriation Bill. Again there was the same bitter dispute, and again the public creditors were obliged to sue for their money in the Supreme Court. In a short time four thousand five hundred such pretended actions were laid, the Government making no defence, and the order being given in each case that the money should be paid. Sir Charles Darling died shortly after his return to England; and the Assembly, with the consent of the Council, voted Lady Darling a pension of £1000 a year for life. During his brief term of office Darling was exceedingly popular, in fact the idol of the people; but his taking decided stand with the Ministry in their efforts to force the Tariff Bill through the Upper House incensed against him the whole of the commercial and trading classes, and Darling felt keenly their opposition. In May 1866 he took his departure from the colony amidst a tumultuous demonstration of popular sympathy.

XII. *Governor Manners-Sutton*.—Sir John Henry Manners-Sutton (who subsequently became Viscount Canterbury) took office in August 1866. One of his first official acts was to refuse to sign the judgments of the Supreme Court in favour of

Government creditors. The result was that the McCulloch Ministry resigned. A new Ministry was formed under Fellows and Sladen, which was met at once by a vote of want of confidence, the Ministry being in a very small minority in the Assembly. An attempt by the Ministry, backed up by the Governor, to carry on the business of administration in the face of an adverse majority, proved a complete failure. Eventually the "tack" was taken off and the Estimates and the Tariff Bill were passed separately by the Council. The Sladen Ministry resigned, and the McCulloch Ministry came back to power. The remainder of Viscount Canterbury's term was a comparatively quiet one for the Governor, who left the colony in March 1873.

XIII. *Governor Bowen*.—Sir George Bowen was transferred from the Government of Q. to that of V. on the retirement of Viscount Canterbury. He held office for the full term of five years, and it was well understood that he would have been granted an extension of the term but for his compliance with the act of his responsible advisers, in the wholesale dismissal of civil servants which signalled "Black Wednesday." The political history of the colony, from the institution of responsible Government to the present time, being mainly a narrative of changes of Ministries, and of political conflicts, is not capable of being condensed into a clear, continuous, and comprehensive story. The drift of popular feeling, up till the fall of the Berry Ministry in July 1881, may be best indicated by the term ultra-democratic; but, on the other hand, the Upper House has never shown a disposition obstinately to reject measures of a genuinely liberal character, including the reform of its own constitution. It has agreed to pass more liberal Land legislation, payment of members of the Assembly, the Education Act of 1871; and it finally accepted a compromise on the question of self-reform with the Berry Ministry in June 1881. This last concession was followed by the expulsion of the Berry Ministry from office, upon a motion of want of confidence, moved in the Assembly by Sir Bryan O'Loughlen. The Ministry subsequently formed by the latter gentleman was successful, with one exception, in gaining their re-elections, and met Parliament for the first time on 28th July 1881. The settlement of the reform question ensures political peace to the country for a long time to come. The strife of parties can scarcely ever again be as fierce as it has been in time past. All real causes of disagreement have been, in fact, settled. The material interests of the colony are at the moment in a flourishing state, and there is every reason to anticipate an extended period of both political peace and material prosperity for the Colony of Victoria. It only remains to add that the present Governor is the Marquis of Normanby, who succeeded Sir George Bowen in February 1879.

VICTORIA RIVER, a large river on the north-west coast of the continent which empties itself into Queen's Channel near the Cambridge Gulf.

It was discovered by Stokes in 1839. At its confluence with the sea, between Turtle and Pearce Points, it is 26 miles wide. It is guarded from the sea at its mouth by Quoin, Drift-wood, Observation and Clump Islands, and was named after Queen Victoria. The land at the entrance of the river is bold and well defined; a remarkable rocky elevation about 25 miles up the river is called the Fort, as suggested by its bastion-like appearance, now called Table-hill. Among the productions along the banks of the Victoria are the silk, cotton tree and the gouty stem tree. The principal reaches are Whirlpool, Holdfast, Shoal and Long reaches; it is navigable for vessels of burden for 60 miles from the entrance. This position is about 500 miles from the centre of the continent. The valley through which the river passes varies in its nature from treeless, stony plains to rich alluvial flats lightly timbered with a white stemmed gum; the banks are steep and high, thickly clothed with the acacia, drooping eucalyptus and tall reeds.

VICTORIA MOUNTAIN, in N.S.W., 70 miles from Sydney on the Bathurst-road. The passage was named by Mitchell after the Princess Victoria and was opened by Governor Bourke in 1832.

VLAMING, WILLEM DE, Dutch navigator. On 28th December 1696 three ships commanded by him reached the western coast of New Holland, and next day anchored under the island of Rottenest. On 5th January 1697 he went on shore on the mainland, accompanied by eighty armed men and proceeded inland. Nothing was at first seen but gum-trees and cockatoos, but after a three-hours march a small lake was reached where foot-prints were observed, but no natives were seen. Another expedition on the 6th was equally unsuccessful. The ships left Rottenest Island on the 13th and sailed away northward. On the 16th a landing was again effected but nothing was found. On the 23rd, when near Houtman's Abrolhos, some natives were descried walking on the shore. On 3rd February a boat landed on these rocks and found Dirk Hartich's tin plate, with the inscription commemorating his arrival and departure. Cruising about for a time the ships discovered the North-west Cape, and an opening which Vlaming called Willem's River. On the 21st the ships sailed for Batavia.

VOGEL, SIR JULIUS (1835—) is a native of London and was educated at the London University School. He entered the office of his grandfather, who was the head of a large house in the West Indian and South American trade. It was intended that Vogel should acquire a knowledge of mercantile pursuits, with the view of proceeding to South America, where through his connections good prospects would have awaited him. But when the Victorian goldfields became famous he was seized with the desire to visit them, and against the advice of his friends he proceeded to the new El Dorado. Before leaving he went through a course of study on the chemistry and metallurgy

of gold and silver at the Royal School of Mines in Jermyn-street. He was Dr. Percy's first pupil in the metallurgical laboratory of that institution, and from that gentleman took with him to Melbourne a certificate of proficiency in the art of melting and assaying the precious metals. Some time after his arrival Vogel was concerned in various business pursuits in Melbourne and on the goldfields. To oblige a friend who was ill he wrote an article for an up-country newspaper, and so first became connected with journalism, to which he afterwards devoted himself. He became editor of the *Maryborough and Dunolly Advertiser*, proprietor of the *Inglewood Advertiser*, and part proprietor of the *Talbot Leader*. When the rush to Otago, N.Z., commenced he went to Dunedin, and purchasing an interest in the principal weekly paper there, started the *Otago Daily Times*, the first daily paper in N.Z., and which for some years he edited. Before he left V. however he had contested an election for the Avoca district. He polled 2000 votes, but was defeated by Grant and Davies. Annoyance at this defeat did much to influence his departure for N.Z. He studied closely the politics of that colony, and within two years became a member of the Colonial House of Representatives, and of the Provincial Council of Otago. For some years he was head of the Provincial Executive, but in 1869 resigned, as, having disposed of the *Otago Daily Times*, he intended to reside in Auckland, where he became proprietor of the *Southern Cross* and *Weekly News* newspapers. In June 1869 Vogel joined the Ministry formed by Fox, taking the portfolios of Colonial Treasurer, Postmaster-General and Commissioner for Customs. He held these offices till September 1872, when Fox's Government was defeated. After the incoming Government had held office for a month they were defeated on a want of confidence motion, moved by Vogel. The Governor refused them a dissolution, and sent for Vogel, who formed a Ministry. Waterhouse was offered and accepted the Premiership, together with the leadership of the Upper House. Vogel took the portfolios of Colonial Treasurer and Postmaster-General, together with the leadership of the Lower House. Early in 1870 Vogel arranged in Sydney with Hall and the A.S.N. Co. the first Californian service. During the session of 1870, he introduced the Public Works and Immigration proposals which were so warmly adopted by the country, and to which vigorous effect has been and is still being given. After the session Vogel proceeded to Washington. He had already negotiated a postal convention with the United States, and he now visited America to arrange for a through service to supersede Hall's. The British Ambassador, Sir Edward Thornton, was instructed by the Foreign Office to give every assistance. After arranging the contract with Webb, Vogel proceeded to London, where he negotiated the first instalment of the Public Works Loan, and concluded an engagement with a firm of

eminent contractors to send out representatives to N.Z. Vogel's name is intimately identified with the Government Life Insurance system which he introduced, and which is working with very great success, and with the Intercolonial Reciprocity question, in which he has taken much interest. Vogel has also strongly advocated the confederation of the Australasian Colonies, and has written several papers on the subject. He was made Agent-General for N.Z. in London in 1876, received the honour of C.M.G. in 1872, and was knighted in 1875.

VOLTAIRE CAPE, a cape on the north of W.A., named by Baudin in 1801 after the famous French writer. It was surveyed by King in 1820.

W.

WAGGA WAGGA, a pastoral township in N.S.W., on the south bank of the Murrumbidgee, about midway between Sydney and Melbourne. It is 308 miles distant S.W. from Sydney, with which it is connected by the Great Southern Railway. The principal engineering difficulty has been the bridge over the Murrumbidgee and its approaches. On the north side there are 215 spans of 29½ ft., and on the south side 51 spans of the same width, varying from 9 ft. to 24 ft. in height. These are to allow for the escape of the flood waters. The main channel of the river is spanned by a bridge having two continuous wrought iron lattice girders of 636 ft. each in total length, 12 ft. 1 in. deep, and placed 14 ft. apart. These are divided into four spans of 150 ft., each span being supported on two cast iron cylinders 9 ft. in diameter. The population is 4500. The town does a large trade with the surrounding districts. It has been a municipality since March 1870. It has fifty miles of roads, and rateable property to the amount of £326,000. The country round Wagga Wagga is principally pastoral, though experience has proved it to be well suited for agricultural purposes, and a considerable area of land has been free selected. Wagga Wagga has become noted as having been the residence of the "Claimant" in the Tichborne case.

WALCH, GARNET, journalist (1843—) is a native of T., and son of Major Walch of the 54th Regiment. He was educated in England and on the Continent. On his return to A. he was employed as a writer for the leading papers of N.S.W. At Christmas 1871 he produced his original extravaganza "Trookulentos," which was very successful. A year afterwards he removed to V., and has since written several successful pantomimes and other dramatic works. In 1874 he published a volume of humorous verse and prose, "Head over Heels," most of which had appeared during the two preceding years in *Sydney Punch*; and in the year following he

published "On the Cards." He was for six years secretary of the Melbourne Athenæum but resigned the post in 1879.

WALHALLA, a mining township in V., 120 miles E. of Melbourne. It is situated in a valley enclosed by steep hills. The quartz reefs in the vicinity are very rich in gold, and Cohen's reef—one of the best in the colony—runs north and south through the hill to the west of the township. Since its formation, about eight or nine years ago, the Long Tunnel Company has paid £300,000 in dividends, all of which has been accomplished within five or six years. The Walhalla Company has obtained in eight years 77,573 ozs. of the precious metal, and paid £135,173 15s. in dividends. Walhalla has been thus described by a correspondent of the *Argus*:—"Walhalla—the Valhalla of Scandinavian mythology, the place of immortality for the souls of heroes slain in battle—and certainly a more romantic spot could not well be chosen for such a resting-place. The township is situated in a gully on both banks of the creek, closely surrounded and hemmed in on every side by hills fringed with scrub and trees to the very summit. The houses, perched on every conceivable spot, some seeming to be almost inaccessible, give a picturesque aspect to the place and bring to one's mind the nestling *chalets* of Switzerland. The gullies round Walhalla and along the creek are a little different from the usual, truth to tell, rather monotonous scenery of V. One does not see such a sight every day. Lofty hills stretching all round you—gum, eucalyptus and wattle growing in profusion, and even now looking fresh and green, while afar the wide-stretching azure slopes of Baw-Baw and Mount Look-out rear their massive forms to the sky. Here is a perfect feast for the lover of nature's beauties. Innumerable varieties of fern with their graceful fronds are seen on every side, the tree-ferns spread out their drooping leaves above your head, while on fallen decaying stems, moss most exquisite in its brightness of green, makes a study that would gladden the heart of an artist. While heroes might wish to find a resting-place in these romantic depths of cool green shade, the spot should also possess a charm for the many worshippers of Mammon. Could a more appropriate spot be found for a miser's bones to rest than in ground permeated by the glittering substance he loves, where he would literally be encircled with gold? For here, deep down in the bowels of the earth are hidden treasures which would satisfy the imagination of an Eastern monarch, and remind one of the gorgeous magnificence of the 'Arabian Nights.' The quartz reefs are among the richest in the colony. One of the mines, the Long Tunnel, since the working of it began, ten years ago, has yielded over one million sterling, and paid over three hundred thousand pounds in dividends, and still looks as productive as ever. Through the courtesy of the manager we get permission to go through this wonderful mine. Having donned an old coat and hat we take candle

in hand and follow the underground manager along the adit (some 700ft.) into the chamber. Here we enter the cage which is to take us down below. An improvement has been introduced in this mine in the working of the cages, as when they are lowered, the aperture is at once closed, while should the rope or chain break arms at once fly out from the cage and catch the sides of the shaft, preventing further progress. Noiselessly we descend to the third level 320ft. down (the shaft is 723ft. deep,) and follow the manager as he deftly leads the way through dark passages. Here a miner comes along with a truck filled with earth, and we stand aside till it passes. At length we come to where two miners are drilling holes in the quartz for the charge of powder. We examine the lode, and see here and there streaks of the precious metal and take up some of the pieces of quartz lying at our feet, in which also the golden gleam appears. We proceed along another passage, crouching often to get underneath the overhanging rock, and sometimes so low is the aperture that we have only room to get through stretched out at full length. And so on we go, descending further and further into the earth, seeing at each new drive a couple of miners hard at work with huge hammers driving the drills into the rock. No easy work this, as the sweat pouring down their faces testifies. Now we come to a place where they are prospecting for a fresh reef, where the pathway is full of water and the air close and heavy, though in the other parts of the mine the ventilation is very good. We descend ever so many feet by a ladder, and then after more creeping and occasionally sliding through shoots and going carefully over shafts, covered by a few planks, we come to what is called a "pass." This is a descent not very far removed from the perpendicular and formed by wooden planks, where the only hold is by inserting the foot a few inches at each step, holding by the hand to the step above, and where the least slip would result in a rapid involuntary descent to the bottom of the "pass." A muffled noise is now heard from a blast in one of the drives, but this is a good way off. Having at length reached the lower level of the mine, we wait the descent of the cage, which at the signal of the manager, is rapidly lowered (different signals being used for each level of 100ft.) and into this we step and noiselessly ascend to the chamber and then pass along the adit into the outer air again. The miners we find to be as a rule, brawny powerful-looking men, who seem as if working underground did not interfere with their health. This mine is however well ventilated, and enjoys great immunity from accidents. The miners work in three shifts of eight hours each—12 p.m. to 8 a.m., 8 a.m. to 4 p.m., and 4 p.m. to 12 p.m. The machinery in use is of the most recent invention, and we see the working of the pneumatic engine, the quartz-crushing machine and the various processes for extracting the gold. We also see and admire the process of extracting the

pyrites from the tailings, by which a quantity of gold is secured which would otherwise be lost. The quartz in the Long Tunnel mine contains silver as well as sulphur and arsenic, and the tailings have to be roasted before the gold can be eliminated from the mass. What a din there is in the engine-room! You might bawl your loudest and not a word be heard. It is a relief to get into the pure air of heaven again. Grand and almost majestic as these hills around Walhalla looked in the gloom of the evening, it was a more beautiful sight to watch the sun gleaming on their crests and the mist-wreaths curling from their slopes, while far below rushed the turbid waters of the creek. The two views were like the dark and bright side of human nature; though the shadows may often have pathos and majesty in them, we turn with a sense of relief to the rift in the cloud through which the sunlight streams."

WALLAROO, the seaport town of the copper-mining district of that name in S.A. near the shores of Spencer's Gulf, 91 miles N.W. of Adelaide. The famous Wallaroo mines were discovered in 1860. They gave employment to upwards of 833 men, but owing to the low price of copper this number had to be reduced, and at the end of August 1878 operations were altogether stopped. Operations were resumed in April 1880. Up to 1875 the total quantity of ore raised has been 290,669 tons, the yearly average being 26,000; the metal averaging about 15 per cent., being lower than the Burra. The lodes were found to increase in richness at lower depths. There are several other very productive mines in the neighbourhood. Smelting was carried on on a very extensive scale at Wallaroo Bay; the works are the largest in the colony and include 36 furnaces and 21 calcining kilns, at which 210 men were employed. The same proprietary have another smelting establishment at the Hunter River in N.S.W. By this arrangement the vessels which brought coal from N.S.W. to Wallaroo took back copper ore to the Hunter River smelting works, so that a saving of freight was effected. A railway connects the mines with the port; this gives ample facilities for shipment. The leases under which these mines were held expired a short time since, but were renewed by the Government on payment of a premium of £18,000.

WALLIS PONDS are situated in the district of Bligh, N.S.W.; they flow into the Macquarie marshes, and were named by Oxley after Captain Wallis of the 46th Regiment.

WALLSEND, the chief colliery township in the coal district of Northumberland county in N.S.W.; lies in a valley running in a N.E. direction from the head waters of Lake Macquarie to the banks of the Hunter, about eight miles from Newcastle. It is eighty-five miles W.N.W. of Sydney. It is the site of the Newcastle and Wallsend Coal Company's works, the pit being situated about a quarter of a mile from the

township. There is also a tunnel tapping the S.E. portion of the field; the seam is a continuation of the Borehole seam. This colliery employs about 500 men and boys, and is capable of sending out 2000 tons of coal per diem. A private line connects the collieries with the Great Northern near the township of Waratah. During 1878 the output was 114,908 tons. The Purified Coal and Coke Company's works are situated close to the tunnel. There is also an iron foundry situated in the borough where extensive castings are frequently done for the adjacent collieries. Wallsend was proclaimed a municipality in February 1874.

WALSH, WILLIAM HENRY (1825—) came to N.S.W. in 1844. In 1859 he was returned to Parliament for one of the northern constituencies. On the separation of Q. he retired into private life, until 1865, when he was elected for Maryborough, Q. He accepted office in 1870 as Minister for Works, but resigned in 1873 in consequence of a difference of opinion between him and his colleagues on the subject of education. In 1874 he was returned for the Warrego, and was elected Speaker of the Legislative Assembly. In February 1879 he was appointed a member of the Legislative Council of Q. Walsh was regarded as one of the best Ministers for Railways and Works in that colony; he introduced many reforms and an excellent system of organisation; and effected a large saving to the public.

WARATAH, a township in N.S.W., four miles from Newcastle, and eighty miles N. of Sydney. Coal mining is the industry of the district. The Waratah Coal Colliery has been a prolific one, but it is now nearly worked out. The Waratah Coal Company now raise coal from the new colliery at South Waratah, or Raspberry Gully, near Charlestown. Population is about 400. Two copper and one tin smelting works are in operation, and there are stone quarries in the vicinity. Owing to the large mining population, it is one of the busiest stations on the Great Northern Railway, both as regards passenger and goods traffic. Besides the coal-mining, copper-mining, and smelting industries, large quantities of fruit—oranges, grapes, bananas, &c.—are grown in and exported from the gardens of North Waratah. The municipality was proclaimed in February 1871.

WARBURTON, PETER EGERTON (1813—) explorer, is a native of Cheshire, England, and received his education at Orleans and Paris. He entered the Royal Navy in 1825, and served on board H.M.S. *Windsor Castle*. In 1829 he entered the East India Company's Military College at Addiscombe, and in 1831 sailed for India, where he was in 1835 appointed Adjutant of the Marine Battalion at Bombay. From that he was transferred to the General Staff in the Adjutant-General's Department and rose to be Acting Deputy Adjutant-General, which appointment he held for two years. He retired from the service in March 1853, with the rank of Major and the

pension of a Captain. In July of the same year he landed in W.A., but came to Adelaide in September. In December he was appointed Commissioner of Police and held that office until February 1867. He was appointed Colonel Commandant of the S.A. Volunteer Force in 1869 and resigned in 1877. Warburton started from Adelaide on an expedition across the continent on 15th April 1873, with seventeen camels, three Europeans and two Afghans. His route lay across the sand-hills that baffled the brothers Gregory; but with the aid of the camels, and by his own indomitable energy he arrived at length at a station belonging to some W.A. squatters from whom the party received every kindness and consideration. Nine months and a-half had been occupied in making the terrible journey of 900 miles. During the latter part of their wanderings the party subsisted on worn-out camel's flesh; and upon rare occasions on a few wallabies that they got from the natives. For his services as an explorer, Warburton obtained the Royal Society's medal, with a vote from the S.A. Parliament of £1000 for himself and £500 for his party. Sir Thomas Elder sent him to England and published the narrative of his explorations. Her Majesty created him a Knight Commander of the Order of St. Michael and St. George.

WARRNAMBOOL, a seaport town in V., pleasantly situated on an eminence on the shores of Warnambool or Lady Bay; it lies 170 miles to the S.W. of Melbourne, and is the nearest port to it on the Western sea-board. It was created a municipality in 1855 and a borough in 1863. To give facilities for loading and discharging vessels, the construction of a breakwater was begun, but owing to some doubts as to its answering the intended purpose the work has been suspended. It has since been condemned by Sir John Coode, who has recommended a breakwater pier 1800ft. in length; the cost of this would be £280,900. This scheme was highly approved of by the local authorities, but as its cost was almost prohibitory it has been suggested that a portion of the plan should be carried out. The population of the borough is about 5000. Warnambool is situated in a rich agricultural and pastoral district. A trade in pigs and bacon is carried on, and pease and barley are largely exported. The river Hopkins flows within a mile of the town.

WARRABUNGLE MOUNTAIN is the most prominent point of the Arbuthnot Range in N.S.W., named by Oxley after the Right Honorable C. Arbuthnot of His Majesty's Treasury.

WARRAWOLONG MOUNTAIN, a mountain of N.S.W. about ninety-five miles from Sydney. It is an important point in Mitchell's trigonometrical survey; it is cleared, with the exception of a few trees left on the summit which is 1700 feet above its immediate base. This mountain is well known at sea by the name of Hat Hill. From Warrawolong the mountain of Jellore, distant ninety-eight miles, may be distinctly seen.

WATSON, JAMES (1837—) is a native of Portadown, in Ireland, and received his education at the school attached to the Church of England in his native town. He arrived in N.S.W. in 1856 and entered Parliament in 1869, being elected for the Lachlan District in the general election of that year and has sat for the same constituency ever since. He was appointed Colonial Treasurer in Parkes Administration in December 1878.

WAY, SIR SAMUEL JAMES (1836—) Chief Justice of S.A., is a native of England. He arrived in S.A. in March 1853; and was called to the South Australian Bar in March 1861. He was appointed Queen's Counsel in September 1871. He was Member of the Education Board in February 1874; was appointed Member of the Council of the University of Adelaide in November 1874; elected Member of the Assembly for the district of Sturt in February 1875; appointed Attorney-General in June 1875; Chief Justice in March 1876; and was elected Vice-Chancellor of the University of Adelaide in April 1876. He has been Acting-Governor or Administrator of the Government of S.A. as follows:—1877, 29th January to 24th March; 17th May to 2nd October. 1878, 14th February to 15th August.

WEARING, WILLIAM (1816-1875) jurist, was a native of London and studied at St. John's College, Cambridge, where he took his degree of B.A. He was called to the Bar at Lincoln's Inn in May 1847, and arrived in Adelaide two years later. The following year he was admitted to the Bar in S.A. and was appointed a Notary Public. In April 1856 he received the appointment of Crown Solicitor, and in 1855 was made a Q.C. and J.P. In August 1867 he was appointed third Judge of the Supreme Court, and in the exercise of the functions of his office he went on a circuit to the Northern Territory, and was wrecked in the steamer *Gothenburg* off the Q. coast on the return voyage, on 25th February 1875.

WELD, FREDERICK ALOYSIUS (1823—) is a native of England, and was educated at Stonyhurst College, and at Freiburg in Switzerland. He chose for himself a colonial career, and in 1844 arrived in N.Z. There he formed stations, explored country previously unknown, and discovered passes through the Kaikora Range. Several of his explorations were undertaken on foot, with only one companion; and some of them he prosecuted alone. In 1848 Sir George Grey, then Governor of N.Z., offered Weld a place in the Legislature, then entirely nominated. He declined the honour, but took an active part in the movement for representative institutions. As soon as these were granted Weld was elected and sat for several years in the House of Representatives. In 1854 he was made a member of the Executive Council. In 1860 he was Minister for Native Affairs in the Stafford Ministry. That Ministry was defeated in 1861. In 1864 Weld was made Premier. When he came into office the country

was in a state of war; the General of the army and the Governor of the colony were at variance; escaped Maori prisoners held a fortified position within sight of the capital; Government debentures were unsaleable, and the banks refused advances, whilst the colony was exposed to what seemed a ruinous war expenditure. In the face of these troubles the Fox-Whittaker Government had resigned without meeting Parliament. Weld proposed to carry on the war without the aid of regular troops, by small bodies of trained bushmen, relying much on the effect of pushing roads through the country. He thus succeeded in turning back the tide of war. He advised and carried out the confiscation of the lands of the Waikato tribe, as a mark of its defeat, and it has never since taken up arms. He also sent an expedition of colonial troops to punish the murderers of the Rev. Mr. Volkner. His administration not only dealt some effective strokes in war, but took good measures for the establishment of peace. They opened Native Land Courts; carried the Native Rights Bill (introduced by Fitzgerald, the Minister for Native affairs;) and raised the question of Native representation. To secure the unity of the colony they brought about the removal of the capital to Wellington, a more central position, selected by Commissioners from the Australian Colonies. The credit of the colony was restored; the finances, in the hands of Fitzherbert, the Treasurer, were placed on a better footing; the Panama line was subsidised; an electric telegraphic cable was ordered so as to connect the two islands of N.Z.; and a scientific department was established under Dr. Hector. In 1865 Weld's Government was defeated on a vote for defence purposes, and resigned. Though his administration had but a short duration, their policy was emphatically approved by the Home Government. Cardwell, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, on receiving intelligence of the resignation of Weld, said in a letter to the Governor that Her Majesty's Government would continue to be guided by the policy initiated by him. On resigning the Government, Weld whose health had been broken down by over-work, went to England for rest and change. Soon after his arrival there, the Duke of Buckingham, then Secretary of State for the Colonies, expressed his intention of offering him a Colonial Governorship. A change of Ministry took place; and Earl Granville carried out the avowed intention of his predecessor, by appointing Weld Governor of W.A. At a public dinner in London, Earl Granville gave as his reason for selecting Weld for that appointment, that he believed him to be just the man to infuse a spirit of self-reliance into a colony in a state of transition from a condition in which it was used for the purposes of transportation and received the aid of Imperial expenditure, to one of freedom and self-support. During the period of Weld's Government various industries were developed, principally by concessions to capitalists from V.

and other colonies. A partially representative legislature was established; municipal institutions were introduced; an Education Act was passed which gave general satisfaction; a system was adopted which placed all religious denominations on a footing of equality, grants of land being made by the Governor to all of them, in proportion to their numbers, for churches, schools, glebes and charitable institutions; telegraph lines were constructed throughout the colony; steam communication was opened up along the coast, so as to promote the settlement of various parts of the territory; and important explorations were successfully carried out by John Forrest. Two of the last acts of Weld's Government in that colony were to cut the first sod of the first Government railway, and to plant the first telegraph post of a line which ultimately connected W.A. with Adelaide and the whole of Eastern Australia. In January 1875 Weld was appointed Governor of T., where his administration was equally successful. He filled the full term of five years, and in 1881 was succeeded by Colonel Strachan.

WELLINGTON, the capital of N.Z. and seat of Government, is situated on the shores of Port Nicholson, an inlet of Cook Strait. It is 180 miles by sea from New Plymouth, 150 miles from Nelson, about 1200 miles S.E. of Sydney, and 1400 miles N.E. of Melbourne. With both these cities there is steam communication. It was the first and principal settlement of the New Zealand Company; its convenient harbour, a noble sheet of water six miles in length by six in width, and central position, giving it many advantages. There are belonging to the port 37 sailing vessels of 5815 tonnage, and 18 steamers of 2035 tons. The principal buildings are—Government House, the Houses of Legislature, the Government Buildings (an enormous building of wood covering nearly two acres,) the Cathedral, and other churches and chapels, comprising three Episcopal (St. Paul's, St. Mark's and St. Peter's,) the last-named rebuilt and opened during 1880. The Imperial Opera House and many other buildings were destroyed by fire on 15th June 1879. Nearly five acres of buildings were devastated by this conflagration. The city is lighted with gas. There is a substantial wharf for the accommodation of shipping; also a patent slip, capable of taking up vessels of 2000 tons. The population of the city, with suburbs, is estimated at 21,000. Large water-works for the supply of the city have been constructed. A tramway extends from Adelaide-road to Thornton railway station. A railway has been formed to Greytown, a distance of fifty-three miles. Wellington is a city under the Episcopal supervision of the Right Rev. O. Hadfield. There is also a Roman Catholic Bishop, Right Rev. F. Redwood. In the municipal boundaries are 1100 acres, and 37 miles of streets, with 3629 dwellings, of the annual rateable value of £241,836.

WELLINGTON, FORT, on the north-east side of Raffles Bay, on the Coburg Peninsula, in

Northern Australia. A settlement was formed here by Captain Stirling in H.M.S. *Success*, on 17th June 1827, for the purpose of carrying on a traffic with the Malays from Maccassar in the Celebes, who frequent the coast of Northern Australia, in quest of the trepang or sea-slug. The settlement was named after the Duke of Wellington. It was found however to be impracticable, and Captain Stirling removed his party to Cape Leeuwin in 1829, and W.A. arose as a new colony.

WELLINGTON, MOUNT, a mountain of T., towering over Hobart, in T., and throwing its strange square-headed shadow across the still waters of Sullivan's Cove. It rises 4166 feet above the level of the sea. It is a favourite resort for summer tourists, and the grandeur of the view from the summit has been thus described:—"The vastness of the field of vision, the lucid transparency of the atmosphere, and the interchange of mountain, valley, sea, and river combine to fascinate your gaze at the time, and to haunt your memory for ever afterwards. And the very clouds which occasionally blur the scene confer additional beauties on it; for sometimes as they break away to seaward they disclose one of the islands in the estuary so completely detached from the line of the horizon as to appear as if suspended in the heavens; and sometimes a strong sunbeam striking on the valley of the Huon, while all around is mist and purple shadow, kindles the tract of country it illuminates into such a lustre that it appears to be absolutely transfigured, and recalls to your recollection the light which abode upon the Land of Goshen, when impenetrable darkness had settled upon the rest of Egypt. As it flashes in the sunlight, or fades in the shadow, the Derwent gleams like a sheet of burnished silver, or assumes the colour of a turquoise; while the undulating country inland seems to advance towards, or to recede from you, according as it vividly reveals itself in the light, or grows indistinct in transitory gloom. The city itself, sloping to the water's edge, looks like the collection of the tiniest of toy houses dropped by a child in careless play; and the altitude at which you stand, coupled with the amazing extent of country comprehended in the view, enables you to realise the prospect visible from a balloon." A waterfall of striking grandeur, if seen after heavy rains, is reached by following a track leading thither from the Springs, about six miles along the mountain.

WENTWORTH, WILLIAM CHARLES (1791—1872) "the Australian Patriot," was a native of Norfolk Island. His father, D'Arcy Wentworth, an Irishman, was Imperial surgeon on that island, and afterwards held the position of principal Superintendent of Police in Sydney, and was also Magistrate of the Territory. Norfolk Island being both geographically and politically a part of Australasia, Wentworth was always regarded by himself and his countrymen as a native of N.S.W. At the age of seven he was sent to England for

his education, and was for some time under the care of Dr. Alexander Crombie, of Greenwich, author of a standard work on etymology and syntax. After a few years he returned to Sydney. In the days of his early manhood, in 1813, he joined Blaxland and Lawson in an attempt to cross the Blue Mountains, which had till then bounded the enterprise of the colonists. They left Blaxland's farm on South Creek on 11th May 1813, and struck out for the westward. Having crossed the Nepean and traversed several thickly-wooded ridges and gullies they came on the 19th to the furthest point reached by Bass in 1796. Next day they went forward over a country entirely new to Europeans. Through great difficulty and danger they pushed on their way until the 31st. They succeeded in finding a pass through the mountains and descended a considerable distance on the western slope. They had thus accomplished a great work; they had marked out a track over what had been regarded as an impassable barrier; they had opened for their countrymen a way to new settlements of incalculable resources. They were all three suffering from dysentery; their provisions were nearly exhausted; and their clothes and shoes were in a very bad condition. They therefore determined to return, and succeeded in reaching home on 6th June. In 1816 Wentworth went to England again and matriculated at Cambridge. There he spent several years. In 1819 he published *A Statistical, Historical, and Political Description of the Colony of New South Wales*. This book was of much service to his country by dispelling to some extent the ignorance that had prevailed up to that time in the mother country concerning Australia. The work was well received, and as early as 1824 a third edition was called for and published. Whilst at Cambridge Wentworth wrote his well-known poem on Australia. The prize on that occasion was awarded to his competitor, W. Mackworth Praed, afterwards a distinguished member of the House of Commons; but it is now universally admitted that Wentworth's poem is the best. At the conclusion of his University studies, he prepared himself for the legal profession, and in due time was called to the Bar. He then returned to Sydney. In September 1824 he and his friend Dr. Wardell, also a barrister of the English Bar, were admitted by the Supreme Court of the colony to the practice of their profession here. Wentworth was from the first very successful in it. But he did not confine his energies to one pursuit. The social and political interests of the community early engaged his attention; and he took part, with much zeal, in the squatting enterprise of the colony. When he came out in 1824, he and his friend Dr. Wardell brought with them the materials for starting a newspaper in Sydney, and they succeeded in establishing the *Australian*. As a journalist and as a public orator he took up the cause of the oppressed; and one, imbued with sentiments of

humanity and justice, had no need to go far to find instances of oppression. Both soldiers and convicts were at the almost irresponsible disposal of the civil and military authorities. Some soldiers having sought to escape from the restraints of military life by committing offences which led to their being numbered with the convicts—a change which seemed to them, in prospect, desirable—the Government determined to put a stop to a practice so destructive of discipline. And in 1826 two soldiers, Sudds and Thompson, who had committed theft in order to be transferred to the convict *régime*, were sentenced to hard labour on the roads, with irons of unusual weight. Sudds died under the infliction, and as it was generally believed that the punishment was enormously severe, a cry of indignation rose against Governor Darling. Wentworth took the lead in the protestation, and in a pamphlet known as *The Impeachment* said he would follow General Darling to the gallows. From that time he was regarded as the champion of the oppressed, and many appealed to his powerful tongue and pen for protection. After the death of his friend Dr. Wardell, Wentworth withdrew in some measure from his professional and literary labours and entered into pastoral pursuits. But he continued to take an active part in political life. He was the leader of the Patriotic Association which was formed to promote the claims of the people of N.S.W. for civil and political privileges, such as were enjoyed by their fellow-subjects in other parts of the British Empire. One of the first of these privileges for which he struggled was Trial by Jury. On 1st November 1824, the first civil jury was empanelled in the Court of Quarter Sessions. This result was due to the enlightened spirit and resolution of Chief Justice Forbes. Wentworth took an active part in the agitation that was carried on to obtain a large increase of British rights. At a public meeting held in Sydney in January 1827 for the adoption of a petition to the Imperial Parliament, Wentworth said:—"The first topic contained in the petition is a request for trial by jury. We have already had in the Court of Quarter Sessions a two years' experience of that mode of trial, and notwithstanding a great part of the population is held not eligible to sit as jurors, it has gone on well and successfully; therefore we urge that if it were more extended in the colony its beneficial effects would be more generally known." The petition was adopted and entrusted to the hands of Sir James Macintosh, who on presenting it to the House of Commons, appealed to the evidence of Governor Macquarie, Sir Thomas Brisbane, Chief Justice Wilde and Chief Justice Forbes, in support of the assurance that N.S.W. was "fully as ripe for such a change as any other dependency of the British Crown." But the Imperial Parliament was not willing to agree to these representations; and an Act which came into force on

1st March 1829 again threw the power over the liberty and property of the colonists into the hands of military jurors in the Quarter Sessions as well as in the Supreme Court. In this untoward state of things, Wentworth nobly maintained his position in the van of the long-continued contest to secure British rights and privileges for his fellow-countrymen. On the accession of William IV. in 1830, Wentworth seized the opportunity of making a new appeal to the Crown for the concession of the rights so long withheld. An address couched in the usual phrases of loyal congratulation and prayers had been prepared, and was moved in a public meeting convened for the purpose by Sydney Stephen and seconded by Sir Edward Parry. Wentworth came forward and avowed his conviction that this was a fitting time to urge on the King and his Council the just demands of the colonists. He moved the insertion of a paragraph expressing the hope that His Majesty would "extend to the only colony of Britain bereft of the right of Britons, a full participation of the benefits and privileges of the British Constitution." Lethbridge seconded the amendment, which was adopted by the meeting. Whilst various public and professional objects engaged his attention, Wentworth did not neglect science. He was from an early period a good mathematician; and on one important occasion proved the accuracy of his knowledge in a practical manner. He had gone on a voyage to Tahiti and other islands; and having lost their captain the passengers and crew finding that the chief officer was not competent to take charge of the ship, entrusted the command to Wentworth, who successfully navigated the vessel back to Port Jackson. In private business, and in his own home, he was remarkable for his generous consideration towards all who were connected with him. All his servants, overseers, and superintendents retained a warm attachment to him. To many of them their employment under him was the stepping stone to success and independence. In public life he came into hostile collision with men of different political views and associations; and when thus provoked he was not sparing in his denunciations. But to judge fairly of his mind and heart, one must hear the terms in which all who served under him speak of the generous treatment they uniformly received at his hands. Wentworth generally supported the administration of Sir Richard Bourke, who went much beyond his predecessors in liberal measures. He did not however spare the extravagance of the Government in spending the money of the people for purposes not conducive to the public welfare. In 1833 he made a powerful speech at a public meeting in Sydney on this subject. He severely criticised the expenditure, and urged the adoption of a petition to the Governor which was resented as presumptuous, but produced some salutary effect. With the next Governor, Sir George Gipps, Wentworth came into collision on the subject of his land purchases in N.Z. He had

bought of the native chiefs, for goods of the value of £400 and a promise of a small annuity to each of the vendors, the whole of the Middle Island—that is the territory now comprised in Otago, Southland, Canterbury, Nelson and Marlborough—together with some 200,000 acres of the Northern Island. Sir George Gipps regarded the attempt of Wentworth and his partners to obtain this vast domain as a monstrous perversion of the forms of bargain and sale in taking advantage of the ignorance of a barbarous people; and all the efforts of Wentworth by legal argument and political influence to make good the purchase proved unavailing. In 1843 a new political Constitution with a representative element was introduced, and Wentworth thenceforward occupied a conspicuous part in the Legislature. The general election took place in June 1843. He was elected, together with Dr. William Bland, to represent the City of Sydney. He was described in a political journal of that day as one whose "principles were liberal to the utmost latitude of the term." One writer says: "Formerly indeed, he was to all intents and purposes a Radical; but latterly he has been gradually approaching towards Conservatism." If Wentworth had begun as early as 1843 to recede from the democratic sentiments to which he had given eloquent expression at an earlier time, he certainly continued to move in the same direction; and just in proportion as the people of N.S.W. came in the actual enjoyment of the political rights which he had boldly claimed for them, his ardour in support of those rights cooled down and gave place at length to deep aversion and earnest resistance to what he deemed the excesses of democracy. And as he receded from the standard of advanced Liberalism, the confidence of those who most admired his noble struggles for the rights of the people was naturally more and more withdrawn. In 1849 Wentworth took up the project of establishing a University in Sydney. On 2nd October in that year he made a most eloquent speech in support of a second reading of a Bill for that object. The Bill was passed not without much deliberation in Parliament and was assented to by Sir Charles Fitzroy in October 1850. His eminent services in the foundation of the University have been recognised by his fellow-countrymen in the erection of a statue in his honour in the great hall of that institution. His portrait has also been painted for the Chamber of the Legislative Assembly. The earnest desire of those who had watched his career to render him honour is remarkably shown in the very unusual proceeding of having placed, during the lifetime of Wentworth, these works of art in the halls of learning and of legislation. The next great subject of Wentworth's labours was the new Constitution, in which Responsible Government was to be embodied. Of course in seeking the privileges of Responsible Government he was hailed as the leader of the country. But when he came to the details of the Constitution, he again differed widely from those

Liberal politicians who had been associated with him up to a certain point. On 16th August 1853 he moved in a speech of great ability the second reading of the Constitution Bill which he had framed. The Bill was passed early in 1854, and Wentworth was appointed in association with Mr. E. Deas Thomson Colonial Secretary, to proceed to England to advocate the Bill before the Imperial Parliament. Their mission was successful; and in 1856 the new Constitution became the law of the land. Whilst the representatives of the people were engaged in extending the basis of the constitution by the Electoral Law of 1858, Wentworth was remaining in England; and from time to time expressed his dissatisfaction at the treatment which the Constitution he had drawn up received at the hands of other politicians. But when he again came out to his native country in 1861 all parties combined to welcome him. His reception was a grand demonstration of the high regard entertained for him. After the sudden dissolution of the Legislative Council by the celebrated marching out of Sir Wm. Burton and the whole House, Wentworth consented to assist Mr. Cowper in the formation of a new Council, and accepted the position of President. Towards the end of 1862 he returned to his family in England, and did not afterwards visit this country. In accordance with his own long expressed desire his remains were brought to Vancluse to rest by the waters of Port Jackson. A public funeral was decreed in his honour by the Parliament of his country.

WEST, JOHN (1808-1873) journalist, a native of England, was brought up as an Independent minister, and laboured for some years in this capacity in England. In 1839 he came to T., and was minister of the church in St. John's Square for sixteen years. West became a conspicuous writer against transportation. He wrote a *History of Tasmania*, in two volumes, which is still regarded as the standard work of reference on that colony. In November 1855 he went to Sydney to join the *Sydney Morning Herald* as chief of the literary staff, and held the position of editor up to the time of his death. West was an able writer, and possessed considerable tact and judgment.

WESTALL MOUNTAIN, a remarkable landmark on the east coast of the continent, named by Flinders after Westall, the artist, who accompanied him. It forms the highest part of the eastern shore of Shoalwater Bay.

WESTERN AUSTRALIA. I. GEOGRAPHICAL POSITION.—When Captain Fremantle hoisted the British flag at the mouth of the Swan River he took possession formally of all the land in the great island continent now known as Australia not included in the colony of N.S.W. Subsequently the colony of W.A. had its eastern limit defined by the 129th meridian of longitude east from Greenwich, and in 1861 that also was made the western boundary of the colony of S.A.; the whole area to the west of that meridian is therefore

within the limits of and subject to the Government of this colony. By the supplementary commission granted to the Governor in 1873 the boundaries of the colony were defined "as extending from the parallel of 13° 30' S. latitude to West Cape Howe, in the parallel of 35° 8' S. latitude, and from the Hartog's Island on the western coast in longitude 112° 52' to 120° of E. longitude, reckoning from the meridian of Greenwich, including all the islands adjacent in the Indian and Southern Oceans within the latitudes and longitudes aforesaid." The positions of the extreme points of the colony are:—

	S. Lat.	E. Long.
On the North, Cape Londonderry ...	13° 45'	126° 57'
On the West, Dirk Hartog Island (Cape Inscription) ...	25° 29'	112° 57'
On the South, Peak Head, south of King George's Sound ...	25° 13'	117° 57'

The extent and area of the colony as estimated in the Office of the Surveyor General are:—

Length from North to South ...	1490	Eng. miles.
Breadth from East to West ...	865	"
Length of line including the coast 3500 ...		"
And in English square miles ...	1,060,000	
" acres ...	678,400,000	

It is therefore the largest of the colonies of Australia, and more than eighty times as large as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland.

II. GEOLOGY AND PHYSICAL GEOGRAPHY.—The geology of W.A. is in its general features very simple. Upon an undulating surface of granitoid rocks, passing, as is common elsewhere, into gneiss and other forms of metamorphic rock, have been deposited strata, for the most part horizontal, of sandstones and limestones, the greatest thickness of which does not probably in any place exceed 700 feet. These form flat-topped ranges, and by process of denudation and consequent separation from the mass, detached masses and peaked hills, which are characteristic features of the country over a large portion of its area. The arenaceous and cretaceous deposits have, in process of denudation, been cut into valleys and gullies, in the courses of which the base rock is commonly laid bare; but as these deposits, even when obviously similar in formation, are found at different elevations, and as science has recently confirmed the possibility of similar deposits having been made at different periods under similar conditions, it will not follow that these are all of the same period in time, or that they have even been continuous. On the contrary, it would seem that the different positions in which such deposits are found are due to gradual or successive elevations of the land from its western coast, but in addition to these causes of the superficial formation, recent examination of the southern district of the colony has shown that its area has been traversed by elevations of eruptive rocks. The same features have been observed in the upper basin of the Murchison River, and the highest and most prominent hills and ranges throughout the country have been sq

formed; those on the south being granitic or schistose, while those to the north are described as basaltic, trappean, or volcanic. Those erupted rocks, both on the south and in the Murchison district, form well-defined ranges culminating in bold rocky peaks trending from east and north to south and west, and about the sources of the Murchison divide a series of parallel valleys forming the basins of its affluents. True basalt has been found in its crystalline forms in the south-western angle of the colony at Bunbury on the north, and Cape Beaufort on the south, but connection between these eruptive masses has not been determined. Two geological maps of the south-western part of the colony have been published; one by F. H. Gregory (Arrowsmith, London, 1860) including the Gascoigne River, which is now very scarce, and the other by H. Y. L. Brown, giving the result of his surveys when employed as Government Geologist during the years 1870-73, which will be found with detailed maps, sections, &c., in the volumes of Council papers published by the Government during the years 1872-73. This of course is the more valuable, as of later date, and the work of a professional geologist, but Mr. Gregory's map, including a much larger area both to the N. and E., and marking the appearance of granitoid rocks in the river courses and elsewhere, as well as many erupted masses not included in Mr. Brown's map, gives valuable assistance in considering the general geological features of the colony. Granitoid rocks appear in great masses, forming capes and headlands on the Southern coast, as also in dome-like elevations and bare escarpments on the summits and sides of the principal water-sheds of the country. These in many places and more especially from Champion Bay to the Murchison river, are traversed by dykes of greenstone and similar rocks in which rich lodes of copper and lead are found; and on the surface in other places, there are extensive deposits of brown hæmatitic iron ore. Silver exists in small quantities in the lead ores, and gold has been found both in alluvium and quartz reefs, but not as yet in quantities to make its working remunerative. Among the erupted schistose rocks on the Irwin, Phillips and Fitzgerald rivers have been found, as probably there will be elsewhere, strata containing a semi-bituminous deposit which has been taken for coal. Tin and zinc have also been reported as existing in several places, but have not yet been discovered in workable quantities. Brown attributes the argillaceous clays, shales and schists to the silurian period, the bituminous shales to the carboniferous, the sandstones and limestones to the oolitic, but the coast limestone, evidently a more recent concretion, must be excepted, which, with its accompanying beds of calcareous grit and sandstone, he attributes to the tertiary period. Some of the fossils which these limestones contain, differ but little from species still existing on the shores of the colony; but

Brown seems to think that the clays and laminated rocks found at the base of the hills may underlie them. This outline sketch of the geology of W.A. may be sufficient to account for its most apparent physical features, but some further geological notices will be required in considering them more in detail. On examination, the coast line of W.A. will be seen to present three deep indentations—at King George's Sound on the S., Shark's Bay on the W. and King's Sound on the N. coast, all trending to the westward of N. To the W. of King's Sound there is an extensive bight reaching nearly to the N.W. angle of the colony, while on the S. coast, the Great Australian Bight stretches eastward from Cape Arid; and lines drawn from Fowler's Bay (beyond the eastern limit of the colony) to King's Sound, and parallel to it, northward from Cape Arid and southward from Shark's Bay, will divide the colony into three districts, trending about N.N.W. and S.S.E.

1. The Desert district, continuous beyond the eastern limit of the colony.
2. The Lake district, extending to the head waters of the Greenough and Murchison.
3. The Coast district, including the basins of all rivers south of the Greenough.

To these must be added the Coast districts of the N. and S., including the basins of all rivers falling into the sea in those directions. These divisions accord well with what is known of the geology of the colony, as a line drawn N.N.W. from Point Culver at the western end of the Great Australian Bight will pass along the western limit of the granitoid rocks on the edge of the great desert, and strike the mountains at the head of the Fortescue; while a similar line drawn from Fowler's Bay, at the head of the Bight, where Delisser found granite, will pass between Mounts Elvire and Fort Mueller granitic rocks, on Forrest's track, near the eastern edge of the great desert. It is also apparent that a similar line drawn from the eastern shore of the Great Bight would come out on the northern coast in the deep indentation to the east of Cape Londonderry. These lines, and others drawn at right angles to them, will also be found to correspond generally with the coast line, so that within a parallelogram of 1000 miles in length by 700 in breadth, which may form the normal figure of the colony, its area to the W. of a line drawn from King's Sound S.S.E. would be included. If however the southern limit of such a parallelogram were to be a line drawn through Point Culver, the western coast limit of surface granite in the desert district, it would pass to the N. of that great mass of oolitic rock which appears on the shore of the Great Bight; and this exclusion would be consistent with the fact that this formation is exceptional and differs from all other known geological formations in the colony; the coast of the Great Bight extending at the foot of a limestone range of perpendicular cliffs named after Governor Hampton. The limestones here found are of various qualities, and have never

been sufficiently examined, but from the fossils they contain, which in all are numerous, and of which some entirely consist, they may probably be classed as approximating to the great oolite of England. They are too dense to contain water, unless in fissures or caverns, which are common in them. Their surface is grassed, but waterless, though water fit for stock is found in Roe's Plains, at their base near the sea. Their northern limit has not been observed. They present materials for building, for lime burning, and for such ornamental uses as marble is applied to. A similar line drawn from N.W. Cape S.S.E. would exclude the projecting mass to the E. of King's Sound, which has also its own characteristic difference. The Desert District, which had only been entered from the E. and W. until it was in the present decade crossed by Warburton, Forrest, and Giles appears, so far as our present knowledge extends, to be a level expanse of sandstone with some granitic elevations and depressions forming hills and pools, the surface covered by what is locally known as spinifex, thinly wooded with belts of mulga and other shrubs, and with scattered white gum trees near the pools of water. To the S. Giles found it waterless, but Forrest found water nearly throughout his whole route across the centre. It is therefore probable that water may exist in many places, but the district, so far as is known, offers no inducement even to further exploration; yet Forrest, in 1853, found a sandstone range extending into it under the parallel 28°30' S. latitude, and reports many natives and much game in its interior; it may therefore possibly be more varied in character than is commonly supposed. Of the Lake District more is known, but by no means as much as is to be desired. It presents an irregular undulating surface of granitic rocks, very varied as is usual in composition and structure, traversed by dykes of dioritic quartzose and schistose rocks, the general direction of which may be found to correspond to the normal lines already indicated. Masses termed indifferently trap or basalt by explorers, and cairns of granite form isolated hills and ranges, the relations of which have yet to be determined. Quartzose and schistose dykes in erupted masses appear to be most common in the S., and trap or basalt in the N. Upon the undulating surface of the primitive rocks of this district horizontal strata of sandstone, but of no great thickness have been deposited; the elevations are separated by broad irregular shallow troughs, the depressions in the surface of the primitive rocks, in which are deposited clays and sands disintegrated from them, which act as receptacles for water, and form lakes of greater or smaller extent, according to the amount of the rainfall, and which uniting in very wet seasons may have given rise to the report, once prevalent, of an inland sea. The lakes or swamps thus formed may probably cover one-third of the entire area of this district south of the sources of the Murchison River. The

disintegration of the surface rocks, even of the granite, from the quantity of feldspar contained in it, but more especially of the sandstone and schistose rocks, is effected with great rapidity both here and elsewhere in the colony, and is not confined to wet periods, but is continuous from atmospheric action during the whole year; and it may be assumed that where sandstones predominate the process of evaporation, by which only the surface waters are diminished there being no known outfall for them, not only leaves in deposition any saline matters that may be present in them, but also may cause the formation of crystals of gypsum as Mr. Brown supposes, and consequently the lakes so formed are salt; while those of which the clay basins are formed by the disintegration of granitic or erupted rocks are fresh, as are the springs commonly found at the bases or elevations of those rocks. A considerable portion of this district is after rains richly grassed, and has been utilised for grazing sheep and cattle; but as rain falls at very irregular periods and often at long intervals, it is therefore unfit for agricultural purposes. Long belts of a thick but low growth of small Eucalypti are found traversing it at intervals. It may probably be found hereafter rich in those minerals which accompany or are contained in granitic transition or erupted rocks. The lake district may be considered as a shallow basin on a plateau of 300 miles square, and is buttressed up on three sides by elevations which form the watersheds of the rivers, the valleys of which open to the coasts of the colony. The superior ranges, which separate the river basins, commonly present bare surfaces of granitoid rock; the inferior are for the most part covered with a concretionary rock, frequently appearing as a conglomerate, known in the colony as iron-stone, which is also common in the valleys and on the flanks of the ranges on the W. coast, while to the N. and S. sandstones predominate. As is commonly the case, the highest points project in front of the main mass, but it is not probable that any attain to 2000 feet above the level of the sea, and the greatest elevations will be found in the S.W. and N.W.; in the former about the middle of the river basins, and in the latter near the sources of the rivers. As the basins of the larger rivers naturally divide the coast districts into areas having characteristic differences they may be best considered separately, and as the principal settlements are on the W. coast, it may claim priority in description. A line of about 300 miles, from the sources of the Blackwood to those of the Irwin, may represent the south-western watershed of the colony. This great mass of granitic rock—the western escarpment of which is known as the Stirling Range, which forms the watershed of the rivers of the S. as well as W., and the spurs from which separate their basins—has its greatest elevations to the S. and W. The height of but few of these has been correctly ascertained, but Mount William,

at the source of Meares River, to the S. of the Murray, rises 1685 feet above the level of the sea. To the W. and S. another range has been thrown up, forming a sort of terrace below the main range, and this is marked by Roe's Range, of which Mount Lennard on the Collie is the culminating point. Beneath this, as has been noted, on the coast, both to the W. and S., basaltic columns have been protruded at Bunbury and at Cape Beaufort; and beyond, about thirty miles to the W., the Coast Range, some points of which are nearly 800 feet above the sea, has by its elevation directed the course of the Blackwood to the S. This is also granitic, but has deposits of limestone and saliferous sandstones upon it. The former, probably of the same formation as the coast limestone, are hollowed into numerous caverns, containing fossils and fossiliferous deposits, while in the lowlands at the base of the main range to the E., there are superficial masses of gravel containing fossil bones of large animals which have not yet been examined. The line of this coast range is apparently continued in the reefs which fringe the coast, the outer one being known as the Five Fathom Bank, possibly terminating in Houtman's Abrolhos. The great granitic mass of the south-western ranges slopes downward to the N., where the strata of sandstones and limestones about Moore River and the rivers of the Victoria district to the N., and which rest upon it, give a distinct character to that portion of the colony. The formation of these is not sufficiently well known, but it would seem that they are related to the schistose deposits on the Irwin and the S. coast. The Blackwood, having had its lower course directed southward by the interposition of the rock masses on the W. coast, from Cape Leeuwin to Cape Naturaliste, assumes an intermediate position in the S., as the Gascoigne, falling into Shark's Bay, does to the N. The rivers Murchison, Greenough, Swan, and Murray, the basins of which open to the W. coast, have their sources in the main watershed, and mark the principal divisions of the coast district; while the Hutt, Bowes, and Chapman, the Irwin, and Moore, the Serpentine, Harvey, and Collie, have their sources in the outer slopes of the ranges which form the upper basins of the larger rivers, as other inferior rivers, so called, have their sources still nearer the coast line. The rivers of the colony are indeed for the most part water courses, down which torrents rush in wet seasons, which occur only occasionally and sometimes at long intervals; and their courses are at other times marked by sand and gravel, brought down by the floods, and pools formed in the bottom rocks in which, as being below the general level of the river bed, water remains after a flood, and in some of which it is maintained by natural springs; these are fresh or saline—too frequently the latter—according to the conditions in which they are found. The lower course of the

rivers commonly opens into lakes, lagoons, or, as they are termed, estuaries, often formed by elevations or depressions in the rocks near the coast, and shut in from the sea by a bar of rock and sand, a passage through the latter being opened in time of flood, to be immediately closed by the action of the sea, when the force of the current of the river is no longer sufficient to keep it open. Some few of the rivers have, however, a stream continuous throughout the year, and of fresh water; these will be found on the south-western and northern coasts of the colony. It will be seen that the main, as well as the lateral valleys of the river basins, are generally in the direction of the normal lines already indicated.

III. RIVERS.—The Swan River, as the centre of the population and industry of the colony, and as having on its banks the capital, Perth, and at its mouth the principal port, Fremantle, may claim precedence in description. Its name was, moreover, that at first given to the new surface, broken by small lakes, and crossed by numerous rivers. The coast limestone ranges, which in some places appear to have been deposited upon the tertiary strata, in some others may be clearly perceived to rest on granitic rocks. About the mouth of the Swan they have been found below the bed of the river resting on solid cretaceous sandstones. The superficial limestones, however, form ranges of low hills along the coast, between which are extensive lagoons, two of which only, Peel and Leschenault inlets, communicate with the sea, but neither are accessible to vessels; the former will not, but the latter will, admit the entrance of boats. Peel Inlet extends twenty miles to the S. in Harvey Inlet and receives the waters of the Murray, with the smaller streams of the Serpentine and Harvey, which have their sources in the valleys in the face of the Darling Range, and with other rivers of the same class to the S., run a rapid course, broken by falls before reaching the plain at the foot of the hills. The falls of the Serpentine and Meares are most remarkable for their height and the picturesque scenery about them. The Murray has its northern sources—the Bannister and Hotham—near those of the Avon and Canning; while its southern, which unite in the Williams, interlock with the Hillman and Arthur, the northern affluents of the Blackwood. The lateral valleys of the Murray extend about forty-five miles, and its main valley is in a direct line from its watershed to the confluence of the Williams and Hotham, about fifty miles in length, and from thence to Peel inlet about fifty more. It receives the N. and S. Dandalup, from the base of the range on the N., in its lower course. Upon these, as on all the rivers of this coast, there is much fertile land which however has been in occupation since the early days of the colony. The mouth of the Murray is obstructed by sandbanks, but its lower course is navigable for small craft to Pinjarrah. The area enclosed between the Murray and Blackwood is drained by the Collie, which receives the Brunswick and

Wellesley from the foot of the range in its lower course; the Preston, with its affluent stream, the Dardanup, flowing into Leschenault Inlet from the S., as the Vasse and other small streams do into Geographe Bay. The valley of the Margaret opens the coast range to the W., as Turner's River does to the S., the interior being accessible from those points. The Blackwood drains the largest area of all the rivers in the S. of the colony, but, in consequence of the secondary elevation of the ranges to the S.W., is confined to a narrow valley in its middle course of some sixty miles in direct distance, through a mountainous and well-wooded country, in which there are, however, many fertile flats and well-grassed banks. Its lower course for forty miles is of the same character as the rivers of the W. coast; but it has a much greater breadth and depth, and when in flood rises more than twenty feet above its ordinary level. The lateral valleys of the upper basin have an extent of about seventy-five miles, and from the sources of the Beaufort on the S., to its confluence with the Arthur from the N., may be fifty miles; about fifteen miles below this it is joined by the Balgarup, also from the S., from whence to the sea it has no affluent stream worthy of notice, though it is fed by numerous torrents from the mountains on either side. As the lateral valleys of the Murray are separated from those of the Swan, so the head waters of the Arthur and Hillman are separated from those of the Murray and Collie by narrow watersheds, thus dividing the hill district of the S.W. into their several basins, and, in like manner, the basins of the rivers of the S. coast open from the reverse of the watershed of the sources of the Blackwood. These are the Gordon, formerly called the Frankland, the Kent or Macquoid, Hay, Kalgan, and Palinup, which drain the area from Cape Chatham to Point Henry at Dillon Bay on a coast line of about 180 miles, all having their sources in the flanks of the great granitic mass of the S.W.; as has the Warren between Cape Beaufort and Point D'Entrecasteaux, near which are the smaller rivers Donnelly and Gardner, formerly known as the Gordon, and the Shannon and Chesapeake, which fall into Broke's Inlet from the N.W. On these there is much good land, and the country about them is well grassed, and consequently has been taken up by stock-owners. The forests are from fifteen to twenty miles from the coast, but there are groves of peppermint and other trees on the low sandy ranges between the inlets. The Gordon, rising between the sources of the Palinup and Beaufort, has a westerly course of sixty miles, when it is joined by the Frankland from the N., which formerly gave its name to the whole river; from thence it has its course through a narrow valley to the rapids at the foot of the hills, and is from thence navigable for small craft to its mouth in Nornalup Inlet, which is, however, obstructed by sandbanks. There are many fertile flats and well-grassed

slopes throughout the valley of this river. The Kent and Kalgan have their rise in a district of small lakes on the outer slopes of the basin of the Gordon. The former has a course of about seventy miles, with no considerable affluents, to Irwin Inlet, and is on a smaller scale similar to the Gordon; as is the Hay, falling from the southern slopes of its watershed, which is about thirty-five miles from its source to its mouth in Wilson's Inlet; this also receives the smaller streams of the Denmark on the W., and the Sleeman and Teutor on the E. The Palinup and Kalgan are intermediate in character, for on their courses the granitic hills and forests die out; the Porongurup extending in solitary grandeur to the E. and culminating 2145 feet above the sea, while between them the schistose peaks of the Stirling Range rise in rugged masses for thirty miles; Tolbrunup near the centre rising 3341 feet; Ellen's peak to the E. 3420 feet, and the highest points between the two 3640 feet above the sea, as recently estimated by Captain Archdeacon. Across the lower course of the Palinup, a comparatively level plain extends to Doubtful Island Bay, formed by sandstone deposits on the granitic floor, which is apparent in the channels of the rivers, and has its surface partly covered with timber to the W., and numerous fresh water lakes, those to the E. being marked by the belts of yeast and tea-trees which surround them. The Kalgan has its course of seventy-five miles round Porongurup Range, and falls into Oyster Harbour, which opens into King George's Sound. It is, like the rivers to the W., a constantly flowing water, but the Palinup is, except in rare seasons of flood, marked only by occasional pools. It has its outlet after a course of about 100 miles, during which it receives only two small affluents from the N., in an estuary of about five miles in length, which lies in a very beautiful valley surrounded by lofty hills, but it is closed from the sea by a bank of sand. The sandstone rocks are well developed on either side of the estuary of the Palinup, presenting steep escarpments to the sea of some sixty feet in height, but they attain their greatest elevation on the Fitzgerald River, which flows (when it does flow, which is at intervals of several years) between lofty cliffs in its middle course, having its sources beyond the granitic outcrop to the S. of the district of the lakes which crosses the Palinup in its middle course extending towards Cape Arid. The sandstones occupy less of the valley of the Phillips, and it is therefore more fertile; but the erupted schists, which are so largely developed in parallel lines near the coast of Doubtful Bay, cross the lower course of both rivers, and culminate in the three Mounts Barren. All the waters of the Fitzgerald are saline, but Hamersley's River, an affluent of the Phillips, on the north of Eyre's Range, is fresh. There are also deep and large fresh water pools on the Nicolay and Gardner Rivers, which traverse the centre of the plain,

and have their estuaries in Bremer and Doubtful Island Bays. St. Mary's River drains the eastern and northern slopes of West Mount Barren, and is remarkable for the beauty of its estuary, and the romantic development of the schistose rocks at St. Mary's crags, on its middle course. There are also fresh water pools on the lower course of the Palinup, where the granitic rocks appear on the surface. Price's recent survey of the coast from Bremer Bay to Eucla has given accurate knowledge of its physical features. Granitic rocks present themselves in ragged peaks at intervals to Cape Arid and Cape Pasley. The Steere falls into Cullum Inlet to the E. of the Phillips, some twenty miles beyond which the Judacup communicates with a chain of lakes; twenty-five miles further E. is the Oldfield. The Young and Lort fall into Stoke's Inlet, and here limestones begin to appear above the granite floor. At Barker Inlet the limestone cliffs are 250 feet in height, beyond which Gray's River communicates with the lake of the same name; and other lakes and lagoons, both salt and fresh, are continued to the eastward. At Esperance Bay the granite is again developed in high peaks, rising at Cape le Grand 1040 feet above the sea level. Thomas River to the E. and the Weanenginup Creek are the last waters on the S.E. coast of the colony, the latter being between Capes Arid and Pasley. The limestone cliffs of Hampden Range extend to Wilson's Bluff seven miles beyond the landing place at Eucla; and Ross Plains, beneath these, have an extreme breadth of twenty-five miles; they are covered with samphire bushes and afford only water fit for stock. The western coast of the colony presents a range of low sandhills, varied with occasional points of limestone rock, to beyond the Moore River; but the southern rises in bold granitic headlands at Cape Chatham on the W., 820 feet above the sea, and at Mount Manypeake, to the E. of King George's Sound, 1855 feet; Warricup and Bald Island are both 1020 feet high; Bennet's Range to the N. of Parry's Inlet culminates in Mount Lindsay, 1469 feet above the sea; and Kalganup to the N. of Nornalup at 1384 feet. Between W. Cape Howe and Cape Chatham are many extensive inlets,—Burke's $7\frac{1}{2}$ miles long, Nornalup $2\frac{1}{2}$, Irwin's and Parry's and Wilson's 8 miles long, of which Nornalup alone is accessible to small craft. There are, however, at Point D'Entrecasteux, Capes Leeuwin and Chatham, the mouth of Nornalup and Point Hillier, as well as in Tor Bay anchorages sheltered by islets and reefs; but as the Admiralty survey now in progress is complete only in the coast line without soundings, nothing can be said certainly respecting them. King George's Sound, however, in the centre of this coast, is accessible to vessels of any class and at all times, and has a circular area of some six miles in diameter, protected to the east by Michaelmas and Breaksea, rocky islands, and surrounded for the

most part by granitic hills; on the N. it terminates in a sandy beach of three miles in length, on the E. of which is Oyster Harbour, accessible to vessels drawing fourteen feet and carrying that depth to the mouth of King River, having a small area of deeper water within; to the S.E. is an inner harbour named Princess Royal, of which, though a great portion to the W. is as in Oyster Harbour, shallow, it is on the N. capable of receiving the largest vessels; and here, at the town of Albany, at the base of Mount Gardner, a granitic mass rising 860 feet above the sea, the mail steamers deliver their mails and passengers, and take in coal for their further voyage. This harbour is entirely landlocked, a long point crossing it to the E., rising in Quarantine Hill, 260 feet, and the entrance being only three cables broad. The survey of King George's Sound is completed and published, as are those of the ports of Fremantle and Champion Bay. A chain of fresh water lakes stretches to the north of Perth Water for thirty miles towards the Moore River; and from thence to the Bowes River, beyond Champion Bay, the granite floor has a more even surface, and the sandstones and limestones are more largely and regularly developed, so that the ranges throughout this district, of which the principal near the coast are Gardner and Moresby's flat-topped ranges, have a level surface, varied only by the valleys of the rivers and by detached conical hills. Granite, however, forms elevated masses to the N. of Moore River in Mounts Peron and Lesneur, which rise to more than 1000 feet above the sea, and on the Greenough River, and forms the surface of the greater portion of what is known as the Mines district, to the N. of Champion Bay; it also appears in the Victoria Plains, where the Moore and Arrowsmith Rivers take their rise about fifty miles from the coast. The rivers of this district are therefore mere watercourses, with occasional deep pools in the rocks, but in rainy seasons are filled with broad, deep, and rapid torrents. On and about their banks occasional flats of rich land are found, but the country is obviously more fitted for pastoral than agricultural pursuits. To this there are, however, two marked exceptions; one in the plains along the base of the hills below the upper valleys of the rivers, and the other in the lacustrine basins between the Irwin and Greenough, in which there is a large extent of rich alluvium, in the latter mostly under cultivation. The Moore, Arrowsmith, and Irwin have their sources in the western slopes of the northern spurs of the Darling Range, but the sources of the Greenough are in the N.W. angle of the Lake district, and overlap those of the Irwin. The Chapman has its sources in the outer slopes of the basins of the Greenough, as the smaller rivers of the coast, the Buller, Oakagee, and Bowes, have from without the valley of the Chapman. The Greenough may have a direct course of more than 150 miles, and its lateral valleys may extend 100, but this part of the colony

has not been surveyed, although triangulations have been carried from Perth to the Weld Range, beyond the Murchison, under the direction of the Surveyor-General, from which it appears that the principal elevations are Mount Dalgeranger, to the E. of the sources of the Greenough, 2100 feet, and Mount Lulworth, the culminating point of Weld Range, 2330 feet above the sea. Forrest found Mount Hale, under the 26th parallel, composed of magnetic iron ore with brown hæmatite, similar to the peak in consequence named Mount Magnet by Austin; and several other peaks in this and the Lake district are of the same formation. The Murchison River is exceptional both in size, position, and character. It is the longest river of the colony—has its upper basin in the N.W. angle of the Lake district, to the Greenough and Gascoigne, and on its banks the first specimens of the fauna and flora of the north coast are apparent. It has a deep channel above its mouth. The river in its middle and lower courses winds, through an irregular valley, rich in minerals, for more than 100 miles in a direct line without an affluent. The upper valleys of the Murchison have not been mapped, but it has several affluents, the Sanford, Impey, and Roderick, the valleys of which have an extent of from 100 to 200 miles. Forrest found the eastern watershed under the 120th meridian, after passing over some 100 miles of undulating well-grassed country, traversed by numerous watercourses, the most important lateral valley being that of the Sandford, the waters of those to the N. being fresh, and those to the S., for the most part saline. Mounts Bartle and Russel, at the eastern source, are in latitude 26° 5' S., and the valley lies to the S. of Robinson Range. In ordinary seasons the course of this river is only marked by its bed, either of rock or sand, or by occasional pools; but in times of flood a vast volume of water is poured down to the sea, into which it passes through cliffs of limestone. The plains about the head waters of the Murchison and to the E. of the Greenough are being rapidly occupied by sheep farmers, especially those of the Champion Bay district, to whom they have proved a most valuable means of extending their runs and increasing their flocks. Mr. Forrest discovered large surfaces of well-grassed land and many pools and fresh water springs on the main source of the river. The Gascoigne and its affluent, the Lyons, form the connecting links between the rivers of the W. and those of the N. coasts, the head waters of the one interlocking with those of the Murchison, and of the other with those of the Ashburton. The Lyons flows at the foot of the S. face of Barlee Range, as the Ashburton does at the N. of Capricorn Range, under the southern tropic, the Spinifex district of the coast line extending to the eastward between them. The basin of the Upper Gascoigne is marked by lofty hills of erupted rock, trap, and basalt, as well as by schists and slates. It is rich in minerals, has many available arable and pastoral locations; it may

present an irregular curved area of 200 miles in length by sixty in breadth. The Lyons joins the Gascoigne about seventy-five miles from the sea, at the base of the sandstones, which have here their escarpment on the N. face of the Kennedy Range, through which the course of the river passes to the sea in Sharks Bay. About the mouth there is much good pastoral land, which has been taken up and is in course of occupation. The mouth of the river covered by Babbage Island forms a harbour accessible by the southern channel to vessels drawing fourteen feet. Sharks Bay will probably become the centre of the trade of the Upper Murchison, as well as of the Gascoigne; it is a vast sheet of water, having a low eastern coast of about 130 miles, covered by mangrove flats on the S. of the Gascoigne, and rising in the sandhills of Lyell's Range to the N. unbroken, save by the mouth of that river. This great gulf is divided at its southern extremity into two large bays or sounds by Peron Peninsula, extending seventy miles to Cape Peron. The eastern is again divided into two parts by Point Petit and Faure Island. Durham Sound, on the west, is broken into several deep inlets, and terminates in Freycinet Harbour. Sharks Bay is covered to the west by Dirk Hartog's Island, about seventy miles in length by six in breadth, to the N. of which Doore and Bernier Islands, with their connecting reefs, extend fifty more. The Naturaliste Channel, between Dirk Hartog and Bernier Islands, is fifteen miles broad, and the Geographe Channel, to the N., fifty. There can be no doubt that this must become hereafter an important naval station. Dirk Hartog's Island has been long occupied as a sheep station by Mr. F. von Bibra. These islands are all rocky. Dirk Hartog's rises 435 feet above the sea at the northern extremity. From the Murchison a barren sandstone plain extends to the coast near the mouth of the Ashburton, broken only by the lower course of the Gascoigne, and supposed to be waterless. With the valley of the Ashburton the pastoral district of the N.W. coast commences, and extends for 300 miles to the DeGrey. Throughout this district from Exmouth Gulf the coast is generally low and covered with mangroves, while to the W. it is bold and rocky, yet granitic rocks appear in many places. The principal rivers—the Ashburton, Fortescue, and DeGrey—have their sources among the granitic ranges of the interior, and their middle in the sandstone ranges which flank them, and from which the surface descends gradually to the sea, and below which the inferior rivers—the Cane, Robe, Maitland, Harding, and Yule—have their rise. F. H. Gregory describes three distinct terraces rising from the sea to the S. Although much of the land is very fertile, yet, as the rainfall is uncertain, and often at long intervals, this district is not well fitted for agriculture; but as there is water for stock, and the natural grasses are permanent, it has become one of the most important grazing districts in the

colony. The sources of the Gascoigne and Ashburton may be 1500 feet above the sea, and there are many points of considerable elevation about them. Mount Augustus, on the Lyons, was estimated by Gregory to be 3480 feet in height; here he found porphyritic, schistose, and metamorphic sandstone rocks; and the ridges, which separate the head waters of all the rivers, are commonly highly siliceous. Plutonic and erupted rocks, diorite, trap and basalt have been also noticed by explorers in many parts of their valleys. The Ashburton has a course of nearly 200 miles to the sea, and is 100 yards wide at the mouth with deep water, but has no safe anchorage. It receives two considerable affluents on the right, Hardey River and Duck Creek, and has good alluvial land and well-grassed plains throughout its course. The upper basin may be seventy-five miles in width. The Fortescue may be in extent equal to the Ashburton, but has no considerable affluent; this river has much richly grassed country throughout its course, especially below Hamersley Range, which culminates in Mount Pyrtou 2700 feet above the sea, and from the flanks of which a stream of fresh water known as the Mill stream, debouches through a gorge. Here first are seen the palm-trees of the N. coast. To the N.E. of this river, about the sources of the Sherlock and Yule, plains covered with spinifex are found, which again extend beyond the DeGrey, limiting the area of the pastoral land; but Cowle saw splendid country to the S., and there is good land in patches on the DeGrey and its affluent, the Oakover; but the valley of the Strelley is closed in by granite ranges, with volcanic ridges appearing through them (F. H. Gregory,) and similar rocky hills limit the valley of the Shaw to the W. On the Sherlock the sandstone hills rise in bold bluffs 300 feet above the pools of permanent water, and sandstone forms the surface of the spinifex district towards the E. Throughout this district scattered trees are found on the plains, and white gums in many of the river valleys, as well as about the sources of the Sherlock. The long low coast-line is broken near the centre by the promontory which forms Nickol Bay and its adjacent islands; but neither Cossack on its south-eastern side nor Tien Tsin, beyond Cape Lambert its eastern boundary, afford good accommodation for trade. Port Robinson has however been recently opened in Hampton Sound to the W.; it is protected by Enderby and other islands to the N., and is accessible by Mermaid Passage, between them and the Legendre Islands, to the N.W. of Nickol Bay. Beyond Cape Latouche Treville, to which the plains of spinifex extend, the face of the country changes its character, presenting an aspect totally different from that of any other part of the colony. The coast becomes rocky; the points and headlands are extended in numerous islands, of which also there are many outlying the coast, which is indented with bays and harbours throughout its entire length, many of the first class, with

deep water close to the shore. Beyond Cape Leveque King Sound opens to the S.E., and is about ninety miles in depth by twenty-five in greatest breadth, and further eastward Prince Regent's River and many other narrow but deep inlets, with steep rocky sides stretch deep into the land. This coast will be found clearly detailed on the Admiralty chart, but is too intricate and broken for general description. The only portion of the interior at all known is the valley of the Glenelg, which was examined by both Grey and F. H. Gregory; and if it may be taken as typical of the rest the future importance of this part of W.A. can hardly be over estimated. The Glenelg has its sources in the sandstone precipices of Stephen Range, the limit of Grey and Lushington's explorations to the S. of the 16th parallel of S. latitude, and has its final outlet to the sea in Doubtful Bay, some thirty-five miles to the W. under the same parallel; and the line between these points forms the chord of the irregular arc of the course of the river. After descending from the rocky gorges of the sandstone range it flows with a deep and rapid current for about twenty miles in a N.W. direction, through a valley rich with the disintegrations of the basaltic hills which now bound its valley to the E., and from which descend numerous streams of fresh water, to the base of the hills of the same character, rising at the foot of the sandstone range which separates it from Prince Regent's River, from which at this point it is distant only about twelve miles. These ranges trend N.W. and S.E., as do the inlets of the coast, showing a change here in the axis of elevation, and in consequence the valley widens to the N.W., so that its affluent, the Gardner, which drains this part of the valley, has an extent of fifteen miles, and the northern portion is a net-work of running waters. From its N.E. angle, where it falls over rocks, the course of the Glenelg is westerly at the base of Mounts Eyre, Sturt and Lyell, basaltic peaks rising 700 feet above the plain, which is everywhere fertile and rich in vegetation, and for the most part thinly wooded with large timber. This plain rises gradually to the N. to Harrington Downs, which are well grassed and watered. The sandstone ranges to the N.E. are clothed with a forest of pine timber. From the rapids at the N.E. angle the Glenelg is broad and deep and navigable for twenty miles, but its mouth in Maitland Bay is divided by an island into two narrow channels, accessible only to vessels of about 100 tons. It was entered by the *Flying Foam* schooner, thirty-two tons, in 1864. George water is about seven miles long and four broad, and is probably connected with Brecknock harbour some fifteen miles to the N.; it opens by two narrow channels into Doubtful Bay which has an area eight miles in length by six in breadth, with deep water and sheltered to the W. by islands forming a safe and commodious harbour. The eastern shores are however formed of mangrove swamps, and it is separated from the valley of the Glenelg

by rugged sandstone hills rising 700 feet above the sea. Prince Regent's River may be taken as an example of others on this coast. It opens to the sea in Brunswick Bay among numerous islands which, with the indentations of the coast, form many large and safe harbours. Its entrance is covered to the N.W. by a group of islands, which also protect Hanover Bay to the E. Below these it is four miles wide with thirty fathoms water; about five miles further it narrows to about three-quarters of a mile, and then expands in St. George's Basin, a noble sheet of water ten miles long and nearly seven broad, with two islands to the N.W., and from eight to fourteen fathoms water. Beyond the basins the river is continued through a narrow gorge for fifteen miles, with water shoaling gradually to two fathoms. From the extremity, and from every gorge and ravine on either side perennial streams of fresh water pour down. These are clothed with luxuriant vegetation (forests of pine trees were found by Grey on the hills on the S. side,) among which the pandanas and fern are most notable; and the whole country is not less rich in animal than in vegetable life both by land and water. The tides on this coast rise from twenty-five to thirty-five feet.

III. CLIMATE.—As the geological conformation of the colony divides it into districts distinct in character, so in connection with their position it has determined their climate and productions. The great granitic masses of the S.W. are covered by forests, the trees to the S. being of gigantic growth, showing not only the fertility of the soil but the greater humidity of the climate, of which also the greater abundance of fresh water gives sufficient proof; moreover, the forest growth prevents the great rapidity of evaporation which is experienced on the plains of the N., centre, and S.E. of the colony; these causes determine the distribution and occupations of the inhabitants. The S.W. must ultimately prove the most populous and generally productive portion of the colony, having the most varied surface, the best climate, and affording agricultural as well as pastoral districts. No country is capable of producing a greater abundance of fruit and vegetables. It is, emphatically, a land of corn, wine, oil, fruits, flowers, milk, and honey. The more extensive pastoral districts must necessarily prove less populous, yet in them there are agricultural areas as at the mouths of the Greenough and Irwin, and mineral districts as at Northampton, near Champion Bay, which can afford occupation for large numbers of people. The agricultural areas of the pastoral districts, although comparatively small and scattered, may be estimated as sufficient to provide food for any future population. The settled districts of the colony are connected with the coasts by the rivers, and it is of these only that the climate and productions can be stated with any certainty. The results of meteorological observations in the different districts are given in the following tables. The average temperature and atmospheric

pressure taken from the observations made by the late W. H. Knight at Perth, are during the years 1867-8-9:—

Barometer,	Max.	30.47	May, August, 1868,
			and June 1869.
Do.	Min.	30.13	January 1869.
Thermometer,	Max.	107	March 1868.
Do.	Min.	day	40 July 1867, Aug. 1869.
		night	38 August 1867-69.
Daily Mean,	Max.	79.8	February 1867.
Do.	Min.	57.1	July 1869.

The greatest rainfall was in the month of June, having been 13.91 inches in 1868, the average of the three years being 10.85 inches for that month. The least rainfall was in December 1867 .01, and in January 1868 .01 inch; in the months of February and March no rains fell. The average number of days of the year on which rain falls is 102.3, and the average total rainfall 34.57. The prevailing winds are on the S. coast from S.E. to S.W., variable, but more easterly during the summer. On the W. coast from November to March; easterly in the morning and blowing fresh from the S.W. in the afternoon; the southerly winds are cold; and during this period the easterly winds are hot. A hot wind sometimes blows from the E. for two or three days in succession. During the winter months the easterly winds are cold, the winds are variable, calms frequent, generally preceding gales with wind and rain from the N.W.; these commence in the E. and die out when they have worked round to the W. Exceptional gales are experienced from the E. as well as from the W. On the N. coast hurricanes have been experienced in December, February, March and April. The most destructive on record, that of 20th and 21st March 1872, commenced from the S.E., and having veered to N. there was a calm for about half-an-hour; it then began to blow from the N.W. and by W. to S.E., when it dropped to a calm; the greatest force of the storm was at the middle points, E. and W. The climate of the N.W. is for the most part dry, with occasional tropical rains and strong winds from December to April inclusive; exceptional rains with moderate winds in June and July. Ice has been seen on the Ashburton and from thence to the S. coast, especially in the upper valley of the Murchison River, but in no part of the colony has it been observed to last many hours. Hail is rare, but occasionally, even on the N. coast, severe. Thunder storms are not frequent, more common towards the N., where damage has occasionally been done by lightning; they are periodical in the summer in the Murchison district. There are of course in W.A., as elsewhere, the usual differences resulting from locality, but the healthfulness of the climate of W.A. will appear from the following facts:—In 1869 the population was 24,785 persons, the deaths only 334, or 13.47 in 1000. This may be taken as a fair average year. In 1875 the population was 26,709, and the deaths 473, or 21.0 in 1000. This was an unusually

unhealthy year. Comparing the death rates of England and the other Australian Colonies with that of W.A., it appears that—In England the death rate is 22·40 in 1000; in N.Z., 11·38; in T., 13·76; and in W.A., 13·47. Although exposure at all seasons and for a long period must necessarily prove more or less injurious to man, yet there are few countries where less protection from the elements is required. Disease has been almost unknown among the explorers, who have traversed the country in all directions, and who, in the early days of the colony at least, seldom carried any shelter with them. In the towns, as well as in the country, the healthy appearance of the children cannot escape notice.

IV. PRODUCTIONS.—The most important natural productions of the vegetable kingdom are the grasses and "scrub" which cover the plains, and form the food of the kangaroo and of the sheep and cattle pastured on them; the timber, which forms the forests of the S.W.; the pine timber of the N.; sandalwood, which is found scattered over the hilly districts in most parts of the colony; and lead and copper ore, which, abounding in many other places, are at present worked only in the Champion Bay district, the Murchison River, and on the N.W. coast. The district of forests is estimated by the Commissioner of Crown Lands to have an area of 30,000 square miles, and extends over the hill country from the N. of the Moore River to the S. coast, as well as on the plains to the S.W. and to the E. of King George's Sound, where it dies out. The forest trees are of the genus *Eucalyptus*; the approximate areas covered by the principal species are given as follows:—White gum, 10,000 square miles; Jarrah, 14,000; Karri (blue gum,) mixed with Jarrah, 2300; Tooart, 500; red gum, 800; York gum, 2400. The York gum, though of smaller size, is common as far N. as the Murchison River. The Jarrah is becoming well known for its good qualities, strength, durability, and especially for its immunity from the attacks of submarine animals and the white ant, if cut at the proper age, and time of year, and well seasoned before using. For ship building, bridges, wharfs, jetties, &c., it is therefore of great value, and the more so, as iron bolts and nails driven into it do not loosen from rust as in most other woods; it is in consequence one of the most important staples of the trade of the colony. The Karri or Karrie tree is confined to the extreme S. and W.; its gigantic proportions excite the admiration of all those who see them; indeed the Karri timber is so huge that, though of much value, it is comparatively little used. Captain Bannister in 1830 measured trees eighteen feet in circumference, and estimated the branches at 100 feet; since then many of much larger dimensions have been observed. Governor Weld measured some 150 feet to the branches; they are commonly six feet in diameter, and have been observed of double that size. White gums are found for the most part in the

beds and on the banks of all the rivers of the colony. The tea tree or paper bark is characteristic of the water-courses and lake margins, as the yeast is found in and about the shallow lakes to the E. of King George's Sound; belts of mulga and other shrubs intersect the plains in the E. and centre of the colony, and marlock thickets cover the flanks of the sandstone ranges of the S.E. There are many other smaller trees, the wood of which is useful for the several purposes enumerated below, and some yield valuable resins. At the Inter-colonial Exhibition held in Sydney in the year 1873, Mr. George Whitfield exhibited specimens of fourteen different sorts of *Eucalypti* found in the Toodyay district, viz., Jarrah, twatta, a small kind but very valuable for wheelwright's work; coolan, growing in moist ground, a soft wood; morral, growing to three feet in diameter and ninety feet in height, straight, heavy, close in grain, and useful in house building and cabinet-maker's work; wandow grows to a large size, splits well for fencing, is very hard, and does not warp; Worlock growing to three feet in diameter and eighty feet in height, splits well for fencing and hurdles; dardeback is rather smaller, tough, but does not split well; mallet is light, splits well, and is much used for making hurdles; melyerick grows to six feet in diameter and seventy in height, and when seasoned is the hardest of the timbers of the colony; marlock is of small growth but very tough; of coorup, the largest of all, the young timber is much used in coach building, and the gum valuable as a powerful astringent; this is probably nearly related to the red gum, the gum of which is very bitter to the taste and has the same valuable medicinal property, as it is specific in cases of dysentery and diarrhoea; parral grows to the height of 100 feet, is sound, light, and splits well for fencing; wanderock grows to two feet in diameter and forty in height, splits well, is long in the grain, and valuable especially for dray shafts; hardham forms large thickets in the interior, seldom exceeds six inches in diameter, is very tough, and said to be equal to lance wood. The wood of the mangar or raspberry jam tree, so named from its peculiar scent, is extremely hard and excellent for turning, and for furniture, as is the native pear; the tea tree, or paper bark, is useful for boat and carriage building; the peppermint and swamp banksia for cabinet work; shea oak and Jarrah are used for shingles; the latter will not easily take fire; white and red gum are most commonly used in carriage and cart building, and the bark of the black wattle for tanning. In 1873, a slab of Tooart, or white gum, was exhibited, sawn from a log cut in 1862, and which had been lying exposed to the sun and rain near Capel Bridge from that time; also four plates, and four columns used in making a platform for the exhibition of the ores of the colony: these were cut from piles which had been thirty-three years partly under water in the sea and partly exposed, and all were still sound and had

resisted the attacks of the sea worm. A baulk of karri timber had been in the wash of the tide at Augusta for twenty-six years and was still sound. It may therefore be safely asserted that few, if any, countries have a greater variety of valuable natural woods than W.A. In addition to these the pine timber of the N.E. coast is large and of good quality, and would supply logs, boards, and spars. Pine of smaller growth is also found in the Murchison district. Jarrah timber is placed on Lloyd's list of timbers for ship building in table A line 3, and as it does not require sheathing, with these two timbers ship-building might become one of the most important and lucrative industries of the colony. The timber trees of W.A. have less development of leaf than those of most other countries, and do not consequently afford the same amount of shade, or beauty of outline, but some of the larger, especially the karri, red gum and peppermint, are very ornamental; and the jam trees, when scattered over pastures, are not only extremely pleasing to the eye, but afford grateful shade. The black boy, grass trees, and zamia are characteristic of the vegetation of W.A.; they are indigenous and connect the present flora with that of the carboniferous geological period, and may be described as built up of the successive vegetation of every year. The black boy, so named from its appearance, has the thicker and shorter stem with tuft-like rushes on the crown; the grass tree is taller, thinner, and the tuft more grass-like. The zamia is like a gigantic pine apple, with a crown of fronds like a palm tree. The black boy and grass tree yield oils of carbon; and their crowns, which are composed of long rush-like grass, are used for thatching. Black boy gum may be used with advantage for the same purposes as pitch, and will protect wood from the attack of the sea worm. Arrowroot can be made from the zamia. Banksias and wattles are also characteristic of Australian vegetation. West Australia does not possess native fruits of any importance, but there are some roots used by the natives for food which might prove worthy of cultivation if those introduced from Europe did not supersede them. There are, however, plants which must be noted as more or less dangerous or fatal to sheep, cattle, horses, &c., eating them, and which are commonly known as the poison plants. Four of these are small shrubs—the York road poison, which is the most common and most dangerous, the box, heart leaf and rock (the latter being found usually near granite,) and the Kandinup poison, a small herbaceous plant with a blue flower, common near the S. coast. The former are most dangerous in the spring of the year, especially after fires, when their green shoots tempt the cattle, or when proper food is scarce. They are easily distinguished from other plants, and may be destroyed in enclosed lands. The vegetation of the N. is of course tropical, and has its own peculiar characteristics. Of these the gouty stemmed tree, in this similar to the Adansonia and to the Barriguda of Brazil,

is remarkable for the swelling of the trunk, giving it a clumsy, deformed appearance, yet it is valuable as affording fruit enclosed in a rind about the size of a cocoanut; the seeds closely resembling almonds are very palatable, and commonly used by the natives for food; the bark yields a nutritious white gum which Grey says in taste and appearance resembles maccheroni, and which when soaked in hot water affords an agreeable mucilaginous drink. Pine trees fit for spars and timber grow on the hills and in the gorges and ravines, through which the surface waters descend from them in clear and rapid streams. Lofty eucalypti with paper bark and graceful pendent foliage rise from a matted undergrowth, above which pandanas and wild nutmeg trees form a dense forest with rich grasses and climbing plants. The calamas or rattan is common on this coast and leguminous plants are numerous, one at least of which is well known and cultivated in other parts of the colony. Grey describes the trees in the valley of the Glenelg as the largest he had seen in Australia; and from the fertility of the soil and abundance of water everywhere, there can be no doubt that rice, cotton, coffee, tobacco, and other valuable productions, with all useful tropical fruits and vegetables, might be cultivated there. The pine forests would afford timber, boards and spars for use and exportation. There are also in the N. vegetable fibres of bark and grass, used by the natives for making lines and nets for fishing, and which are remarkable for toughness. The mangrove, which is found on all the shallow parts of the coast, supplies firewood, and is otherwise much utilised for domestic purposes. All the fruits and vegetables of sub-tropical and temperate regions flourish when cultivated in the S.W. parts of the colony. The stone-pine may be found by the side of the araucaria, and the apple by the loquat; but the vine, fig tree, olive and orange, the almond and its congeners, seem peculiarly adapted to the soil and climate, as indeed are mulberry, tobacco and cotton. The castor oil plant grows freely on rubbish or in any neglected corner. The melon tribe and all leguminous plants flourish in great luxuriance. Of the cereals wheat will not probably be found to flourish N. of the Murchison, but maize may be cultivated throughout the colony; in the S. and W. the rose and geranium are naturalised.

V. FAUNA.—The native animals are the dog; the kangaroo of which three species are found in the open woods, the thickets and on the plains. The red kangaroo, a smaller kind, is found only among rocks so barren of vegetation as to make the means of its subsistence doubtful; the wallaby, a still smaller species, is found in the thickets near the coast and on the plains; the existence of wallaby on the Abrolhos, more than thirty miles from the coast, suggests the probability of depression as well as upheaval of the coast line; the opossum is plentiful in the woodland districts,

Of reptiles the guana and lizard are found, with several species of snakes, both land and water, the bite of which is poisonous; and some, especially to the N. are constrictors. The principal land birds are the emu, the bush turkey, a species of bustard, the gnow, a gallinaceous bird remarkable for piling its eggs in a conical heap with leaves, and not sitting to hatch them. The great eagle-hawk frequents the rocky cliffs and smaller birds of prey the rocky plains, cockatoos, black and white, parrots and paroquets, pigeons and quails are common, and in the N. the pheasant cuckoo. The birds of the colony are more remarkable for beauty of plumage than for their powers of song, yet the wattle birds and some others have melodious notes, but the bush is more often disturbed by the screeching of parrots, cockatoos, and magpies, and at night by the sad note of the weelaw. The water birds are: the black swan, still numerous in some of the southern waters of this colony, formerly throughout it. The British officers who first visited the Swan River were astonished at their number, but suggested that the time might come, as indeed it has already, when their absence would make it doubtful why the river should have been so named. The pelican, several species of duck, and many sea fowl frequent the coast and islands; to the N. these are so numerous that there are large deposits of guano. Gallineaux are abundant in the Lake District, and sometimes migrate westward, and there are several kinds of waders. Fish are abundant in all the waters; mullet, bream, taylor, cobblers, schnappers, whiting, herring on the coasts and in the estuaries of the rivers; whales and seals are still found, though not so abundant as formerly; sharks are common, especially on the N. coasts, where alligators are also said to be found occasionally; crayfish are abundant on all the coasts, and a small species in the fresh waters; oysters in many places; pearl oysters from Sharks Bay, northward, where also the dugong is found, a marine animal yielding oil of especially good quality, and having its skin of great thickness, and very valuable for making leather. The trepang or *bêche-de-mer* is abundant on the N. coast.

VI. MINERALS.—The mineral wealth of the colony is undoubtedly very great. The precious metals have not yet been found in any considerable quantities, though gold has been in many places, as at Kendenup, in the upper valley of the Palinup, and near Glengarry on the Greenough in quartz reefs, and at Peterwangy on the Upper Irwin in alluvial deposits. Silver is found in some lead ores. Specimens of tin have been found, and it may probably be discovered in large quantities among the red granites of the interior. Coal often searched for and still more often reported has not yet been found though veins of lignites and semi-bituminous substances have. The most important metals are lead and copper, the ores of which, especially the former, are abundant and widely diffused over the surface

of the colony from N. to S., but are worked now only in the Champion Bay district; iron ores, specular and hæmatitic, are found in abundance in many places; salt is deposited in large quantities in the lakes of the interior and the lagoons of the coast, and might be made a profitable article of export. In these also gypsum is found, as it is on the flats in the valleys of the sandstone ranges. Materials for building are abundant everywhere; in some districts clays for brickmaking as well as finer sorts for pottery and kaolin for porcelain, as also fire clay in others; various rocks, granitic, gneissose, siliceous, calcareous, and cretaceous, the latter for lime burning, are abundant on the coasts and are found in many parts of the interior.

VII. POPULATION.—On the 31st March 1870, the population was 24,785, of whom 15,375 were males, and 9410 females; of this number Perth and Fremantle contain, the former 20·20 per cent., and the latter 12·96 per cent., or together one-third of the entire population. The houses numbered 5000. The number of births during the year 1879 was 977, the number of deaths was 411. The departures from the colony during the same year were 278, the arrivals numbering 214. During 1879 there were 215 marriages, and at the end of that year the population numbered 16,628 males and 12,040 females, making a total of 28,668.

VIII. EDUCATION.—The educational system is framed under the clauses of the Education Act passed in 1871, which is based upon the principles of the Act now in operation in the mother country. By this Act, schools are divided into Elementary and Assisted. The former are largely subsidised at the cost of the colony; the latter are private, but a capitation grant is given on condition of submitting to Government inspection for secular results, and to the observance of a strict conscience clause during the four hours of secular instruction insisted upon by the Act. The Elementary schools are under the control and supervision of a Central Board and the Local District Boards. The Central Board, consisting of five members laymen, no two of whom can be of the same religious denomination, is appointed by the Governor, and the Local District Boards are elected by the general body of electors every three years. Compulsory attendance of children can be enforced by the Local Boards and of late has been, many of the parents being fined for absence of their children from school. In the Elementary schools four hours a day are devoted to secular instruction, and half an hour, under the provisions of a conscience clause, to reading the Bible or other religious books approved of by the Board; but no catechism or religious formulary of any kind may be used; and the Bible, if read, must be read without note or comment. The school fees vary from 2d. to 1s. per week, according to the circumstances of the parents. On 31st December 1878 there were 62 Elementary schools, and 20 Assisted schools, and 18 Provisional schools, making 100 in all; the

average attendance for the year being, Government schools 2668, Assisted schools 1332, and Provisional schools 325, making a total of 4325 children attending school. A Government inspector makes periodical visits to the schools, National, Assisted, and Provisional, throughout the colony; and the salaries of teachers of the schools established and conducted under the new system are dependent upon his report of regularity of attendance and proficiency on the part of the scholars. The Roman Catholics have educational establishments throughout the colony. Some of their schools coming within the provisions of the Educational Act of 1872 are subsidised, or "assisted" by the Government. A High school has also been established in Perth by an Act of the local Legislature, and has made as rapid a progress as could be expected. The Right Rev. Dr. Parry has founded a Ladies' College, which has proved most successful. An Amended Education Bill was passed during the second session of 1877, giving a more even distribution of salaries to teachers, without interfering with the principles of the original Act. Under this new Act, no teacher in a minimum school will receive less than £60 fixed salary, to which will be added "results" increasing such salary to £80 or £90.

IX. AGRICULTURE AND LIVE STOCK.—The principle crops are wheat, barley, hay, and potatoes. Vines are also extensively and successfully cultivated. Excellent wine is made in the colony, and each year witnesses alike an increase in the quantity manufactured, as well as an improvement in the quality. The returns for the year 1879 show that there were altogether 65,491½ acres of land under cultivation in the colony, viz.:—25,762 wheat, 7238 barley, 1734 oats, 846 rye, 362½ potatoes, 35 maize, 717½ vineyards, 608 kitchen gardens, 43¼ beans and other pulse, 19,085 hay or green crop. The average yield of wheat was 15 bushels to the acre, of barley 18, of oats 19, and of maize 14. The number of live stock in the colony in 1879 was:—horses, 32,411; horned cattle, 60,617; sheep, 1,109,860; pigs, 20,397; and goats, 4694.

X. THE PEARL FISHERY.—The pearl fishery year by year becomes of more value to the colony. In 1874 fifty-four ships and 135 boats were engaged in it. The value of shells exported in 1872 was £25,890, against £12,895 worth exported in the previous year, and the estimated value of pearls and pearl shells sent from the colony in 1874, representing the take of the season, is about £72,162. The exports for the following years were 1875, £65,000; 1876, £74,143; 1877, £12,450; and 1878, £24,000; 1879, £96,525. But this is an estimate from only very imperfect data. It is probable that the value of pearls exported, £12,000, far exceeded this amount. The value of the pearl shells exported was £84,525. The aboriginal natives are now almost exclusively employed in diving, the cost of introducing the Malay divers being too great. The value of shells in the colony

averages from £5 10s. to £8 per cwt., or even higher. These shells, the home of the *meleagrina margaritifera*, weigh on the average 2lbs. per pair, and measure from six to ten inches in diameter. It is to the intrinsic commercial value of the shells, rather than to the pearls they contain, that the N.W. fisheries owe their importance; although, occasionally, pearls of considerable value are obtained—one supposed to be worth upwards of £1500, was found in 1875; in 1878 one was found weighing forty grains at Sharks Bay; and another weighing 234 grains, obtained at Nickol Bay, realised £715. A lucrative pearl fishery exists in Sharks Bay, a large inlet, extending in the south-easterly direction from Dirk Hartog's Island, about the 25th degree of S. latitude, to a distance of 150 miles. The shells found in this region are those of the true pearl oyster, the *avicula margaritifera*, an oyster only slightly larger than its European congener, and valuable from the pearls it bears. The shells have been introduced to the European and Indian markets, but have assumed no considerable commercial value as yet. The fishing season of 1879 was a very successful one, but no returns have been received of the quantities procured by vessels engaged in the pearl, whale and other fisheries. The other fisheries, which produced in 1877 value to the extent of £23,808 10s. are the whale and miscellaneous fisheries. No returns have been received of quantities procured by vessels engaged in the pearl, whale and other fisheries, but the following marine products were exported during 1879; whale oil, £185, and mullet, &c., £139; hitherto the whale fishery has been conducted by vessels which come from Boston and other ports in the N. of the United States. Lately however the industry has been prosecuted with success by a few vessels, the property of local speculators, in consequence of the large results of American enterprise in this industry.

XI. IMPORTS AND EXPORTS.—The value of the imports into the colony during the year ending 31st December 1879 was £407,299 0s. 6d. The exports during the same year were valued at £494,883 10s. As usual wool was the largest item of export; the amount shipped was to the value of £175,284 8s. Next to this come sandalwood and pearl shells, the export value of which was £119,525 12s. 6d. The value of the pearls sent from the colony was estimated at £12,000, and jarrah timber £63,901 15s. Horses, sheep, fish, flour, gum, hides, leather, oil, ore, tallow, guano and tortoiseshell, also figure among the articles of export.

XII. THE REVENUE from all sources, including Customs, for the year 1879 was £196,315 0s. 11d., the expenditure being £195,812 4s. 5d. In the land sales there was an increase, owing to increased occupation, and a small decrease in the postal and telegraph receipts. The public debt was £361,000, bearing interest at the rate of five and six per cent.; the indebtedness per head of population being

very nearly twelve guineas a head. The revenue for the first quarter of 1880 was, including a payment of £3000 from the Imperial Treasury, £56,037 17s. 3d. Of this the Customs amounted to £16,340, and the land revenue £25,143. The expenditure during the quarter was £55,670 17s., including a remittance of £10,000 to the Crown agents. The revenue for 1881 is estimated at £192,154, and the expenditure at £172,215.

XIII. SHIPPING.—In 1879 the number of vessels which left the various ports was 162, tonnage 85,086, with crews of 5403 men; 162 vessels, of a total of 84,951 tons, with crews amounting to 5366 men, were entered inwards.

XIV. SAVINGS BANKS, &c.—In 1878 the Post Office Savings Banks numbered thirteen, with twelve branch offices for the transmission of money, with 1332 depositors. There are also twelve Friendly Societies in existence, with which are connected about 1000 persons. On June 30th 1879 the assets of the three banks doing business in the colony were £518,489. Liabilities £352,092, the deposits not bearing interest amounted to £108,362, bearing interest to £126,125.

XV. GOVERNMENTAL.—The administration of the colony is under a Governor appointed by the Crown, who is assisted by an Executive Council composed of certain office-holders, namely,—the senior officer in command of the forces, the Colonial Secretary, the Surveyor-General and the Attorney-General. In the absence of the Governor the Commandant is the Administrator. There is also a Legislative Council composed of official and nominee and elected members. The official members are the Colonial Secretary, the Surveyor-General and the Attorney-General. The nominee members are four in number. The elected members number fourteen. Two each are returned by the electoral districts of Perth and Freemantle, and one by the districts of York, Geraldton, Greenough, Wellington, Vasse, Swan, Albany, Toodyay, Murray and Williams, and N. District. The qualification for an elector is a householding of £10 annual value. A member must be possessed of landed property to the value of £1000 or of an annual income of £250.

XVI. HISTORY: (1.) *Governor Stirling*.—The history of a colony so isolated as W. A. is rather that of social than of political change and progress. Captain Stirling landed from the *Parmelia* on 1st June 1829 with a staff of eight persons and ten artisans and mechanics, with their wives and families and servants, 51 head of cattle, 200 sheep, 33 horses, some pigs and poultry. A large supply of fruit trees, plants, and seeds had been contributed by the Horticultural Society of London and at the Cape of Good Hope, which were immediately planted on Garden Island. The names and offices of these founders of the colony were Captain James Stirling, Lieut.-Governor, and family of six persons, and George Eliot aged eleven years; Peter Brown, Colonial Secretary; Mrs. Brown and two children; Lieut. J. S. Roe, R.N., surveyor,

and Mrs. Roe; C. Sutherland, assistant-surveyor, and Mrs. Sutherland; H. Morgan, storekeeper, and Mrs. Morgan; W. Shilton, clerk to the Secretary; J. Drummond, agriculturist; also the widow and five children of Assistant-Surgeon Tully Daley, 63rd Regiment, who had died on the passage out. In July the *Sulphur* arrived with a detachment of a light company of that regiment and shortly after the Rev. J. B. Wittenoom, the first colonial chaplain, landed. The first emigrant ship the *Calista* arrived on the 5th of August, bringing about 100 passengers of all classes, men, women, and children, among whom the names of Leake, Samson, and Scott have prominence; and from that time many vessels followed in rapid succession, bringing immigrants of all classes and occupations, stock and goods, so that in January 1830 the Governor was able to report a population numbering 850 persons, property of the assessed value of £41,550, 39 locations effected, 204 head of cattle, 57 horses, 1096 sheep, 106 pigs, &c. The year 1830 witnessed a still larger immigration. Captain Stirling acted at first as Lieut.-Governor under instructions but with almost unlimited authority. On his return to England in 1831 however, a commission under the Great Seal was issued appointing him Governor and Commander-in-Chief of H.M. Settlements on the west coast of Australia or New Holland, and by letters patent Vice-Admiral; the limits of his authority being from Cape Londonderry lat. 13° 44', to West Cape Howe lat. 35° 8' S., and from the Hartog's Island long. 112° 52' to 129° E. from Greenough, thus including the small settlement of military and convicts which had been established at King George's Sound by the Governor of N.S.W. in 1827. These limits as already noted were corrected by a supplementary commission granted to Governor Weld in 1873. By his commission Governor Stirling had authority to appoint an Executive Council, to make provision for the defence of the colony, to divide it into districts, counties, and townships, to dispose of the land according to instructions, in which also those who might act for him in his absence, according to seniority, were named; any one sitting as judge being excepted. At first a Board of Council and Audit, to assist the Governor in the assessment of property brought into the colony as an equivalent for land was established, the members of which were nominated by him from time to time as might be convenient; but the Executive Council consisted of the officer commanding the troops (Captain Irwin,) the Colonial Secretary, the Surveyor-General, and the Advocate-General. This Council, with slight changes in its constitution, has been continued to the present time. The law was administered by W. H. Mackie, a name still remembered with honour, as Commissioner of the Civil Court and Chairman of Quarter Sessions, with G. F. Moore as Advocate-General; an arrangement continued against the expressed opinion of the Commissioner as to the validity of his jurisdiction in certain criminal

cases until 1851, when his successor, now Sir A. P. Burt, affirming that opinion, was appointed the first Judge of the Supreme Court, and G. F. Stone, Crown Solicitor and Attorney-General. Governor Stirling also appointed resident magistrates in the more settled localities, as G. Leake at Fremantle, H. Whitfield at Guildford, Colonel J. Molloy at Augusta, and Sir R. Spencer at Albany, and these have been continued, and their number from time to time increased, and their functions extended, especially since the introduction of convicts in 1850. A mounted police force was enrolled, which has been also continued, and by its means the law enforced throughout the colony. A Legislative Council was formed of the members of the Executive Council with two nominated members, the Governor presiding. The nominated members were afterwards increased to four, and ultimately to six, but in 1870 the Legislative Council became elective, and since then the official members have been the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and the Surveyor-General. A Speaker was at the same time elected in the person of Sir L. S. Leake, who still holds that office.

(2.) *The Land Regulations.*—The history of the colony is at first principally that of the Land Regulations and their consequences. The Imperial Government being anxious for the settlement of the country to anticipate any such measure being taken by that of France, offered land in return for property introduced at one shilling and sixpence for an acre, as well as allotments for every immigrant; and on these terms in the year 1832, 1,349,209 acres had been allotted, of which three lots exceeded 100,000; ten 20,000; eighteen 10,000; and fifty-two 5000 acres each. Thomas Peel and others had 250,000 acres; Colonel Latour 113,100, and Governor Stirling 100,000 in consideration of his not having any salary attached to his office, but his salary, afterwards fixed at £800 a year, was ultimately paid from the date of his appointment. The necessary consequence of this extravagant distribution of land was that the small population was widely scattered from Albany and Augusta to the Avon Valley. Much difficulty, confusion, and waste of time by the surveyors, also resulted from the instructions under which the Surveyor-General had to divide the country into counties, townships and sections of equal fixed dimensions, and by the selection of reserves for public purposes. Moreover, the sparseness of the population soon provoked attacks from the natives, who, though originally peaceable and friendly, could not view with indifference the occupation of their hunting grounds by strangers without any compensation being made, and the boldest soon found able and dangerous leaders, so that the small military force in the colony was found scarcely sufficient for the protection of life and property. Very severe measures were therefore adopted—many natives were killed and some executed. Besides these other causes operated

disadvantageously, for although property had been introduced to the value of £94,281 of which £21,655 was in stock, very much was unsuited to the wants of an infant colony. Mr. Peel, Colonel Latour and others, had not been so careful as they should have been in providing for the shelter, maintenance, employment, and supervision of the labourers introduced by them; the selection of sites for their residence was in some cases unwise, and the consequences were in too many instances distress and disorganisation, disease and death; hence arose disputes between master and men; and as hired labour was both scarce and dear, there was every temptation for servants to free themselves from their contracts, which indeed the masters were not always able to fulfil. The rapid increase of immigrants, and the general want of system and providential arrangements for their shelter and maintenance, exposed many to privation and hardships which they had not anticipated, and for which they were unprepared and unfitted. Food became scarce and dear. For the supply of animal food, flour, potatoes, &c., the settlers were dependent principally on the Cape of Good Hope and T. Kangaroo flesh was for many years commonly sold and its provision became a regular occupation; and this again caused distress among the natives for want of their ordinary food and clothing which those animals had supplied. Those families whose hunting grounds had been occupied by the settlers, intruded on the territory of others, and contests, retaliations and permanent feuds were consequent among them. Kangaroo meat sold for 10d. when beef was 1s. 6d., and mutton 1s. 5d. the pound; bread was at one time 2s. 2d. the 4-lb. loaf. The number of vessels which arrived at Fremantle made proper mooring and accommodation for them and their cargoes impossible, and the loss of many in consequence gave the port a bad name; it ceased to be a place of call for those trading to other ports, and ship-owners in England became shy of sending vessels there. These unhappy conditions tended not only to check immigration, as did the price of land (which had been raised to five shillings an acre,) but led to the emigration of such as Henty and many others, who sought elsewhere a better market for their capital and labour, but who might have been of the greatest service to the infant colony. Henty had taken up 62,035 acres of land and introduced, with his two brothers, twelve labourers and mechanics, six women, and fifteen children, with much valuable stock, as a first instalment on his estate. Peel had claimed land on account of 170, and Colonel Latour on account of eighty-five persons introduced by themselves. Governor Stirling had commenced by making settlements at Augusta, Leschenault, Kelmescott, Guildford, and in the Avon Valley. He fixed on the N. instead of the S. side of Perth water, as had been originally intended, for the site of the capital of the colony, thus placing the estuary of the river between it and the port of Fremantle. There were as yet no roads,

and though the river afforded a water-way, there were no vessels or boats fitted for the transport of cargo. The land on the Swan, and between the Swan and the Vasse, had been for the most part taken up, and the time and labour of an increasing staff of surveyors, and even of the Governor himself, soon became occupied in finding new locations for settlement and means of communication between already inhabited places. The want of system and concentration of strength tended greatly to neutralise the strenuous and persevering efforts of the colonists, who had to labour on for many years under depressing circumstances. It is not therefore surprising that in the early days of the colony there should have been some discontent, and a desire for change in the land laws, and for the protection of colonial produce, which could be undersold by that imported; and these conditions obtained more or less for many years. These causes continued in operation, and the land in the settled districts of the colony being all taken up, and servants and labourers who had saved money being unable to purchase, emigration increased; and as many as forty-two left the colony at one time. Governor Stirling had discovered in the course of his explorations that the greater part of the land in the colony was more fitted for pasturage than agriculture; and it soon became necessary for the settlers who were sheep and cattle owners to seek more extended runs for their stock, beyond the settled districts of the colony. This caused a still greater dispersion of the already small population, which in 1840 amounted only to 2354 persons. The price of land had now been raised to £1 an acre, in pursuance of the then fashionable Wakefield system, which however was not fully carried into effect; and so during Governor Hutt's tenure of office the attention of the colonists was mainly directed to reducing the price of land, making it more available for the depasturing stock and the obtaining labour. Small efforts at immigration were made, and in the interest both of the settler and farmer, in 1841 remission on the purchase of land was granted to anyone who succeeded in training a native to be a useful farm servant. A society was also formed for diffusing knowledge respecting the colony; but the most important effort to develop its resources by increasing its population was made by the W.A. Company at their settlement of Australind, near Leschenault. The Company had purchased Colonel Latour's property there, which they now proposed to re-sell at £1 an acre, in farms of 100 acres, and M. W. Clifton was sent out with a sufficient staff of surveyors, &c., to prepare for the reception of the first immigrants. The Colonial Government however proposed to resume those lands in forfeiture, and Clifton sought another location in the country discovered by Grey about Champion Bay; this proved in his estimation of inferior value, and by agreement with the Local Government he returned to his original location to prepare for the reception of the new settlers who

arrived to the number of 457; but the company in London broke up, the work was stopped, and the fair promise of the commencement was not fulfilled. The settlement had been named Australind, in anticipation of its becoming a place of resort, if not residence, for invalids and others from India. At this time also the application of the Wakefield system on a large scale in N.Z. and S.A., where it was carried out in its integrity, directed the attention of intending emigrants to those colonies, and as the depressed state of the agricultural interest had caused a corresponding collapse in trade (in 1848 there was no sugar in the colony,) and there was no hope of obtaining labour by immigration, on the accession of Governor Fitzgerald to office, a large number of the colonists petitioned for the introduction of convicts to bring labour and money into the colony, and supply a market for produce—not however without opposition on the part of the few, who thought that these benefits would be more than neutralised by the evil influence which the presence of a large number of convicted felons might exercise on the morals of the people. To this petition the Imperial Government, then in want of a place to which they might transport convicts, acceded, and the first body arrived on the 1st June 1850. The result has proved the correctness of the anticipations of both parties; the colony has profited much by convict labour and by the money spent on the convict establishment, and on the military and pensioners who were sent out simultaneously. The criminal calendar will show the less pleasing consequences of this measure. During the ten years from 1860 to 1869, inclusive, the convictions in the Supreme Court show 254 of the convict class against fifty-three free persons; in 1875 thirty expirees, eleven free men, and two ticket-of-leave holders; but probably more evil influence was exercised at this time by the sealers who had established their head-quarters on Middle Island, at the Recherche Archipelago, in the Great Bight on the southern coast, and who seem to have rivalled in their habits those recorded of pirates and buccaneers. It had been part of the agreement in making W.A. a convict colony that free immigrants should be sent from England in number equal to the convicts, and in July 1850 the first instalment of 219 persons arrived in the *Sophia*, and a detachment of sappers and miners the next year, some of whom remained in the colony and proved valuable members of society. In this year also juvenile immigrants, fifty-one in number, were first introduced, some of whom afterwards proved adepts in crime, though many became useful members of society; and 125 more were sent, but at the request of the colonists that plan for immigration was abandoned. Some Chinese were also introduced, who proved as usual thrifty and industrious. The depressed state of affairs in the colony had not been less felt by those in the employ of the Government than by the settlers, and many had

supplemented their insufficient salaries by trading. Notwithstanding all drawbacks the colony had gradually increased in population and production. The white inhabitants numbered 6661 persons; the area of land under cultivation in cereals was 4122 acres; there were 141,123 sheep, 10,919 head of cattle, 2095 horses, some 3000 pigs, and 1431 goats; the imports had reached the sum of £45,411 6s., and the exports of £29,598 9s. The labours of the colonists had been most successful in horticulture by the production of most of the valuable fruits, vegetables and flowers now under cultivation, most of which had been introduced by the Government and by the first settlers.

(3.) *The Penal Settlement.*—The introduction of convicts forms so important an era in the history of the colony that the effects produced by it require separate consideration, but, pursuing the course of general history, the most important event during Governor Fitzgerald's term of office was the opening up of the Victoria district, now so largely occupied by sheep stations and so productive in mineral wealth; a convict dépôt was formed there and subsequently at Lynton, Port Gregory. In visiting that district the Governor was attacked and wounded by the natives near White Peak. This district was also rendered attractive by the report of coal having been discovered on the Upper Irwin by Messrs. Gregory (who in consequence received a grant of 2500 acres of land) as well as by the lodes of lead and copper also found by them on the Murchison River. Guano was also discovered on the islands, and exported from Shark's Bay, as also shells supposed, and which proved to be, those of the pearl oyster. The discovery of gold in other parts of Australia induced the offer of rewards for its discovery in the colony, but though claims have been made from time to time they have never yet been admitted. The goldfields of Victoria attracted many emigrants to that colony from W.A., but other sources of trade were opened. 1851 saw the first shipment of horses to India, and the rich alluvial deposits about the lower course of the Greenhough became known; an export trade in timber was also commenced. A more regular and intimate intercourse with the outer world was now established; in August 1852 the first vessel of the Australian Royal Mail Company, the *Australian*, Captain Hoseason, arrived in King George's Sound, and an overland mail service was arranged from Perth to Albany. The first steamboat was placed on the Swan River; a Savings Bank was established. The productions of the colony did not however keep pace with the requirements caused by the presence of the convicts and military. In 1854 the cost of imported breadstuffs amounted to £40,000.

(4.) *Governor Kennedy.*—In 1855 Governor Kennedy arrived. There had been for some time a growing dissatisfaction on the part of the colonists with the Executive—there was an outstanding debt and an export of specie consequent

on difficulty in obtaining treasury bills; interference with magistrates and officials, and with publicans' licenses was complained of; and the land regulations, especially the high price for land, were thought to be detrimental to the interests of the colony. It was spoken of as "a land of corn, wine, and oil, copper, lead, iron, and coal—held by few, but requiring occupation by many." It was considered that the Legislative Council did not represent the opinions of the colonists, and that the natural and proper remedy would be the establishment of a Representative Council. The farmers in the eastern districts also complained that they did not derive their fair advantages from the introduction of the convict system, the Commissariat having purchased flour from S.A., and in consequence a protective duty was desired. The Government claimed the right to obtain supplies in the cheapest market. One farmer however soon followed the example of Government by purchasing flour to fulfil a contract. The removal of convict depôts from the agricultural districts was also objected to; but the camps of the kangaroo hunters had become the resort of vagabonds of all classes, and were a refuge for runaway convicts. The demand for a Representative Council was dropped for fear that it might lead to the removal of convicts altogether. Nevertheless the colony was progressing, the imports of 1857 exceeded those of 1850 by double the amount, and the income by £8498; yet there was illicit trade carried on in the S.W., principally with American whale ships. The Champion Bay district was filling, and a cattle company had located on the Irwin River; surveys also in contemplation of railroads, were made by Lieutenant Chapman from Perth to King George's Sound, and by Surveyor Evans in the mining district of the N. In 1859 the regular troops were withdrawn, and a force of enrolled pensioners organised. Volunteer companies were also formed at Perth and Fremantle, and a corps of mounted rifles at York. The corps at Pinjarrah was not formed till 1864.

(5) *Governor Hampton.*—In 1862 Governor Hampton succeeded Governor Kennedy. This was a year of unprecedented floods, the Swan River rising seven feet above its usual level; many bridges were destroyed, and the lowlands at the back of Perth were inundated, causing much loss and expense both to the Government and to individuals, and Lieutenant Oliver was drowned crossing the Causeway near the Swan at Perth. Prospecting for gold was now commenced, and Hargraves from V. was employed, but without success. From V. also came a proposition to form a settlement on the N.W. coast, but the *Mystery* was first sent there with sheep and cattle by Padbury. In 1864 the settlements were farther extended; Dempster took sheep to Esperance Bay, on the S. coast; a company was formed which sent sheep and cattle to Camden Harbour on the N.W., as Messrs. Brown did also to Sharks

Bay and F. Von Bibra to Hartog's Island; the next year an attempt was made to form a station on St. Magnus River, Doubtful Bay. The pearl fishery which had been commenced in Sharks Bay was now extended to Nickol Bay. Emigration had continued at intervals, but now many mechanics left the colony unable to compete with convict labour. Governor Hampton gave great attention to public works and to economising the cost of Government. By the former he obtained a lasting reputation, and by the latter he secured an excess of income. Among other important works he commenced, what Governor Weld completed, the bushing the sand-hills to the S. of Geraldton, which threatened in their northward progress to overwhelm the houses. In 1867 he was able to report that during the past year 371 miles of road had been repaired, 132 cleared, and thirty-two made; thirty-three bridges built, seven repaired, and three in course of erection; five jetties constructed, two extended, and two repaired; besides the works on the Government House, Perth, Residency at Champion Bay, Lunatic Asylum, Post and Police Offices, Schools, &c., in many places. At this time a step was made towards the representation of the people by permitting the selection by vote of persons for nomination by the Governor to the members of the Legislative Council, and accordingly J. G. C. Carr, J. G. Lee Steere, W. Bateman, S. Phillips, and J. W. Hardey were so nominated. In 1868 the desire that the unofficial members should be elected by the people was strongly expressed, and this was followed by a report on the division of the colony into electoral districts, and by a petition for a Representative Constitution under 13th and 14th Vic. c. 59. In that year also the last convict vessel arrived, having on board some Fenians, which raised fears, subsequently proved to be just by the escape of several so assisted in 1876, that the "Yankee brotherhood" would endeavour to rescue them. 1869 was marked by efforts to ascertain the existence of gold and coal; borings were made near Perth to the depth of 200 feet, as subsequently in 1874, but without success; £5000 were offered for the discovery of a gold-field, and money voted for a geologist to examine and report on the colony.

(6.) *Governor Weld.*—The arrival of Governor Weld in September 1869 gave an impulse to further efforts in favour of Representative Institutions, it having been concluded from words spoken publicly and officially in England that he was fully prepared to further them with the consent of the Imperial Government; and accordingly in 1870 an Ordinance, No. 13, was issued for the division of the colony into electoral districts and the election of members to the Legislative Council under the provisions of 13th and 14th Vic., c. 59, which was accordingly constituted. It consisted of five nominee members, three being official, viz.: the Colonial Secretary, the Attorney-General, and the Surveyor-General, and two unofficial; the number of elected members was ten; subsequently

two were added and one nominee member. The Council met the same year. It did not however realise fully the anticipations which had been formed respecting it, for although the control over the finances and freedom of voting of nominee members were conceded the ultimate decision in all cases was still reserved to the Imperial Government. An opposition was accordingly organised, and the forms of the Imperial Parliament having been adopted the Colonial Secretary assumed the duties of Prime Minister and Chancellor of the Exchequer. The constitution of elected Town Trusts and Road Boards was another step towards self-government made at this time. By the Education Act all denominational religious teaching was made optional in the Government Schools, and by the transfer of the stipends of Colonial Chaplains from the accounts of the establishment to the miscellaneous services, the Church of England in the colony was placed on the same footing as other religious communities which led immediately to Synodical action and government. The operation of the Government at this time was very energetic; a loan for public works of £100,000 was proposed, but only £25,000 permitted by the Imperial Government; a survey of the coast of the colony was commenced at the joint expense of the Imperial and Colonial Governments; a steam vessel was subsidised and placed on the coast to carry mails and passengers; an electric telegraph, which had been commenced between Perth and Fremantle by a company, was bought up; and in 1873 a loan bill passed for £100,000 to be employed in telegraph extension and a railway in the mining district. Red rust having destroyed the grain crops seed was procured and employment on public works provided for those who were in need. At the meeting of the Legislative Council in 1874 the desire for Responsible Government expressed itself by a petition, *venime contradicente*, from the Council to the Governor, requesting that he would bring forward a Bill for its institution, in accordance with which a Bill was presented by the Colonial Secretary, contemplating a Legislature of two houses, one to be nominated and the other elected, with a civil list to provide for the Executive. As however the Bill was not accepted in its entirety the Governor dissolved the Council, and on re-election three members were found in opposition to the establishment of Responsible Government in the colony, but the majority held to their former opinion. The extension of the timber trade by the formation of new companies and by grants of land, the erection of crushing machinery and working a quartz reef at Kendenup by the Plantagenet Gold Mining Company, the commencement of sericulture, the placing establishments on the Abrolhos for fishing, and on Barrow Island for turtle catching, the commencement of a system of assisted immigration and of the mines railway, and of the extension of the telegraph line to Eucla in connection with the Government of South Australia mark this period.

(7.) *Governor Robinson*.—On the arrival in 1875 of Governor Sir Wm. C. F. Robinson, K.C.M.G., the Imperial Government decided against conceding Responsible Government to the colony, considering that it was not prepared for so great a change. The removal of the convict prisoners from all other places to Fremantle had given warning of further change in that department, and in 1877 it was intimated that there would be a reduction in the Imperial grant for police services. The year 1876 witnessed the necessity for a further loan of £26,000 for the completion of the Mines railway, in which great alterations and improvements were obviously necessary. The appropriation of £18,000 out of revenue for the completion of the telegraph to Eucla was the more satisfactory, because the line from Bremer Bay to Eucla was in process of survey by Mr. Price and a sufficient party, and was progressing rapidly. The decision as to harbour works at Fremantle was now also brought to an issue. From the earliest days of the colony it had been in contemplation to make at the principal port a more secure harbour for vessels than nature had provided, and numerous suggestions and plans had been made from time to time for that purpose, but all resolving themselves into four principles. The first in time, originating indeed with the officers of the *Success* in 1827, was to make the estuary of the Swan between Perth and Fremantle accessible by cutting a canal from Rocky Bay to the sea, a distance of about a quarter of a mile; the others were to enclose an area by a breakwater to the south of the mouth of the Swan; at the mouth of the Swan; or to obtain access to the mouth of the river and make it available as a dock or harbour. In 1871 Doyne, and in 1873 Wardell, had reported on these, but unfavourably; their different plans were at last submitted to the judgment of Sir John Coode, and his report is still under consideration. Now also the schemes which had been ventilated for a long time for a railway from Fremantle to Perth and Guildford were formally brought forward, and it was proposed to bring in a Bill for providing a guarantee of six per cent. on the amount of capital necessary for its construction; this was delayed till the next year that surveys and estimates might be made which were accordingly proceeded with, but the Bill was ultimately withdrawn, pending the decision of the Imperial Government on the question of guarantee. This year, also, supplementary regulations were published respecting grants to pensioners and volunteers; and cutting timber and mining by which the land regulations of the colony were completed; a Commissioner of Public Works was appointed; immigration continued; Sunday diving forbidden in the pearl fishery; the money order system extended; the free list tariff extended to articles necessary for food, ship chandlery, &c.; the light-house on Point Moore, at Champion Bay, contracted for of iron instead of stone; a deep sea telegraph suggested from Point Galle to Western Australia

with Cocos Islands for an intermediate station; a vote taken for the establishment of a high school; the ballot proposed as a preventative against bribery; and a jetty at Owen's anchorage determined upon. These many and considerable works occupied the period of Sir Wm. C. F. Robinson's Government, who left the colony 1st September 1877 to proceed *via* Sydney to his new Government at Singapore. He was succeeded by the present Governor, Major-General Sir Harry Saint George Ord, K.C.M.G., C.B.

XVII. EXPLORATION.—In 1801 the French corvettes *Geographe* and *Naturaliste*, with the galliotte *Casuarina*, which had been attached to the expedition at Port Jackson, made Cape Leeuwin in the month of June, and the names of the three vessels and their officers still maintain, on the western coast, many reminiscences of their visit. The Vasse River was so named after a Dutch sailor who accompanied the expedition and was drowned off its mouth. The coasts of Endraght land, De Witt's land, and Sharks Bay were examined and named; returning southward the Swan River was entered by boats 17th June and explored as far as the islands above Perth Water, which were named after M. Hierrisen, Enseigne de Vaisseau. M. de Peron, the historian of the expedition, gave a very particular account of the river, which, however, was not confirmed in its details by the officers of the *Success* in 1827. A large number of names given by the French are still retained and familiar to the ears of Western Australians, but some have been replaced by English appellations, as the Moreau, now the Canning, while others have undergone a process of translation, as Port Two-people. The northern coasts were surveyed by Captain King in 1820 to 1824, and his work was supplemented by Captains Wickham and Stokes in the *Beagle* between the years 1837 and 1843; the latter completing the survey of Sharks Bay. The coasts of W.A. being then sufficiently known, and it having been ascertained that the French had determined to establish themselves there, the Governor of N.S.W. in 1826 sent a party of about seventy-five persons, principally soldiers and convicts, to occupy King George's Sound, and the next year H.M.S. *Success* to select a place for a settlement on the west coast, with special reference to the Swan River, off the mouth of which that vessel dropped her anchor on the 6th March, and the next day the gig and cutter were sent with their crews well armed and with provisions for a fortnight, to examine the river, to proceed if possible to its source, ascertain the nature and productions of the country, and fix on an eligible sight for a settlement. The boats having reached Hierrisen's islands, were hauled over the flats, and ascended the river until stopped by fallen timber. In returning the gig was sent to examine the Canning River, and during the absence of the boats the shores and waters of Gage's Roads had been examined. Mr. Frazer, the colonial botanist, accompanied the

expedition, and he notices with much pleasure the beauty of the scenery, the vivid green of the foliage, and the astonishing luxuriance of the herbaceous plants which he described as exceeding anything he ever saw on the E. coast. Indeed the river, still beautiful, must, before its banks were denuded of the forest trees which then clothed them "so magnificently" to use his own expression, have afforded "a great treat" to one accustomed to the ever brown eucalyptus of Port Jackson." The reports made by Captain Stirling and Mr. Frazer on the return of the *Success* to Sydney, determined the Governor to recommend that a settlement should be formed on the Swan River, and Captain Stirling was, in consequence, sent out in 1829 to give effect to his recommendation. Hitherto, nothing had been known of W.A. but the coast line, and that imperfectly, with the lower course of the rivers Swan and Canning, and the lake or estuary into which they have their outlets. On his arrival, Captain Stirling lost no time in obtaining further knowledge both of the coast and of the interior of that country which it had become his duty to develop for the advancement and future prosperity of the colony of which he was the founder; indeed, even before Stirling's arrival, Captain Fremantle (H.M.S. *Challenger*) had already hoisted the British flag at the place which now bears his name, and had explored the country lying between Cockburn Sound and the Canning River. While James Drummond, the botanist who accompanied Captain Stirling, was at his work near the coast, Ensign Robert Dale, of the 63rd, explored the country to the Eastward, and reached the valley of the Avon at Mount Bakewell; and afterwards, starting from thence, proceeded eastward for about sixty miles to Mounts Stirling and Caroline, returning by a more southern route past the mount which bears his name. Meanwhile Lieut. William Preston, R.N., with Dr. Alexander Collie, had reached Leschenault to the S.; and Lieut. Archibald Erskine examined the Darling Range. Dale again in the end of the year 1830 went to trace the course of the Helena River, and Captain Thomas Bannister started from the Swan River to cross the country to King George's Sound. On the S., Captain John Molloy had discovered the Blackwood, and Governor Stirling with the Surveyor-General, Lieut. J. S. Roe, R.N., having visited Leschenault and Augusta, military detachments and settlers were established at both places. Nor had those at King George's Sound been idle, and the names of Lieut.-Col. Lockyer, Captain Wakefield, Lieutenants Tollemache and Kent, and especially that of Dr. Wilson, Resident Magistrate at Albany, will not be forgotten. In the work of exploration none were more active than the Governor himself, who, with the Surveyor General, examined the course of the Collie and Preston Rivers, and the latter explored the country beyond the range of hills, which the Governor named after him, Roe's range; but the first

exploration of any length, or presenting any serious difficulty, was that made from the Swan to King George's Sound, by Captain Thomas Bannister, who, in consequence of the inaccuracy of the calculations of the surveyor sent with him, only succeeded in reaching, after much hardship, the coast near the mouth of the Frankland, having discovered in his journey the Bannister and other affluents of the Murray, as well as those of the Blackwood and Frankland. He first noticed the gigantic growth of the trees near the S. coast. The next year Collie and Dale, removed to King George's Sound, proceeded to explore that district; Collie from Oyster Harbour, about the King and Kalgan or French River, as it was then called, and the Porongurup Range, while Dale was sent to Tood-e-rup, a part of the Stirling Range, to search, but without success, for a cereal plant said to be used as food by the natives. This year also (1831) J. G. Bussell examined the country between the Blackwood and the Vasse, as well as the coast to the W. of those rivers. In 1833 Alfred Hillman, a surveyor in the employ of the Government, explored the S. coast from Albany as far as Nornalup Inlet. In 1834 G. F. Moore made the junction of the Avon and Swan; Thomas Turner ascended the Blackwood; John Butler explored the Lake district to the N. of Perth; C. R. B. Norcott, Superintendent of Police, the Murray River valley; F. Ludlow traversed the country between Augusta and the Swan River; and W. K. Shenton, a draughtsman attached to the office of the Surveyor-General, examined the Collie River. In 1835 Hillman visited the Avon, Hillman, and Williams Rivers; Patrick Taylor examined the upper course of the Kalgan and Hay; Surveyor Thomas Watson the Murray; and Moore the Upper Swan; but that year is most notable for the expedition under the command of the Governor himself, attended by the Surveyor-General, which, traversing the country about the head waters of the Murray and Blackwood, struck the course of the Palinup or Salt River, and returning from the W. of the Stirling Range (so named after Governor Stirling,) descended the valley of the Kent and proceeded along the coast to King George's Sound. From thence they went in H.M.S. *Sulphur* to Cape Knob and Dillon Bay, and on their return Roe went back by York to the Swan River. In 1836 further exploration was made by Hillman and Williams between the Avon and Williams Rivers, by Moore and Drummond about the sources of Moore River, and by Lieutenant Banbury in the valley of the Williams and between the sources of the Dale and the Murray. In 1837 the Governor went by the valley of the Murray to Kojonup; and that year is notable for the landing of Lieutenants Grey and Lushington on the N. coast, and for the discovery by them of the beautiful and fertile valley of the Glenelg River. Grey however, having been severely wounded in a skirmish with the natives, returned with his party to

Mauritius to restore his health and prepare for a fresh descent on the N. coast. Meanwhile Hillman with his party was surveying the country and laying out a road from Perth to King George's Sound. It was indeed for the purpose of connecting the scattered settlements in the new colony that most explorations were now made. The settlers in the S.W. very naturally desired that the road from Perth to Albany should pass near their locations, and the journeys of W. Nairn Clarke, R. H. Bland (afterwards Colonial Secretary,) F. C. Singleton, and Lieutenant Egerton Warburton, were continued for the three following years with that object. At this time also Captain John Scully made further exploration on the Moore River, as did surveyor H. M. Ommaney (formerly a lieutenant in the army,) on the coast to the W. of Busselton, while Clarke examined the coast and its inlets between King George's Sound and Point D'Entrecasteaux. Grey, by the advice of Sir William Nicolay, then Governor of Mauritius, had come to the Swan River to re-organise his party for further exploration on the N. coast; but as it was supposed that the main drainage of the interior would prove to be to the W., the rivers of the N. coast being apparently of sufficient magnitude, and the limits of the basin of the Glenelg being known, he went by sea to Sharks Bay, into which a considerable river had been reported to flow from the E., and was landed with three whale-boats and stores on Bernier Island, where he made his dépôt, and from thence proceeded across the bay, and after much danger and difficulty succeeded in tracing its eastern shore and entering the mouth of the Gascoigne River; but returning to his dépôt one of his boats was broken up, the others shattered, and his stores destroyed in a violent storm, so that he was obliged to attempt to return to Swan River by sea in two boats, now unfit for service, and with a very insufficient stock of provisions. Attempting to land near the S. of Gantheaume Bay, his boats were destroyed in the surf on the beach, and it only remained to reach, if possible, the Swan River, on foot. In this terrible journey the party separated, but Grey and a faithful native named Kaibor, having reached Perth, sent back assistance to the rest, who, with the exception of Frederick Smith, a young volunteer who had attached himself to Grey, and Walker the surgeon, who had reached Fremantle unassisted, were picked up by a party sent to their relief under the Surveyor-General. Smith died of exhaustion near the small river which bears his name, after having shown himself, by his courage and patient endurance of hardship and famine, worthy of his cousin Florence Nightingale. In this journey of nearly 300 miles, Grey discovered and passed over all the rivers of the W. coast, from the Murchison to the Swan, and his description of the country led ultimately to its settlement. His accuracy was much disputed by some, but subsequent knowledge has fully confirmed his report. It was in this year that Eyre arrived at

King George's Sound, having lost all his party except his native guide in his journey along the coast from Port Lincoln. Captain Stokes in the *Beagle* this year surveyed the Abrolhos and Champion Bay, which had been previously entered by Lieutenant Helpman in the colonial schooner of that name. The views of the early settlers had been directed principally to agricultural pursuits; but after this time, as it had appeared from the explorations of Governor Stirling and Roe and their followers that a large portion of the interior country was more fitted for pasturage, their attention was turned more especially to that industry, and with this object Drummond and Scully made explorations to the Victoria Plains, as did Henry Lander to the S.E. of Beverley, and in 1843, with H. Maxwell Lefroy, he made an excursion into the Lake district to the E. of York, where their names and discoveries are still perpetuated. During 1847-8 Dr. F. Von Sommer, who, having a reputation for knowledge in natural science, had been taken into the employ of Government, examined and reported on the geology of the Victoria, Moore River, and Avon districts, and the country about Capes Riche and Naturaliste. In the latter year the Surveyor-General, accompanied by Augustus Gregory, started on a journey of exploration to the E. of the Stirling Range. Gregory had just returned from an expedition to the Murchison, on which river he had discovered lead and copper lodes (thus first directing attention to the mineral wealth of the Champion Bay district,) as also the small harbour which bears his name; and on the Irwin River his brother, F. H. Gregory, had found what has since been commonly known as the coal seam, and this with the reports of Von Sommer led to the supposition that there were vast deposits of that mineral extending from the Irwin along the base of the Darling Range. Roe, descending the Palinup, crossed to Cape Riche, and returning on his track to the N.E. reached Bremer Range, whence directing his course to the S. and E., and crossing the sources of the Fitzgerald and Phillips Rivers, he proceeded as far as Russell Range, near Cape Arid, at the western extremity of the Great Australian Bight; and returning to Cape Riche, he found on the middle course of the Phillips, and lower course of the Fitzgerald, deposits similar to those found by Gregory on the Irwin, and in consequence, another discovery of coal was proclaimed. On reaching Cape Riche, he made a direct course to Bunbury and thence to Perth. The same year Helpman and Gregory returned by sea and land to make further examination of the reported coal measures, but the result was not satisfactory. They were again very carefully examined in 1875 by the Rev. C. G. Nicolay, who was sent by the Government for that purpose, but without the least indication of coal measures being perceptible. It will appear from this record that before the year 1850 the coast of W.A., from Sharks Bay to the Great Australian Bight,

had been explored, and a general knowledge obtained of the basins of the rivers from the Moore to the Phillips. The names of the early explorers, by whose labours this knowledge was acquired (and to those given in the above list several more might be added,) should be familiar to those who enjoy the benefits resulting from them. From 1850 exploration has been continued on a more extended scale, in a more systematic method, with more definite ends, at longer intervals, and for the most part by professional surveyors. A. Gregory was occupied during the years 1852 and 1853 in the valleys of the Blackwood and Gordon, and made a short expedition from the Murchison to Sharks Bay. In 1854 surveyor Robert Austin with a large party, including several young volunteers since well known in the colony, left the valley of the Avon, and proceeding E. and N., reached Mount Magnet in the Lake district, nearly 300 miles due E. from the mouth of the Murchison, and thence by a N.W. course entered the upper basins of that river, and (after making vain attempts to reach the Gascoigne, where G. Phillips, with supplies sent by sea, awaited him) was obliged, with much suffering, to return, and with great difficulty reached the river. It was from this journey that some knowledge of the country about the head waters of the Murchison, now being so rapidly taken up for pastoral purposes, was first obtained. F. H. Gregory was on the Murchison in 1857, and the next year traced the courses of the Lyons and Gascoigne rivers to the sea, and by his discoveries, opened an easy route overland to the N.W. coast, along which both sheep and cattle were driven by E. T. Hooley without difficulty in 1865. In 1861 F. H. Gregory, landing with a party at Nickol Bay, explored the valleys of the Fortescue, Ashburton, Shirlock, Yule, and DeGrey rivers as far as Mount Macpherson at the source of the Oakover; this led to the settlement of the N.W. coast, as it is still called. This year also the brothers Dempster made explorations to the E. of Northam, and from the S. coast to the Lake district, in which H. M. Lefroy made a still more extended exploration in 1863, in consequence of which Surveyor Hunt was sent with a party organised for well-digging and to make a road by which cattle might be taken into it. Cook and Clarkson were exploring its northern limits at the same time. In 1864 Austin, with Dr. Martin and others, entered the mouth of the Glenelg and explored the western portion of the basin of that river as Grey had the eastern; and a settlement having been formed at Roebuck Bay, Surveyor James Cowle traversed the country between that place and Nickol Bay. In 1870 Surveyor John Forrest traced the coast from Albany to Eucla, and proceeded from thence to Adelaide, without suffering from want of water as Eyre had done. Of the interior of the country nothing was known as yet beyond the Lake district, but in 1856 A. Gregory, with a party from Q., entered the territory of W.A. from the N.E.,

and found Sturt's Creek in a sandy desert; and reports respecting white men, supposed to relate to Leichhardt and his party, of whose fate nothing is known, having been received from the natives of the Lake district, in 1869 John Forrest extended his search to the eastward of Champion Bay as far as the 123rd meridian, and in 1871 his brother Alexander somewhat further beyond Hampden Plains. In 1872 Surveyor W. C. Gosse attempted to cross from S.A., but was driven back by want of water before reaching the 126th meridian. Warburton however the year following succeeded in reaching the Oakover, the northern branch of the DeGrey River, by the assistance of camels. It was reserved for John Forrest to cross the centre of the colony from the Murchison, and thence to the northern telegraph line of S.A., with the ordinary equipment of a bushman.

WESTERN PORT is a beautiful harbour in V., formed between two islands called Grant and French islands, in rather a remarkable manner: two great bays lie one within the other, the inner being nearly filled up by French Island, whilst the outer is sheltered by Grant Island stretching across it almost from point to point, leaving a wide channel on its west side. The east passage is narrow and fit only for small vessels. On the east shores of Western Port rises a range of woody hills between 500 and 700 feet high. This harbour presents a curious feature, a sort of canal that fronts the east side of Grant Island; its depth varies from six to seven fathoms and the width is half a mile. The most remarkable object is the helmet-shaped headland rising 480 feet above the sea, forming the southern extreme of Grant Island, called Cape Wollamai, discovered and named by Bass, "Western Port," from its relative situation; as from Sydney then it was the westernmost extent of the straits known on the north side. An account of the settlements attempted here in the early days is given in the article "Port Phillip."

WESTPORT, a township in N.Z. at the mouth of the river Buller, on the south-western coast of the province of Nelson. It is the best port for every class of vessel on the west coast of Middle Island, there being deep water always on the bar and easy entrance. The headland of Cape Foulwind lies about ten miles to the westward, the city of Nelson about 140 miles to the N.E., and the town of Greymouth about forty miles S.W. The population of the town is about 1166. The Westport and Mount Rochfort Railway Line is completed specially for bringing coal to the port from the Rochfort and Ngakawhau coal-fields which extend for miles. The Westport Colliery Company has its operations here; the ground they are working is believed to have an almost limitless supply of the fuel which stands, for quality, high among colonial coals. The Government has provided commodious wharves, affording every facility for loading and discharging vessels. Extensive river protective stone works are also in progress.

WHANGAREI HEADS, a headland in N.Z., about seventy-five miles S.E. of Auckland and about fifteen miles by the river from Whangarei township. The harbour of Whangarei is situated about midway between Auckland and the Bay of Islands. On the northern side the land is very mountainous and capped in places with rocky peaks of the most grotesque and fantastic appearance. Especially so are those on the top of the Manaia mountain as seen from the inside of the harbour, which according to the Maori legend represents the old chief Manaia, his wife, and two children turned into stone. The residents are principally Canadians who rear cattle and sheep, and live partly by this occupation and the tillage of their land, and partly by fishing.

WHANGAROA, a township in N.Z., 150 miles N.W. of Auckland, situated on one of the most magnificent harbours in N.Z., whether as regards its anchorage accommodation or the beautiful and picturesque scenery lining its shores. It is approached by a narrow passage of about half a mile in length and opens into magnificent bays, thoroughly land-locked on every side, presenting to the view a wonderful range of varied and beautiful scenery. The harbour is about five miles in length, at the upper end of which is situated the township. This place has had notoriety from being the scene of the massacre in 1809 by the natives of the crew and passengers (sixty-four in number) of the *Boyd*, a large homeward-bound ship that visited the port for a cargo of spars. The vessel was burned to the water's edge, and her remains still lie imbedded in the mud near the upper end of the harbour. A number of the natives who took part in the massacre were killed by the explosion of the gunpowder when the *Boyd* was burning.

WHITSUNDAY PASSAGE lies on the N.E. coast of the continent, and was so named from its having been discovered by Captain Cook on Whitsunday 1770. The islands which form it to the E. were named Cumberland Islands in honour of the Duke of Cumberland.

WICKHAM RIVER, in Q., was discovered by Leichhardt. It is a branch of the Limmen Bight River, and was named in honour of Captain Wickham, the successful explorer of the N.W. coast of A.

WIDE BAY, a deep indentation on the coast of Q. to the N. of Moreton Bay. A river empties its waters into this beautiful bay called the Mary, after Lady Mary Fitzroy. The capital of the district is Maryborough, and the Gympie gold-mines are not far distant from the shores of the bay.

WIGHT POINT, on the south coast of V., was discovered by Grant in 1800, and was named from its fancied resemblance to a point in the Isle of Wight, England.

WIGHT'S LAND is that portion of V. lying between Cape Danger and Cape Paton in the

district of Portland Bay. It was named by Grant in honour of Captain Wight R.N., son-in-law to Commissioner Schank.

WILLIAMS, SIR EDWARD EYRE (—1880) jurist, a native of England, was admitted to the bar in England in 1833, and shortly after the foundation of Port Phillip came to the colony. For ten years he practised his profession in Melbourne, having as contemporaries two gentlemen who subsequently became his colleagues on the bench, Sir William F. Stawell and Sir Redmond Barry. In 1844 Williams was elected a member of the Bourke District Council—a local body constituted under the N.S.W. Act, 5th and 6th Vic. c. 76—with which he remained connected for some seven or eight years. On the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. Williams thought of obtaining an elective seat in the Legislative Council of V. With that view he solicited the suffrages of the electors of the Loddon district, but his efforts to obtain a seat did not extend beyond the publication of an address. Probably a reason for this may be found in the fact that in the list of official appointments rendered necessary by the realisation of Victorian independence, and published on 15th July 1851, the name of Williams appeared as Commissioner of the Court of Requests for the city of Melbourne and the County of Bourke. In January 1852 he was created Chairman of Quarter Sessions. This appointment he held in conjunction with that of Commissioner of the Court of Requests, but he was not debarred thereby from continuing practice in the Supreme Court of which he appears to have had at that time the lion's share. In April 1852 he took office as Solicitor-General, by virtue of which position he became a nominee member of the Legislative Council; but the time during which he was permitted to enjoy these honours was too short to enable him to leave any mark on the legislation of the country. A greater distinction awaited him. The increase of business in the Supreme Court rendered the appointment of a third judge an imperative necessity. The honour was conferred on Williams, of whom nothing was afterwards heard in public life save in connection with his judicial duties. Early in 1859 having obtained leave of absence, he visited England and returned in 1861. From that date till 1874 he continued to act as judge of the Supreme Court. For some years before that he had not been in very good health, and in the early part of 1874 his medical advisers recommended that he should immediately retire from the bench. He accordingly forwarded his resignation to the Government which was accepted. On the day when he last presided in the Supreme Court there was a large attendance of the members of the bar, and on their behalf the Attorney-General, J. W. Stephen, expressed regret on account of his Honour's retirement, and referred to the courtesy with which he had treated all the members of the profession. Judge Williams shortly afterwards left the colony for

England. In 1878 he was created a Knight Bachelor in recognition of the services he had rendered to the colony in the various public positions that he had filled. As judge, Williams was patient and assiduous, and his intimate knowledge of that branch of the law known as pleading was especially recognised by those who practised before him.

WILLIAMS, HARTLEY (1841—) jurist, is a native of V., and son of Sir E. E. Williams, late Supreme Court Judge. He was educated in England, took the degree of B.A. at Trinity College, Oxford, and was called to the bar in the Inner Temple in April 1867. In the same year he returned to V. and was admitted a barrister of the Supreme Court on 4th April 1868, his admission being moved by Mr. Ireland Q.C. The number of what are known in the profession as common law pleaders at the bar was at that time, owing to a variety of circumstances, limited. Williams had devoted himself as a student to this branch of the law, and his ability in this respect was speedily recognised. Briefs began to pour rapidly in upon him. He took no part in public life till the year 1872, when he became a member of an education league, whose objects were to establish free secular and compulsory education. This league ceased to exist when the present Education Act became law. In 1874 the Francis Government proposed a measure for altering the constitution under which the Government of the country had previously been carried on. This bill was popularly known as the Norwegian Scheme. It was not generally accepted by the Constitutional party, and at the invitation of a number of electors Williams decided to oppose the then Attorney-General (J. W. Stephen.) Stephen's popularity in connection with the Education Act however was such that numbers who did not believe in the constitutional alterations proposed by the Government voted for the Attorney-General, and Williams was defeated by a large majority. Shortly afterwards Mr. Justice Williams retired from the bench, and the office of Supreme Court judge was conferred on Stephen. This left a vacancy in the representation of St. Kilda in the Assembly, and again Williams was brought forward to contest it. Webb also determined to stand for the seat, and as no arrangement could be arrived at by the friends of these candidates for the retirement of one of them, the result was that E. J. Dixon was elected. After 1874 Williams took no part in politics, though he had been asked several times by different parties to allow himself to be nominated for election. In 1881 he was appointed a Supreme Court Judge. This appointment of a native of the colony to the Judicial Bench gave universal satisfaction to the Victorian people.

WILLIAMS, THOMAS (1815—) Wesleyan Minister, was one of the first seven ministers elected to commence the Fiji Mission. On reaching the South Seas he divided his time between Lakemba and Somosomo, and then opened the

mission at Mbua, where he had considerable success. In 1854 he left Fiji and went to Adelaide, where he remained until he left for V. in 1857. In 1858 he published an illustrated book on *Fiji and the Fijians*. At the Australian Wesleyan Conference held in Melbourne in January 1872, he was nominated president for 1873. His nomination was confirmed by the British Conference; and that over which he presided was remarkable as being the last of its kind embracing the whole of the colonies, N.Z. and the South Sea Islands; provision having since been made for holding annual conferences in N.S.W. and Q., V. and T., N.Z. and W.A., and one triennial conference including all.

WILLIAMS, WILLIAM (1800—) Bishop of Waiapu in N.Z., is a native of England, and was educated at Magdalen Hall, Oxford, where he graduated B.A. in 1824, and D.C.L. in 1851. He became Archdeacon of Waiapu in 1842, and was consecrated Bishop in 1859. He has compiled a *Dictionary of the N.Z. Language*, and has written *Christianity among the New Zealanders*.

WILLIAMSTOWN, a port and municipality in V., on the S. point of estuary of the Yarra Yarra River and S.W. shore of Hobson's Bay, immediately opposite Sandridge, eight miles from Melbourne. Like Sandridge, the business of the place is principally with the shipping. There are commodions piers, alongside of which ships of the largest burden can be berthed; there is also ample provision for the repairs of vessels, there being patent slips and ship-building yards. The P. and O. mail steamers berth here. The Alfred Graving Dock, which was several years in construction, was opened in March 1874, H.M.S. *Nelson* being the first vessel to enter it. The dock is 450 feet long, but will admit vessels of 500 feet. The caisson, in the construction of which over 230 tons of ironwork were used, was manufactured at Fulton's foundry. At the extreme end of the peninsula on which Williamstown is situated, called Gellibrand's Point, is a tower formerly used for lighting vessels coming up the bay at night, but which has been superseded by a light ship, placed about a mile and a-half farther down the bay. There is also a line of batteries mounted with heavy guns, extending from the breakwater along the shore facing St. Kilda. Several quarries of superior basalt are worked within a short distance of the town. The population of the town is 8300.

WILLIS, JOHN WALPOLE (— 1877) first Resident Judge of the Port Phillip district, was a son of the well-known Dr. Willis, who attended George III. in his illness, and was celebrated for his skill in treating the insane. Willis was a man of eccentric character, and when he opened the Supreme Court at Melbourne in 1841 he intimated that he would insist upon the attendance of justices of the peace at all future sittings of the Supreme Court in its criminal jurisdiction. He did this that they might learn something of their

judicial duties; the magistrates not attending as suggested he threatened to fine them and have their names struck off the Commission, and have others appointed in their stead. In this manner the Judge proceeded until he aroused a strong feeling of indignation against himself amongst the gentry of the district, which ultimately led to his removal from the Bench in 1843.

WILSON, EDWARD (1814-1878) journalist, was a native of London, and came to Melbourne in 1842. He at first engaged in cattle grazing in partnership with J. S. Johnston, but his disposition was strongly towards journalism. His first contributions to the Press were a series of letters criticising the administration of La Trobe. In 1847 he purchased the *Argus* newspaper, and also the *Port Phillip Patriot*, which was merged into the former. In 1852 he also purchased the *Melbourne Daily News*, which was similarly merged in the *Argus*. That journal thus became the leading paper in V., and as Wilson warmly advocated the rights of the people as against the blundering maladministration of La Trobe, and the independence of the colony against the tyranny of N.S.W. and the despotism of Downing-street, his journal became a very powerful organ. When the gold discoveries caused the great influx of population in 1852-54, and the social condition of the colony became thoroughly disorganised, Wilson fought energetically on the side of good government, law and order. The difficulties experienced in carrying on the paper from day to day were almost insurmountable, but Wilson's unflagging energy carried him safely through all his troubles. For nearly twelve months the *Argus*, as to its literary department, was sustained by the united exertions of Wilson and David Blair; and in the mechanical department by the unwearied diligence of Josiah Frencham. It is almost incredible the amount of personal labour, self-devotion and energy which Wilson exhibited while carrying the journal through this critical period. He was foremost in the great movement for the separation of Port Phillip and its erection into an independent colony. He was an ardent advocate of the anti-transportation movement. He was one of the framers of the Convicts Prevention Act, and to him more than to any other man it was owing that this most beneficial measure was placed upon the Statute Book, despite the strenuous opposition of the local Government and the repeated refusals of Downing-street. Wilson carried to an extreme length his uncompromising denunciations of the feeble and vacillating and most mischievous policy of La Trobe. He was equally severe in his condemnation of the tyranny exercised both by La Trobe and Hotham towards the miners, and his powerful writing in the *Argus* was certainly a strong incentive to the course of action which culminated in the Ballarat revolt. But when the riots actually broke out Wilson as strongly supported the Governor in his measures to restore peace and order. This change of front

was the turning point in Wilson's political career and the fortunes of the *Argus*. But prior to this time Wilson had always been the zealous advocate of the popular interests against the petty despotism of the Government and the monopoly of the dominant section. He was incessant in his demands for the introduction of a popular land system, and for the overthrow of the squatting monopoly. He it was who formulated the popular demand in the famous watchword, "Unlock the lands!" It may be said of him that there never was in any British colony at any period a more thoroughly disinterested, patriotic, high-minded journalist, or one of greater earnestness of purpose and energy of character. But this character of Wilson applies to his career prior to the era of the Ballarat riots. At that point he ceased to be a leader of the people, or even an effective journalist; he probably felt that his work was in that line accomplished. But in the meanwhile the character of the *Argus* as a political organ had been completely changed. It was now the organ of the rapidly-developing trade and commerce of the colony, the exponent of the free-trade principles, and the determined foe of everything that savoured of Radical principles. Its success as a commercial enterprise was assured, and in a few years Wilson and his fellow-proprietors became very wealthy men. In 1857 Wilson visited England; his health was declining and his sight was failing. He established and superintended the London agency of the *Argus*, the supervision of which he maintained with some intervals till his death. He returned to the colony in a year or two, and travelled through the continent and the adjacent island-colonies, embodying the result of his observations in letters to the *Argus*, which were subsequently published in a small volume. He purchased the estate of Hayes in Kent, where he chiefly passed the last years of his life, taking an active interest in all matters relating to the progress of the Australian Colonies, and favourably influencing by his writings and personal advocacy the action of the Colonial Office. Wilson was a genuine philanthropist, a man of large and liberal views, possessed of great abilities for suggesting and advocating measures of social and political improvement; but he was wanting, from personal temperament, in the faculty of directing and guiding others. He was never married, and at his death he bequeathed much of his private fortune to purposes of private benevolence and public charity.

WILSON, JOHN BOWIE (1820—) is a native of Scotland, and was educated at the Edinburgh and Aberdeen Universities. He arrived in A. in June 1840. He first entered the Parliament of N.S.W. in the session of 1859, representing the southern goldfields; was afterwards elected for Patrick's Plains, and subsequently for East Sydney. He first accepted office in the Martin Ministry as Secretary for Lands in October 1863, and retired with that Government in February 1865. Wilson

again accepted office in the Martin Ministry in January 1866, retiring in October 1868. For the third time he accepted the portfolio of the Lands Department in the Martin Ministry in December 1870, and retired when Martin went out of office in 1872. Wilson distinguished himself by his successful efforts to secure to the people of Sydney extensive parks and recreation grounds, and voted for the abolition of State-aid to religion. During his administration of the Lands Department great improvements were made in the Sydney Domain and in Hyde Park.

WILSON, SIR SAMUEL (1832—) is a native of the North of Ireland, and came to V. in 1852. He worked for some time as a miner at Bendigo, and had some success. At that time his brothers had a sheep station on the Wimmera. Wilson joined them, and was given the management of Kewell station, with 20,000 sheep. Having obtained a knowledge of sheep-farming, he sold a small estate in Ireland and joined his brothers in the purchase of Longerenong on the Wimmera for £40,000. This purchase was so successful that in about four years the profits paid for the station. Afterwards the Yanko station on the Murrumbidgee was bought, and in a few years so improved that the clip of a single year exceeded the original purchase money. He next bought the Ercildoune estate, celebrated for its breed of merinos. He extended his operations to the Darling district in N.S.W. and Peak Downs in Q., and still further W. in that colony, where he holds large cattle stations. He was twice elected a member of the Legislative Assembly for the Wimmera, and since 1875 has represented the Western Province in the Upper House of Legislature. He has devoted £1000 to the introduction of salmon into Victorian waters. He has also been successful in introducing the Californian salmon, and in the introduction by him of sea fish into the salt waters of Lake Corangamite. He has written a work on the Angora goat and a paper on ostrich farming. In 1874 he presented the University of Melbourne with a donation amounting with accumulated interest to about £36,000. In 1875 he was knighted, as an acknowledgment of the services rendered to the colony.

WILSON'S PROMONTORY, the most southern point of land in V. or in Australia. It consists of a mass of granite rock, twenty-four miles in length by nine miles wide, connected with the mainland by a narrow sandy isthmus. It contains several mountains of considerable height, the highest of which, Mount Latrobe, attains an elevation of 2590 feet. The bases of these mountains, and nearly the whole of the promontory, are covered with timber, some of which grows to a considerable size. There are several bays on the coast, the principal of which is Waterloo Bay in the S.E. The cliffs are however rocky and precipitous, and these bays are only available in calm weather. There are numerous rocky islets lying off the

coast. There is a lighthouse, burning a fixed white light, at the extreme S. point of the promontory. To the N., and lying between the promontory and the mainland, is the large harbour called Corner Inlet, the entrance to which is by a narrow channel between Mount Singapore in the N.E. of the promontory, and Snake Island. The promontory was seen and named by Grant in 1800 after Admiral Wilson.

WINDEYER, RICHARD (1806-1847) jurist, was a native of London, and began life in England as a writer and parliamentary reporter for the *Morning Chronicle*, *Times*, and other London papers. He originated Todd's *Parliamentary Companion*, and as a friend of Colonel Peronett Thomson took part in the first agitation against the Corn Laws. He was admitted a barrister of the Middle Temple in 1834, and on the death of Dr. Wardell and the retirement of Wentworth from the Sydney bar he emigrated to N.S.W. with the intention of permanent settlement. He arrived in Sydney in 1835 and became a leading barrister. He was elected to the first Legislative Council as member for Durham in 1843. He took an active part as a member of the popular party in its struggles for political freedom and was the intimate associate of Wentworth, Bland, Lowe and Dr. Lang. He contested at law the right of the Government to enforce the payment of quit-rents, and suffered an execution to be put into his house in his resistance. Windeyer was prominent in questions of financial and educational interest, and from his unflinching advocacy of retrenchment was regarded as the Joseph Hume of the party. He introduced the present Libel Act and other measures, and was the writer of the *Monetary Confusion Report* of 1843.

WINDEYER, WILLIAM CHARLES (1834—) jurist, is a native of London, and came to N.S.W. with his parents in 1835. He was educated at Cape's School, and at the King's School in Parramatta. He entered the University of Sydney in its opening in 1852, and immediately took a general scholarship and afterwards a special scholarship for proficiency in classics. He won every year the English essay prize first given by Dr. Woolley and afterwards founded by Wentworth as a medal. He graduated with distinction in Classics at the head of his year in 1856, taking also a first class in Mental Philosophy, and is the senior of all Australian graduates, having taken the degree of M.A. in 1859. He studied for the Bar in the Chambers of Broadhurst, Q.C., and was admitted in March 1857. He became a writer and law reporter for the *Empire* newspaper, then conducted by Parkes. He was appointed Crown Prosecutor for the whole of the country districts in January 1859. At the call of a public meeting Windeyer resigned his Crown Prosecutorship and contested the electorate of Paddington with Sir D. Cooper, who defeated him by forty-seven votes. At the same general election

he was elected for the Lower Hunter, defeating the former Member, Captain Williamson, by a large majority. He was elected to Parliament in August 1859, as a Member of the first House returned under the Electoral Act of 1858. Windeyer advocated the abolition of State-aid to religion, the limitation of Chinese Immigration, and the introduction of the Free Selection principle. On the dissolution of Parliament in 1860, he was elected for West Sydney. In 1860 he initiated the volunteer movement by calling a public meeting at the Victoria Theatre at which resolutions favourable to its formation were passed; and was afterwards elected Captain in the Force, and gazetted Major in 1868. He was wrecked in the *City of Sydney* whilst returning from Melbourne, where he had shot as one of the champion team of N.S.W., and falling into ill-health resigned his seat for West Sydney. In January 1866 he was against his wishes, and in his absence from Sydney, elected for West Sydney, defeating John Robertson on his seeking re-election when taking office as Secretary for Lands. He became a supporter of the Martin-Parkes Administration, and warmly advocated the Public Schools Act of 1866. Having declined six overtures of office made to him by Cowper, Plunkett, Forster and Sir J. Robertson, on the formation of different administrations, he accepted office as Solicitor-General under Sir James Martin in December 1870. He was defeated for West Sydney on the dissolution of Parliament in 1872; but was elected the first member for the University of Sydney in September 1876. He accepted office as Attorney-General in the administration of Sir H. Parkes in March 1877, and was again elected without opposition as member for the University. He resigned office in August 1877, and was again elected for the University without opposition on the dissolution of Parliament in 1878. He took office again as Attorney-General in the coalition Government of Parkes and Robertson in December 1878. He was elected a member of the University Senate at the first convocation in 1865, and as a Senator carried resolutions on which the public examinations of the University were established. In 1878 he carried a resolution in the Assembly for the establishment of Grammar Schools in Bathurst, Maitland and Goulburn, and the founding of the Public Exhibitions enabling poor but clever boys to proceed from the Public Schools to the Grammar Schools, and thence to the University, and also carried resolutions affirming the justice of extending the advantages of higher education to girls, and the expediency of founding a Girls High School in Sydney. He was elected a trustee of the Sydney Grammar School in 1873, and President of the Sydney Mechanics' School of Arts, in 1874. He was President and drew up the report of the Public Charities Commission in 1873, and took an active part as a member of the Commission appointed to revise the Criminal Law in 1870.

He introduced the Act enabling members of the Australian Bar to hold the judicial office, the Carriers Act, the Married Women's Property Act, and the Copyright Act. In 1862 he moved resolutions in the Assembly preserving Belmore Park, Church Hill, and Flagstaff Hill, as reserves for public recreation, when the first was advertised for sale by the Government; and in 1878 he moved a similar resolution with regard to Clarke, Rodd and Schnapper Islands, and all the land at the head of Long Bay, on the destruction of timber on Clarke Island being commenced. In 1874 he originated the Discharged Prisoners' Aid Society, and in 1876 was appointed an Acting Judge of the Supreme Court for two circuits.

WINDSOR, a township in N.S.W. on the Hawkesbury river, thirty-four miles N.W. from Sydney, with which it is connected by railway. It was proclaimed a municipality in March 1871. It is one of the oldest settled places in the colony, and but for the frequency of the floods in the district would hold a much higher position than it now does. The town itself is built on a hill and is therefore not much affected by the floods that occasionally sweep over the district. The soil is of unrivalled fertility and produces the cereals and other farm products to perfection. The population is estimated at 1732. The Windsor bridge, built on iron cylinders and spanning the river Hawkesbury, is a fine substantial work.

WINE GROWING IN AUSTRALIA.—I. M. Peron, naturalist and historian of Baudin's expedition in 1802, makes the following remarks:—"By one of those chances that are scarcely conceivable Great Britain is the only one of the great maritime powers which does not cultivate the vine, either in her own territory or in her colonies; and yet the consumption of that beverage is immense on board her fleets, and throughout the whole extent of the vast regions subject to her empire. Constrained to draw that enormous quantity of alcoholic liquors from France, from Spain, from Portugal, and even from Holland, she sees with regret a large portion of the capital of the nation annually absorbed in purchases of this kind, and ardently aspires for the means of freeing herself from this burdensome tribute. It was principally with this view that during last war she attempted the conquest of the Canary Isles; and this was one of the great motives that determined her twice to attack the Cape of Hope. That which she has been unable to obtain, or which, if she does obtain it, it will only be momentarily by the force of her arms, she solicits and hopes for from her Australian Colonies; and in spite of the obstacles I have just mentioned, everything announces that she will obtain her end." Whether M. Peron's historical deduction, that it was the desire of Great Britain to obtain a supply of wine for her fleets and armies, that induced her to contemplate the conquest of the Canary Isles and of the Cape of Good Hope, it was certainly a remarkable instance

of the foresight of that gentleman to predict with confidence so long as half a century ago that the British colonies in A. would eventually become wine-growing countries. The first to introduce this article into A. was Macarthur, to whom the establishment of the great wool-growing industry of A. is also to be attributed. In 1816 he established the almost equally profitable pursuit of vine-growing. Having visited France in 1815 he acquired information as to the rural economy of the provinces of Southern Europe, particularly as regards the cultivation of the vine and olive. He collected cuttings from the most celebrated vineyards of Burgundy, Champagne, and Languedoc, as well as olive trees of the finest varieties, and planted the first Australian vineyard in his estate at Camden Park. Australian wine soon became favourably known, and, says Therry, "at the great exhibition in Paris in 1851 wine made from the muscat grape of Camden ranked high among the best wines of the continent." It is stated that some Greek prisoners assigned to Macarthur at Camden were the first to produce this important article of commerce. In 1823 several vineyards were planted in N.S.W. In 1831 wine grown and made by Mr. Hawkins at Bathurst was sold at Sydney. Dr. Lang, writing in 1852, says:—"The district of Hunter's River has taken the lead in this branch of cultivation. There has been a Vineyard Association in that district for years past, which has proved very serviceable, not only to the district, but to the colony generally, and the success of which has recently called into existence another association of a more ambitious character for the whole colony, which has its head-quarters in Sydney; the Hunter's River Vineyard Association holding its meetings annually in the provincial town of Maitland. At these meetings papers—sometimes of superior ability—on vine cultivation and wine making are read, reports are received from the different members, specimens of wine and brandy are examined and tested, and premiums are adjudged, the whole proceedings being duly reported in the provincial papers. The County of Durham, which is situated on the left bank of the Hunter, and which includes the trap country of the Patterson and William's Rivers, is the principal seat of this branch of colonial industry. The following is a statement of the produce of the three principal Hunter's River counties, as compared with that of the metropolitan County of Cumberland:—Cumberland, 303½ acres of vines, yielding 19,710 gallons wine, 388 gallons brandy; Durham, on left bank of Hunter, 205½ acres of vines, yielding 34,148 gallons wine, 660 gallons brandy; Northumberland, on right bank of Hunter, 151½ acres of vines, yielding 16,299 gallons wine, 450 gallons brandy; Gloucester, on left bank of William, 104½ acres of vines, yielding 9071 gallons wine. Cumberland being the metropolitan county of the colony, a larger proportion of the grapes grown in that county may find their way to the Sydney

market, for the supply of the capital; but as there is daily steam communication between Sydney and Hunter's River, perhaps as large a quantity may be disposed of in the same way from that district. It is the character of the soil however that constitutes the chief ground of difference, the sandstone formation of the county of Cumberland being much less favourable for the growth of the vine, and especially for the production of wine, than the trap formation of Hunter's River. My brother, Andrew Lang, whose estate abuts both upon the Hunter and the Patterson, where both of these rivers are large navigable streams, obtained from the Horticultural Society of Sydney, of which he was a member, the prize—a silver cup—for the best grapes produced in the colony two or three years in succession; which proves sufficiently that the soil and climate of Hunter's River are admirably adapted to the growth of the vine. My brother's vineyard, which has acquired some celebrity in the colony from the extraordinary results it has exhibited, not only as compared with those of other vine-growing countries, but with those even of N.S.W. generally, is situated on the banks of the Patterson River, and consists of about eight acres. It was planned and formed by George Schmid, a highly intelligent Wirtemburger, from the neighbourhood of Stuttgart, who still superintends it. The soil consists entirely of rich alluvial land which has been deposited from the inundations of the river in the course of many successive ages; and as the country through which the river flows is a trap country, the general basis of the soil is decomposed trap. In regard to the average produce of the vine in other vine-growing countries I am not possessed of the requisite information to speak confidently. James Busby, a highly respectable colonist, who has written on the subject, and who had previously travelled in the South of Europe to make inquiries respecting the cultivation of the vine and to procure a number of valuable cuttings for the colony from the best vineyards of France and Spain, states that in France the vintage yields on an average 247 gallons per acre; and adds that W. Macarthur's produce had one year been 250 gallons, although a considerably larger quantity was expected in future. Clement Hodgkinson however thinks Busby's estimate much too low an average for the central and western portions of France, in which he had himself resided. The Spanish vineyards around Xeres, where the wine called 'Sherry' is made, yield it seems from 300 to 800 gallons per acre; and Hodgkinson assumes 400 gallons as a fair average for N.S.W. In a published letter to Earl Grey, of date 26th September 1849, by James King, of Irrawang, William's River, one of the ablest and most successful cultivators of the vine in N.S.W., that gentleman observes:—"As to the quantity, I may mention that under ordinary circumstances the produce of the vines whence my red wine has been made averages from 250 to 300 gallons per

acre, that of those producing the white from 400 to 500 gallons per acre.' The following however has been the produce of three different varieties of wine in my brother's vineyard:—One acre of Black Cluster or Burgundy has produced 500 gallons the first year of bearing, 500 the second, and 400 the third. The Lambrusquat or Black Spanish grape has produced 800 gallons per acre. In regard to the third variety, the Black Hamburg grape, I quote the following passage from King's letter to Earl Grey:—'It may not be uninteresting for your Lordship to learn that Mr. Lang's vineyard here, on the Patterson, has this year (1849) produced 1800 gallons of wine and a ton weight of fruit besides from a single acre of that variety of grape called Black Hamburg.' The formation of a wine-growing population in a country whose inhabitants have not been previously accustomed to the culture of the vine, is a matter of no small difficulty; and from what had actually taken place in this respect in the colony of the Cape of Good Hope, a few of the more respectable colonists, including my brother—whose unsuccessful attempt to introduce a colony of German vine-dressers I have already related—were led to believe that the introduction of a number of families from one of the winegrowing districts in the south of Europe and their settlement in some favourable locality in the colony would tend more than anything else to form such a population in N.S.W. A few families, both of Portuguese from Madeira, and of Germans from the Rhine, have accordingly been at different times introduced into the colony, and their influence has certainly been in so far favourable." In his letter to Earl Grey Mr. King writes:—"In August 1832 and the following year I planted in this colony an experimental vineyard, of a few acres extent, with vine cuttings of the most approved varieties which I could then procure, consisting of about 6000 plants. The soil (the debris of pudding stone and porphyry,) was trenched, broken, and turned over with the spade to not less than thirty inches deep. The vines grew vigorously; some of them produced fruit abundantly; and all now in the vineyard are in good health. I rooted up such varieties as did not perfect their fruit or were in any way liable materially to be injured by the peculiarities or vicissitudes of the climate. I planted in 1834 a greater variety of sorts, many of which had shortly before been imported into this country from France by Mr. Busby to whom the colony is consequently much indebted. When they came into bearing, I was thereby enabled to select those particular varieties which appeared to be best suited for this climate, as many of the kinds were unfit for cultivation in the colony, at least in this part of it. The sorts so selected were planted more extensively; and the samples of wine now submitted to your lordship's examination are the result. The process followed in the manufacture of the wine is so simple that it need scarcely be mentioned; besides it would only be troubling

your lordship with irksome detail, unnecessary in the present communication. The first wine produced by this vineyard was in February 1836 from plants then only eighteen months old. A better wine has not been produced since. A few bottles of it are yet in my cellar, now upwards of thirteen years old. Up to the present time it has continued to improve in quality, and is now a very superior high-flavoured red wine, resembling first-growth Burgundy, which good judges of wine say would command a high price even in London or Paris. Mr. Busby's valuable importation, consisting of some hundred varieties of grape, many of them only two cuttings of a sort, arrived here in such excellent preservation that they nearly all grew on being planted in the colony, while a case of fifty cuttings each, of a few of the most select German varieties of grape, which I afterwards imported from Frankfort on the Maine, all perished during the voyage to this country. From the experience thus acquired as to the capabilities of this colony for the production of wine, I have no hesitation in predicting that N.S.W. will yet become a wine-growing country on a very extensive scale, and be enabled profitably to export its vinous product all over the world. Even the time required for its transit from here to Britain, or to any other distant market is less a consideration than with any other species of merchandise, since wine will be improving on the voyage, and even more rapidly on ship-board than in the cellar. The soil and climate of this colony are calculated to produce wine of superior quality, and that to an almost unlimited extent." The following is a translated extract from a letter to Mr. King from the celebrated Professor Liebig, of Giessen, to whose scientific researches the science of agricultural chemistry is so highly indebted.

"Giessen, 1st November 1849.

"Dear Sir—It is a long time since my thanks are due to you for your friendly letter, which has afforded me the more pleasure, as I have learnt from it that even in the remote part of the world which you inhabit, the scientific principles of agriculture and of the cultivation of the vine, have met with reception and extension. I wish that all English colonies had the good fortune of possessing men like yourself; for then the mode of extracting sugar for instance, would soon be carried to that degree of perfection from which it is so remote in Jamaica and elsewhere. Since the time that our producers of wine have convinced themselves that the best wine in France (the Bordeaux wine or Claret) is obtained by fermentation in conjunction with the admission of atmospheric air—since that time, our wine producers on the Rhine have bestowed on open fermentation that attention which it merits. Everywhere the syphon has disappeared; and in many places the wine is allowed to ferment in casks in which an opening of six inches square is cut—apertures which, during fermentation, are lightly covered with a coarse cloth. It has been experienced that

these wines retain more sweetness and are sooner fit for drinking. I have heard from Dr. Dieffenbach, who spent two years in N.Z. and now resides at Giessen, that he has visited your estate, and that the wine which you cultivate possesses an excellent quality. If it were not so far I would request you to send me a bottle to analyse, even on account of the great singularity. I should wish to taste the wine cultivated by our antipodes. Science and your country are indebted to you for the ardent zeal with which you have devoted yourself to its true advancement. Sooner or later this must bring forth the best of fruit. Do not allow yourself to be deterred by the opposition you meet with; for a newly-discovered truth has ever to contend with old-established errors; but truth at last obtains the victory.

"With the expression of the greatest regard,

"Entirely yours,

(Signed)

"DR. JUST. LIEBIG."

In June 1828 Gregory Blaxland, whilst on a visit to England, was presented with the Gold Ceres Medal by the Society of Arts, London, for wine the produce of his vineyard in N.S.W. In 1846 some of the produce of the Macarthur's vineyard was sold at Calcutta, being the first appearance of that new Australian export in that market. In 1860 Mr. Blake introduced N.S.W. wine into V. In November 1875 the first real champagne made in A. was exhibited at Fallon's cellars at Albury. The extent of land under vines in N.S.W. in 1879 was 4266 acres, and the total produce 733,576 gallons.

II. WINE GROWING IN VICTORIA.—In 1846 vineyards began to be formed in the Geelong district by French settlers, amongst whom the name of Belperroud is celebrated. In 1849 a number of German settlers came to the same district and began the cultivation of the vine. Several of them formed themselves into associations and carried on the cultivation on the co-operative principle with much success, but many circumstances combined prevented for a time their rapid development and extension. In 1856 there were only 279 acres under the vine in V., from which 11,000 gallons of wine and 340 gallons of brandy were obtained. In 1860 there were 1138 acres, which five years later, in 1865, had increased nearly four-fold, viz., to 4078 acres, on which 8,199,618 vines had been planted, producing 176,959 gallons of wine and 795 gallons of brandy, as well as 18,063 cwt. of grapes sold as fruit. It is worthy of remembrance as a fact, in the early history of this important colonial product, that the well-known poet, R. H. Horne, planted with his own hand the greater portion of the vine cuttings at Tabilk vineyard on the Goulburn. Westgarth mentions that J. P. Bear was one of the earliest wine producers in the colony, and in 1847 presented him with some bottles of still champagne which were of excellent quality. The Murray district had by 1862 become a scene of yearly vintages, and in conjunction with the

district of the Murrumbidgee has commenced the methodical plan of public auctions of the wine produce. The first of these auctions took place at the town of Albury, in November 1863, when ten and a-half hogsheads were sold at prices varying from 5s. to 13s. per gallon. In Geelong also regular auction sales began to be held in 1863. The first sale came off in October, with the encouragement of a good attendance, and the comparatively large stock of one hundred hogsheads of wine. The prices of the occasion varied from 3s. 11d. to 6s. 9d. per gallon, showing the advantage of the Albury market due to its distance from the seaports, and the competition of imported wines. During the last fifteen years the progress of this industry in V. has been very great. The produce of the vineyards at Lilydale, Sunbury, Tabilk, the Great Western and other localities are fast rising into celebrity, and a large export trade is springing up. There were in 1879 4284 acres under vines in the colony which produced 574,143 gallons. The fame of the Victorian wines was crowned by the circumstance that, at the Melbourne International Exhibition of 1881, the grand prize of the Emperor of Germany for the most striking exhibit of developed native industry was awarded to Messrs. De Castella and Rowan of the Saint Hubert's Vineyard, Lilydale, for their samples of Victorian wines.

III. SOUTH AUSTRALIA.—The extent and success of vine-growing in S.A. is due, in a great measure, to a considerable immigration of the Germans, who began to arrive in the colony at an early period of its history. The suitability of the soil and climate to the growth of wine was soon discovered by the early settlers, some of whom had brought from Europe a variety of high-class vine-cuttings. The slopes of the hills produce wines of a full-bodied character similar to those of Spain and Portugal, whilst those made in the more elevated districts resemble the lighter wines of the Rhine. Whilst the local demand is fully supplied at very cheap rates, a considerable export trade in wines of a higher character is carried on. In 1862 the quantity shipped was 20,574 gallons, or sevenfold that of the previous year. In 1863 it was 27,705 gallons. The acreage under vines is returned as 4777 acres, against 3918 in the previous season, and the number of bearing vines, 2,929,756, with 2,920,941 not in bearing. The former produced 472,797 gallons of wine, and 26,551 cwt. of grapes were disposed of in Adelaide or sent to Melbourne and T. So abundant are grapes that they are retailed during the height of the season at one penny or twopence per pound. There were in 1875, 5050 acres of land devoted to this purpose, the total number of vines being 5,155,988, of which 4,874,507 are in bearing. The produce of these vineyards for the year ended March 1875 was 648,186 gallons of wine, about 130 gallons per acre. That the wines of S.A. are, as a rule, of a high character, is proved by the fact that they have always been awarded prizes at the several Great

International Exhibitions. The extent of land under culture of vines in 1879 was 4117 acres, and the produce 459,468 gallons. Q. has not yet made much progress in vine culture. In 1879 there were 743 acres under vines, producing 104,674 gallons.

WISDOM, ROBERT (1830—) jurist, is a native of England, and arrived with his parents in N.S.W. in 1834. He was educated at Maitland and at the Sydney College. He studied for the Bar and was admitted in 1861. He entered Parliament in 1859 for the Western Goldfields, being the first member for that electorate, after the passing of the Act to give representatives to gold-diggers, having for this purpose resigned his office of Gold Commissioner (which he had held only for a few months) in response to a numerously signed requisition. Wisdom has been continuously a member of the Legislative Assembly except during one Parliament. He represented the Western Goldfields in two Parliaments, the Lower Hunter in two Parliaments, and also the Northern Goldfields. He was for a short time Crown Prosecutor, but in response to a requisition he resigned in 1874 for the purpose of contesting the election for Morpeth, which he twice represented, being at the latter election returned unopposed. He held the office of Chairman of Committees in the Assembly for nearly four years. In the formation of Cabinets the offer of portfolios as Attorney-General, Minister for Justice, Minister for Lands, Minister for Works, and Colonial Treasurer were made to Mr. Wisdom on six occasions, but he persistently refused acceptance, preferring independence and attention to the duties of his profession to the position of a Minister of the Crown. He was proposed for the Speakership of the House, but was defeated by one vote by Sir G. Wigram Allen. In 1878 he was appointed a member of the Council of Education. Wisdom joined the Parkes Ministry as Attorney-General in 1879.

WISE, EDWARD (1818—1865) jurist, was a native of the Isle of Wight and was educated at Rugby Grammar School. He studied for the Bar and was called in 1844. He travelled the Western Circuit for several years, during which time he edited the Law Reports of the Court of Queen's Bench and a work on the Law of Riots and on Bankruptcy. He came to Sydney in 1855; was appointed Solicitor-General in 1857, Attorney-General in 1859, and in February 1860 was made a Judge of the Supreme Court. His health giving way he went in September 1865 for change to Melbourne, but too late to benefit by it. Wise was an earnest promoter of the diffusion of literature amongst the working classes. He presented his valuable collection of books to the Sydney Free Public Library.

WOLLONGONG, a seaport town in N.S.W., on the coast of Illawarra, ranks in tonnage and number of shipping the third seaport of the colony. It is distant sixty-four miles S. of Sydney. The harbour has been greatly improved by the

construction of a breakwater and the excavation of the Belmore Basin out of hard rock to fourteen feet and under the coal staiths eighteen feet at low water, and the enlargement and deepening the old Basin. The area of both these basins which now form one is about three acres, giving a wharfage accommodation of 1700 feet. The Osborne-Wallsend and Mount Pleasant collieries, about three miles distant, are connected by railway with the port and ship their coals there. These collieries are situated 600 feet above sea level. A circular iron lighthouse is erected at the end of the breakwater. The town has a population of about 1500. It is well built and prettily situated at the base of Mount Keira (1450 feet high) one of the highest points of the Illawarra range, and its environs for beautiful scenery will compare with any part of the world. The district has deposits of kerosene shale worked by the Pioneer Company. Extensive seams of fire clay and iron ore abound. There are five seams of coal from five to seventeen feet thick which collectively are estimated to yield marketable coal at the rate of 52,000 tons per statute acre. The mines are principally worked by adits or tunnels. The population of the district is about 6500 souls. It has long been noted for its dairy farming and is one of the principal sources whence the metropolis and the greater part of the colony is supplied with butter. The town was proclaimed a municipality 22nd February 1859.

WOODS, REV. JULIAN E. TENISON (1832—) geologist, is a native of London, and studied at Newington Grammar School. He studied theology in France; was ordained a priest of the Roman Catholic Church in 1856. He came to A. in consequence of ill health, and was employed as travelling missionary from 1857 amongst his co-religionists and the then wild natives in the little known country between S.A. and V. Woods next became Vicar-General in Adelaide. He is the author of *Geological Observations in South Australia*; *History of the Discovery and Exploration of Australia*; *Geology of Portland*; *Not Quite so Old as the Hills*; *North Australia, and its Physical Geography*; *A Geography for Catholic Schools*; *A Grammar for Catholic Schools*; *Australian Essays*; *Australian Bibliography*; and has sent many papers to various learned societies on the geology, botany, conchology, and natural history of A., and especially of T. Woods has long been a contributor of scientific reviews to the journals of N.S.W. and V. He was editor of the *Southern Cross* and then of the *Chaplet*, religious serials of his own denomination. He furnished geological plans and sections to the Government engineers of S.A. for railways between V. and Adelaide. He is an Honorary Member of the Royal Societies of N.S.W., V., T., and the Adelaide Philosophical Society, Queensland Philosophical Society, and many others.

WOODS POINT, a mining township in V. on the Goulburn River, 120 miles N.E. of Melbourne.

The population numbers 550 persons. Much of the carriage of goods over the mountains between Melbourne and Woods Point is done by pack-horses, the tracks being almost impassable for wheeled vehicles. The whole district is very mountainous and taken up for mining operations, the quartz reefs being numerous and rich. Expensive machinery is employed in obtaining the precious metal. The auriferous area is estimated to be eighteen square miles in extent, and ninety-five distinct gold-bearing reefs have been proved in it.

WOOL-GROWING IN AUSTRALIA.—"The first introduction of the domestic sheep into A. naturally took place in N.S.W., the oldest of all the Australian Colonies. There is no mention of any British sheep having been brought out by the first fleet of vessels, but as they touched on their way at the Cape of Good Hope, and there took in live stock, it is highly probable that some of the hairy sheep of South Africa were landed at Botany Bay when the first settlement was formed. In an enumeration of the live stock, both private and public, at Port Jackson in 1788, the number of sheep is stated at twenty-nine head. The ship *Atlantic* which arrived in June 1792 brought twenty Indian sheep from Bengal, and at the end of that year there were only 105 sheep in the infant settlement, a fact which shows that the importations of sheep must have been very small. Sheep were then so highly valued that these hairy cross-bred animals were sold at £10 10s. per head. Captain Macarthur, whose fame as the first sheep-farmer of A. will ever be held in remembrance by Australian sheep-breeders, commenced stock-farming in 1793 with about thirty ewes of the Indian breed. These he crossed with Cape sheep, and thus effected considerable improvement in the size of the progeny. After this he used some woolly sheep which are said to have been imported from Ireland, and it was from noticing the great improvement in the stock from the woolly rams and the mixed Cape and Indian sheep that he was induced to turn his attention to breeding sheep for wool. At this time and for many years afterwards sheep were bred merely to supply the colonists with food, the production of wool was entirely neglected, and no one believed that wool would ever become an article of export. The stock increased very rapidly, and in 1796 the number of sheep in the colony was 1531 head. The price of ewes was quoted at from £6 to £8 per head, and mutton, when it could be obtained, cost 2s. per lb. In 1797 there occurred an event which will have an influence on the production of wool throughout the Australian Colonies for all time. This was the introduction of the pure Spanish merino into N.S.W., which occurred in the following manner: Captains Kent and Waterhouse were despatched to the Cape of Good Hope for supplies, and Macarthur being anxious to secure wool-bearing sheep asked those gentlemen to bring back any woolly sheep they

could obtain. On their arrival at the Cape they were offered a small flock of pure Spanish merinos which had been bred by Colonel Gordon, then lately deceased. Acting on the request of Macarthur they purchased the lot at what was considered a very high price, and brought them on to Port Jackson. A good many of these sheep died at the Cape and on the voyage, so that at the distribution of what remained only three rams and five ewes fell to Macarthur's share. Macarthur had the foresight to appreciate the immense benefit the breed of merino sheep would prove to A., where the conditions of life are so well suited to rearing this breed of sheep in perfection. Kent and Waterhouse also bred pure merino flocks. We have no knowledge what became of the former gentleman's flock, but it is known that Waterhouse held his sheep till 1800, when he sold them on leaving the colony to Cox, grandfather of the gentleman of that name at Mudjee. His little flock at the time of the sale only numbered about 100 in all. Macarthur kept a strict record of the history of his flock. They were bred separately from all other sheep till the year 1804, when a few pure Spanish merinos purchased by Macarthur at the first sale of sheep from George III.'s pure merino flock were joined to them, and from that time to the present day the celebrated Camden flock has remained without the intermixture of any foreign blood, and it is to this flock that the high quality of many of the leading stud flocks of V. is mainly due. The effect of the Australian climate on the Spanish merino sheep appears to have been strongly exhibited from the first, and the few early settlers who took any interest in such matters noticed with surprise that the pure merino sheep which were born in the colony produced wool that differed greatly from that of their parents. It was softer, brighter, and longer in the staple, and already exhibited something of that beauty which has since rendered the merino wool of A. famous all over the world. In spite, however, of the actual proof that merino wool could be grown in the colony, no one or rather only one person believed it would ever become an article of export. The colonists preferred the sheep of the mixed Indian and Cape breeds to any other, and Macarthur, when in England from 1802 till 1805, had the greatest difficulty in inducing the British Government to believe that merino wool equal to the very best that could be obtained from Spain could be readily grown in N.S.W., even though he produced samples of such wool shorn from his own sheep, bred in the colony, in support of his statement. During his examination before a select committee of the House of Commons, he incidentally mentioned that his heaviest fleeces of merino wool weighed three and a-half lbs. in the grease, which was valued by experts in London at 4s. per lb. At this time Macarthur was waited on by an eminent manufacturer in the woollen trade, who produced a sample of his wool, and asked him if it was

really grown in the colony. On being assured that such was the case, he urged Macarthur to persevere, and in order to encourage him he explained that when such wool as that sample could be sent to England in quantity there would be a great revolution in the woollen trade. He stated that from such fine combing wool there would arise a new class of fabrics of the most delicate texture. This prediction was fully realised about twenty years afterwards. Macarthur eventually succeeded in arousing the attention of the British Government to the fact that fine merino wool could be grown in large quantities in A., but it was many years before the colonists could be induced to abandon the worthless sheep of the mixed Cape and Indian breeds. The first notice we get of an export of wool from A. is in 1807, when the English Custom-house returns show that during that year 245 lbs. of wool were imported from N.S.W. From this small beginning the export of wool gradually increased till 1822, when it had reached to 172,880 lbs. At last the colonists became aware of the value of the merino sheep. Macarthur's wool had been sold at auction for 7s. 6d. per lb., and on one occasion it reached as high as 10s. per lb. The mongrel sheep hitherto bred were abandoned for the merino, and A. wool began to take that position in the estimation of the wool manufacturers of England that had been predicted of it so many years before. In this year (1822) two large gold medals were voted to Macarthur by the Society of Arts for importing into Great Britain wool, the produce of his flocks, equal to the finest Saxony. These medals were presented to Macarthur by the Duke of Sussex at a large meeting held in London. In order to still further encourage the production of a commodity which promised to be a source of wealth to the whole empire, the Parliament enacted that no higher duty than a penny per pound should be charged on wool imported into England from N.S.W. Of the quality of the merino wool grown in N.S.W. at this early period, the following instance will give some idea:—In 1828 T. Ebsworth, a woolbroker, in giving evidence before a committee of the House of Lords on the state of the British wool trade, stated that Macarthur's wool had improved to such a degree that a portion of it had made the finest cloths that had ever been seen in England. But N.S.W. was not the only portion of A. that was now supplying wool to the English consumer. Adventurous pioneers had crossed the sea, and established themselves in the Island of V.D.L., whither they had been attracted by the beauty of the country and the perfect climate. In 1804 a permanent settlement was made on the River Derwent, and with other stock sheep were brought from the mainland. These sheep consisted of the mongrel race already described as the result of a cross between the Cape and Indian breeds. Colonel Paterson, observing how well these sheep thrived and how rapidly they increased, conceived the idea of

establishing a better breed in the island. He imported some woolly sheep from Sydney, supposed to be of the Teeswater breed, which are said to have thriven remarkably well. Wool however was looked on by the colonists as of not the slightest value. It was cut off the sheep merely to relieve them of an encumbrance, and remained where it was shorn for years, till in some instances hillocks of wool were formed. Afterwards this wool was collected and sent to England, but it was in such a filthy and decayed condition that it did not repay the cost of transit. The crossed Cape and Indian sheep appear to have been to some extent kept separate from the woolly sheep. They were for many years known under the name of "native" sheep. As the value of Australian wool became more generally recognised, these "native" sheep were abandoned for the more profitable woolly breeds, among which the merino held the first place in the estimation of the farmers. According to the general muster-books taken in November 1819 there were 172,079 sheep in T., of which 116,074 were ewes. Governor Sorell at this time became strongly impressed with the necessity of improving the character of the wool produced in the colony, and he communicated with Macarthur as to the best means of effecting his object. After some correspondence, an arrangement was entered into by which Macarthur undertook to deliver at Sydney 300 lambs of the improved merino breed, for which he was to receive in exchange a certain quantity of land in N.S.W. The sheep were put on board ship, but owing to long delay in port and to their being overcrowded, a large proportion of them died on the passage and soon after arriving at Hobart Town. The sheep thus obtained were distributed among the settlers in June 1820, the number then alive being only 181. They were estimated at the value of seven guineas per head, and security was taken for repayment at that rate to extend over several years. The quantity of wool exported from T. to England up till 1827 cannot be definitely stated, as in the Custom-house returns all the wool received from the Australian Colonies was credited to N.S.W. In the year named we have the first notice of Tasmanian wool being imported into England. The quantity is stated at 192,075 lbs. In 1829 the export had increased to 925,320 lbs., while the export from Sydney in the same year was only 913,322 lbs. By this time T. had attracted the attention of Englishmen as a suitable country for colonisation. Many well-to-do farmers had arrived in the country bringing with them the finest domestic animals to be procured in Great Britain, and what was of quite as much importance to the country they possessed a knowledge of husbandry of which the older colonists appear to have been lamentably deficient. The greater number of these colonists brought with them small shipments of the finest British and German merinos, the latter predominating. Among the earliest founders of pure merino flocks may be mentioned Gilles,

Horne, Willis, Archer, Wedge, Anstey, Bethune, Leake and Cox, all of whom imported pure merino sheep, mostly of the German type. The V.D.L. Company made very large importations of the best German merinos. This company was founded in 1825, the principal object being to relieve England from dependence on foreign countries for fine wool. By the year 1830 the company had expended £30,000 in the purchase of high-class sheep for the purpose of stocking their vast estate on the north-west corner of the island. The introduction of such a large number of German merinos into T. gave to the wool of T. a very pronounced character which it still retains. In 1830 the clip of the V.D.L. Company realised an average price of 1s. 7½d. per lb. for brook-washed wool. The fleeces of the company's merino sheep, though beautifully fine, were very small as compared with the fleeces of merino sheep of to-day. In the year named they only realised 3s. 5d. per fleece. Soon after this date it began to be rumoured in T. that there was a boundless extent of magnificent pasture-land on the other side of Bass Straits, and as the best land in the island had been secured and grants of land to colonists were abandoned, the thoughts of adventurous pioneers were turned to that unknown land now the colony of V. The first to establish a sheep-farm on Victorian soil was Thomas Henty. This gentleman was a farmer at West Tarring in Sussex, where he bred a flock of merinoes of such acknowledged merit that he was paid the exceptional compliment of being barred from competition at agricultural shows. In 1829 he sent three of his sons with a portion of his merino flock to W.A., but as the sheep did not thrive there they re-shipped them for T., where they were joined by Henty in 1832 with another draught of his celebrated flock. Being disappointed in obtaining a grant of land he resolved to seek a home on the mainland, and in November 1834 he landed at Portland Bay and established the first sheep-farm on Victorian soil. One of the earliest flocks brought to V. from T. was a very celebrated lot of sheep imported by John Aitken, which were long celebrated as the best merino sheep in the colony, and the descendants of which are even now among the finest in the land. On one occasion he paid as much as £250 for a ram bred by Prince Sichnowski in Prussian Silesia, which was imported by J. P. Rowe, of Mount Battery, who had searched Europe to obtain the finest specimens of the merino breed of sheep. Another famous flock in the early days of the colony was that of Forlonge, the originals of which were purchased from the Elector of Saxony, whose flock had the reputation of being the finest in the world. They were brought to T. in 1829, and remained there for some years, when they were imported into V., and with them was founded the celebrated Ercildoune stud flock. During the years from 1836 to 1839 many respectable emigrants arrived from England, bringing with them capital and experience in stock

breeding. They first visited T., but not finding the opening they expected the majority of them settled in V. They brought with them drafts of merinos from the finest flocks in T., and mostly settled in the Western district. The sheep they brought with them in some instances cost as high as £2 per head, and it is to the introduction of such highly-bred animals that we may attribute the fame that the wool from this part of the country has always enjoyed. It has been described by those engaged in the trade at the time as being a well-grown, healthy, fine-haired clothing wool. The average weight was about 2 lbs. of cold-water-washed wool to the fleece. The wool produced in V. was at first sent to Hobart Town and Launceston for sale, but as the produce increased ships were laid on for London direct. The first direct export took place in 1837, when 154,200 lbs. of wool was exported from V. In 1840 the export had increased to 831,000 lbs., and in the next ten years it had risen to 15,962,700 lbs. The climate had a considerable effect on the fine-haired clothing wool of the sheep from T. It became stronger, deeper stapled, and more robust in character. The sheep in V. increased so rapidly after its settlement that there was soon no outlet for the surplus stock, and the price of sheep rapidly declined from the high rates ruling when stock was wanted to take up land, till they were worth but little more than 1s. per head. The boiling-down of sheep for their tallow altered the state of affairs by establishing a minimum price for stock, and averted the ruin with which the whole country was threatened. By this time the Victorian wool had taken the first rank in the European markets, not for its fineness, for it was inferior in this respect to the Tasmanian wool and to that from the Mudgee district of N.S.W., but for its brightness, elasticity, length of staple, and soundness—qualities in which it was superior, not only to the wool of the other Australian Colonies, but to that of any part of the world. The sheep breeders in the Western district had ceased importing rams from other colonies, and they dignified their sheep with the name of the "Australian merino," as if they were of a distinct race, and the introduction of any European merino, no matter how aristocratic might be its pedigree or how beautifully fine its fleece, was looked upon as a degradation. It must be admitted that these enthusiastic sheep-breeders had good reason to be proud of their sheep. There was something extremely attractive in the wool from these old flocks in the Western district; it was so bright and healthy, so soft, and of such fine staple, that all other wools seemed poor in comparison. It was the natural product of merino sheep reared in a climate perfectly suited to them, and in a pasture without stint, for the crime of over-stocking the runs was then unknown in the land. The steady progress that was being made by the sheep-farmers of V. received a check on the discovery of gold in A. The sudden rush of thousands of people to the gold-fields, leaving

no labour to work the sheep-farms, was productive of the most disastrous consequences to the wool production of the colony. New sheep-farmers appeared who had no reverence for the "Australian merino," and to the horror of the old settlers they introduced German merinos with the view of giving greater density to the wool. In some instances the English breeds of sheep were used, and tempted by the success of the first cross, some sheepowners kept up the breed to the utter ruin of the character of their flocks. The best sheep-farmers however declined to have anything to do with either the English or the German rams, and their judgment has met with its reward, for their stud flocks are now among the most celebrated in A. Gradually the sheep-runs became converted into freeholds, and as they were fenced in and subdivided a change took place in the management of the flocks. Tempted by the prospect of large profits, many landholders overstocked their land, to the great detriment of the character of the wool. The fencing and subdivision of the runs however led to greater improvement in some of the leading flocks than had been attained previously. The possession of numerous paddocks enabled the sheepowners to pay more attention to selection than had been possible when the country was unenclosed, and the sheep were shepherded. The improvements made by some of the leading stud flock owners became so marked that sheep farmers from all the Australian Colonies, except Tasmania, sought to improve their sheep by the use of Victorian rams. The last change that was made in the breeding of merino sheep in V. was the large infusion of merino rams from the leading stud flocks in T. The breeders of merino sheep in T. had been gradually lengthening the staple of their wool, and at the same time retaining its fineness and density. Several leading stud flock owners had used Tasmanian rams with exceedingly good effect, and at last they became so much the fashion that the celebrated ram Sir Thomas, bred by James Gibson, of Bellevue, T., was sold by auction in Melbourne, in 1874, for the sum of £714, the purchasers being Wm. Cumming of Mount Fyans, and T. F. Cumming of Stony Point. The success of this grand ram at the stud has fully justified the large outlay in his purchase. Many owners of celebrated stud flocks in the Western district have followed the example of the Messrs. Cumming, to the great improvement of their sheep. At the principal shows in V. nearly all the leading prizes are taken by sheep having a large infusion of Tasmanian blood. A few sheep-breeders, however, still cling to the old "Australian merino," and decline to follow the fashion and use Tasmanian rams in their flocks. It is only fair to say that in the sale-yards their sheep hold their own against all comers, as witness the averages realised by the rams bred by J. L. Currie, of Larra, at our annual ram sales. Though British sheep were imported into A. at a very early period in the history of the colonies, they were not much fancied by Australian

sheep farmers. In T. flocks of Leicester sheep were kept, and in a very few instances these sheep were bred in V. In time it was found that the rich soil, damp climate, and luxuriant herbage of the country bordering on the S.W. coast were unsuited to the merino, and about 1870 the sheep farmers in that locality began to turn their thoughts towards the long wool breeds of sheep, as being more suitable to their country. The Messrs. Austin led the way by importing high-class Lincoln sheep. The fancy for these fine animals soon became very pronounced, and in 1873 over 900 Lincoln sheep were imported from England, at a cost of about £36,000. The export of long wool from V. must now be very large, but it is difficult to arrive at an approximate estimate of the quantity. Victorian long-wool rams have been sent to all the Australian Colonies, and are used even in Riverina, where they succeed, notwithstanding the heat of the climate. The pioneers in the great stretch of country to the N. of V., known as Riverina, experienced great difficulties in acclimatising the merino sheep. These difficulties were at first so great that many settlers abandoned sheep-breeding, and stocked their runs with cattle. A few resolute, patient men, struggled on in spite of constant failure. The appearance of Riverine wool, when sheep were first bred in that country, was most disheartening. It was coarse in fibre, fuzzy, impregnated with earthy particles which absorbed the yolk and rendered the wool tender, and it was entirely wanting in lustre. The only advantage the sheep possessed was that they were grandly developed, and always commanded a good price in the market. The wool at first realised about 10d. per lb. washed in cold water, and its condition was as bad as its quality. Gradually however by the use of first-class Victorian rams, and judicious selection on the part of the flock-owners, the Riverine sheep improved to such a degree that a few years ago one flockowner exhibited Riverine ewes at Skipton against the best merinos in Victoria, and took an honourable position in the prize-list. At the present time the wool of Riverina can hardly be recognised by those who knew what it was when sheep-breeding was first attempted there. It is remarkably long in staple, well-grown, and an eminently useful wool; more robust in character and less lustrous than the Victorian wools. Within thirty years they have added more than double the weight to the fleece, and more than doubled the price per pound. The success that has attended the efforts of the Riverine sheep-breeders has stimulated the pioneers in the far north in the endeavour to acclimatise the sheep in the northern districts of Q. Already the sheep-farmers have invaded the tropics, and so well have they succeeded that the line of sheep-walks now stretches from Bass Straits to the head waters of the rivers that fall into the Gulf of Carpentaria, a distance of over 1200 miles. From an experience of over three years, we may fairly anticipate that the great

extent of elevated downs in this part of A. will at no distant date produce immense quantities of excellent wool. The most important exhibitions of wool held in A. were given by two firms of wool-brokers in Melbourne, the first by R. Goldsbrough and Co. in 1878; the second by Hastings Cuninghame and Co. in 1879. At the former show the conditions under which the wool was exhibited did not seem to be thoroughly understood, and consequently many flockmasters sent in wool for quality alone. The prizes were for the greatest value per fleece, and to the intense astonishment of all sheep-breeders S.A. stood first in the list. W. E. Pitts, of The Levels, exhibited fifty fleeces in the grease unskirted, valued at £29 0s. 8½d., being an average of 11s. 7½d. per fleece. Riverina was placed second, the exhibit of Lachlan McBean, of Woorooma, being valued at £28 11s. 6d., equal to 10s. 5½d. per fleece. J. L. Currie, Larra, V., was third, his exhibit being valued at £26 18s. 7½d., equal to 10s. 2½d. per fleece. At H. Cuninghame and Co.'s show the conditions were better understood. Prizes were given for the highest value per lb. as well as the highest value per fleece. W. Gibson and Son, of Scone, T., took first place for the most valuable fifty fleeces of washed wool unskirted. It was valued at 2s. 7d. per lb. and gave an average value per fleece of 13s.; when sold at auction it realised 2s. 9d. per lb. Philip Russell, of Carnham, V., took the prize for fifty fleeces in the grease at the highest value per lb. His exhibit was valued at 3s. 9d. per lb. and realised 4s. 1d. at auction. Thos. F. Cumming, of Stony Point, V., was placed first for the most valuable fifty fleeces in the grease unskirted. They averaged a little over 8 lbs. 14 ozs., which was valued at 1s. 4½d. per lb., averaging 12s. 2½d. per fleece. W. Gibson and Son won the prize for the most valuable wool per lb. in the grease. It was estimated by the judges at 1s. 7½d. per lb. and sold at 1s. 6½d. at auction. Rutledge Bros., of Farnham-park, V., were placed first for the most valuable fifty fleeces of long wool. This wool was valued at 7½d. and weighed 15 lbs. per fleece. The price of long wool was at the time exceptionally low. The wool trade of V. has advanced to the first place in A. The position of Melbourne as a central point offers many advantages that have not been lost sight of by her enterprising business men. European firms are always represented at our wool sales, and the tendency to purchase wool in Melbourne is becoming more pronounced every year, and of late American buyers have been among our best customers. Now that large steamers are running to England *via* the Mediterranean, it is expected that a considerable trade will spring up with the ports in the south of Europe. The warehouses erected in Melbourne for carrying on this great trade are not surpassed, if indeed they are equalled, in any part of the world. Foremost among these grand edifices stands the wool warehouses of R. Goldsbrough and Co., possessing

a storage area of nearly five acres, and capable of storing from 40,000 to 50,000 bales of wool, and giving efficient access to the bales for inspection. This substantial pile of buildings, constructed of the everlasting bluestone, is one of the sights of Melbourne. In the season of 1879 there were 78,000 bales of wool passed through these stores, of which the firm sold 63,000 bales, and forwarded the remainder to London and America for sale. These warehouses have cost the proprietors about £110,000, and have been fitted with every invention for carrying on the business with convenience and despatch. The other wool warehouses in Melbourne are those of H. Cuninghame and Co., J. H. Clough and Co., and Monckton D. Synnot Bros., all of which are admirably constructed. The sales of wool effected in 1879 in these warehouses amounted to 125,000 bales, representing a value of about £2,500,000. The annual wool sales in Geelong also show an improvement during the past few years. Last year 34,573 bales were catalogued, of which 26,563 bales were sold. This vast business, like the production of wool in V., has been developed without the slightest encouragement on the part of the Government of the country. In fact, the restrictions imposed on the industry would almost lead to the conclusion that the various Governments had been averse to Melbourne becoming the central wool mart of the Australian Colonies. In 1879 the Australian Colonies exported 313,274,336 lbs. of wool, which was valued at £15,901,789. This return includes N.Z., which contributed 62,220,810 lbs. of wool, valued at £3,126,439—a good return from a country that only commenced exporting wool in 1848. The export from V. was 47,973,091 lbs., valued at £2,653,528. It is not only by increasing the number of sheep that Australian sheep farmers have increased their export of wool. The weight of the fleeces has been nearly doubled by improvements effected in the breed of sheep by the use of high-class rams. In 1860 the average production of wool per sheep in A. was 2·94 lbs. greasy and 1·70 lbs. washed. In 1870 the yield per head had increased to 3·52 lbs. per head greasy and 2·05 lbs. per head washed. In 1877 the yield was 4·29 lbs. per head greasy, and 2·36 lbs. washed. So that in less than twenty years the average yield of wool per sheep throughout A. was nearly doubled, and in connection with this increase in the yield it must be taken into consideration that the fleeces, both washed and greasy, were sent to market in a much better condition in 1877 than in 1860. With the enormously-increasing production of wool that is going on in many parts of the world it is feared that the time will soon arrive when the markets of the world will be overstocked; but this fear appears to us a groundless one. Side by side with the increased production of wool there is not only an increase in the consumption but an increase in the channels for its distribution. The consumption of wool in the United Kingdom in 1860 was 8·6 lbs. per head of the population. In

1870 it had increased to 10·1 lbs. per head, and in 1877 it had risen to 11·1 lbs. per head. On the continent of Europe the consumption of wool has been steadily increasing, and countries that till a dozen years ago hardly used this material, are now becoming customers for woollen materials for clothing. We may rest satisfied, therefore, that there is no danger of the production of wool overtaking for any length of time the demand; while on the other hand we may fairly look forward to the time when the beautiful wools of A. will be manufactured into equally beautiful cloths, that will carry the fame of the great island continent to every part of the world. The Spaniards have a proverb to the following effect:—‘Sheep have golden feet, and wherever the print of their footstep appears the land is turned to gold.’ If this proverb was applicable to old Spain it is a thousand times more applicable to young Australia, than which no country has gained more by the cultivation of the sheep. Australia needs no other blazon than the Golden Fleece to which she is more justly entitled than any other land.”

[The foregoing article is extracted from the Exhibition Supplement (1881) of the *Argus*, to which paper it was contributed by George Brown.]

WOOLLEY, REV. JOHN (1816—1866), was a native of Hampshire in England, and entered the London University in 1830. In 1832 he went to Oxford, where he gained an open scholarship at Exeter College. Whilst there he wrote a work on logic which was for some years very generally used, and was referred to by Sir William Hamilton in one of his works. At Oxford a warm friendship arose between him and Dean Stanley, who was a contemporary Fellow of University College. Amongst his pupils at Oxford was Rawlinson, afterwards Camden Professor of Ancient History, a man some years older than himself. In 1842 he was appointed head-master of King Edward the Sixth's Grammar School at Hereford. In 1844 he was elected head-master of the Northern Church of England School at Rossall, in Lancashire, corresponding to Marlborough for the South. Whilst at Rossall (in 1846) he applied for the headship of the University at Corfu, and obtained the appointment. The Greek priests, however, petitioned against the appointment of an English clergyman, and he therefore resigned it, Sir George Bowen (who stood next on the list) succeeding him. In 1849 he succeeded to the head-mastership of Norwich Grammar School, and in January 1852 having been appointed Principal of the Sydney University, he arrived in N.S.W. colony in June 1852. He delivered an inaugural oration at the opening of the University in October 1852, in the hall of the new Sydney Grammar School; and from that time till his leaving the colony in 1865 on a visit to England, he discharged the duties of Professor of Classics and Logic in the University. In 1866 Dr. Woolley was elected President of the Sydney Mechanics' School of Arts. In 1862 he published a volume entitled *Lectures delivered*

in Australia. He was one of the original trustees of the Sydney Grammar-school, in the organisation of which he spent much time and labour. He was the first propounder of a scheme for connecting the primary schools of the colony with the University, to which practical effect has since been given in the establishment of the public examinations. He was lost in the steamship *London*, which foundered in the Bay of Biscay in January 1866. His untimely death was greatly lamented, and a public testimonial of £2000 was raised as a tribute of admiration for his services in the cause of education, and presented to his widow. Portraits of Dr. Woolley are in the University of Sydney and the Mechanics' School of Arts.

WOOLLS, REV. WILLIAM (1814—) botanist, is a native of Hampshire, in England, and was educated at the Grammar School of Bishop's Waltham and at Winchester College. At an early age, or about a year before he left England (in 1831,) he had published a poem on his native city; a second juvenile effort, entitled *The Country*, and a small volume of miscellaneous pieces in prose and verse; whilst on the passage to the colony he composed a poem on *The Voyage to New South Wales*. Having a taste for literary pursuits, he was led to accept from the Rev. Robert Forrest, first head-master of the King's School at Parramatta, the offer of an appointment in that institution in 1832. Whilst Dr. Woolls was at King's School he published a poem on *Australia*, dedicated to Sir Edward Parry, and a volume of *Miscellanies*, dedicated to his brother-in-law, the Rev. Peter Hall. On leaving King's School Dr. Woolls was engaged for some time in private tuition, which had been provided for him by the Rev. R. Forrest, and in writing for the Sydney Press; but at the request of W. T. Cape, head-master of the old Sydney College, he was induced to accept the situation of classical master in that institution. Whilst in that capacity Dr. Woolls wrote occasional papers for the *Colonist*, the *Temperance Magazine*, and other periodicals. Owing to some misunderstanding with the Committee of the College, he resigned the situation of classical master, and on leaving the institution received from the boys a handsome recognition of his services. From that period until 1865 he had a scholastic establishment of his own, which he carried on in Parramatta, with the exception of two short removals to Blacktown and the Glebe; he also at that time contributed occasional papers to the *Atlas* and the *Christian Standard*, the latter of which was then conducted by the Rev. W. Boyce. His claims to public notice and sympathy rest principally on his botanical works, by which he has laboured to develop the vegetable resources of the colony, and to make them known in Continental Europe. Having become acquainted with the Rev. James Walker, formerly Head Master of King's School, an eminent naturalist as well as a classical scholar, and subsequently with Baron F. von Müller, Dr. Woolls followed up their assistance and

co-operation so successfully that he published from time to time many elaborate papers on the botany of A. His work entitled *A Contribution to the Flora of Australia* is well known in the scientific world. As President of the Cumberland Mutual Improvement Society, he delivered in Parramatta numerous addresses on varied subjects, and several before the Horticultural Society. A paper on *Introduced Plants* was communicated to the Linnean Society by the President, and received a flattering acknowledgment. Dr. Woolls was elected Fellow of the Linnean Society, and through his brother-in-law, who transmitted his work *Species Plantarum Paramattensium* and other publications to Göttingen, that celebrated University conferred on him the honorary degrees of Doctor of Philosophy and Master of the Liberal Arts, and printed the former work for distribution amongst European botanists. On the especial recommendation of the Rev. Samuel Marsden, Dr. Woolls was offered ordination in the Church of England by Dr. Wilson, Bishop of Calcutta, and subsequently by the first Bishop of A., but for a long period preferred scholastic duties. His *Life and Character of the Rev. Samuel Marsden* was written for the purpose of raising funds towards the building of All Saints Church, Parramatta, of which he became one of the first trustees in conjunction with H. H. Macarthur, J. B. Bettington, and Dr. Anderson. He wrote a poem on the subject of the incorporation of the foundation of the Sydney University, at the time a bill was introduced for that purpose by the late W. C. Wentworth. In 1873 Woolls was induced to take holy orders in the Church of England and was ordained by Dr. Barker, Bishop of Sydney, being appointed to the incumbency of Richmond, and subsequently on the resignation of the Rev. C. F. Garnsey to the rural deanery of the same district, since when he has applied himself to parochial duties. In his leisure hours he has continued to devote himself to literary and scientific pursuits, and has published a number of sermons, lectures, and addresses on various local, scientific, and philological subjects, including a lecture on *The Wonders of Australian Vegetation*, and another on *The Variations of Species considered in reference to the Variations of Language*. The volumes of the *Flora Australiensis* and Baron Müller's *Fragmenta Phytographiæ Australiæ* show that Dr. Woolls has furnished many specimens of Australian plants for description to Mr. Bentham and Baron Müller, and has further contributed by his knowledge to the elucidation of many points in connection with Australian vegetation.

Y.

YAN YEAN is situated 19 miles N.E. of Melbourne, at the base of the Plenty Ranges. It is the locale of the reservoir supplied by the Plenty

River, whence Melbourne derives its supply of water. The reservoir is formed by closing up the south side of the valley with an embankment 3159 feet in length, 31 feet in height, and varying in width from 170 feet at bottom to 20 feet at the top. The water thus dammed up assumes the proportion of a lake 1330 acres in area, 9 miles in circumference, $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles in diameter, and 25 feet in depth at the deepest part, with a capacity of 6,400,000,000 gallons of water. The water is conveyed to Melbourne by an open aqueduct about 7 miles long, and thence by a double service of immense pipes, safety-valves being constructed at suitable points to limit the enormous pressure. The original design contemplated a supply of 40 gallons per head per day to a population of 70,000, but since that, after mature deliberation, it was decided that the supply should be carried out on the scale of 30 gallons per head per day for 200,000 persons, or 6,000,000 gallons in 24 hours. G. Gordon characterises the Yan Yean Reservoir as the most favourable for storage of any he had seen in A. or England, containing when full a reserve of 1060 days, or nearly three years' supply. The average summer rate is about 640 days' supply. Owing to the large demand for water in summer, other mains have lately been laid down, and the city is being additionally reticulated. The total cost of the works, including maintenance, was about £1,500,000.

YARRA YARRA, a river of V. flowing into Hobson's Bay. The city of Melbourne situated five miles from its mouth is built along its banks. This river, the largest that flows into the harbour of Port Phillip is not navigable for boats far above Melbourne on account of the numerous falls. It rises near Mount Bawbaw in the district of Western Port.

YASS, an important and still growing town on the main southern road, on the banks of the River Yass, 187 miles S.W. of Sydney, with which it is connected by the Great Southern Railway. The town consists of one main street, intersected by numerous other streets which cross it at right angles, all of them the sites of respectable business and private buildings. North Yass, which forms part of the town, and divided only by a handsome iron lattice bridge of 285 feet span crossing the Yass River, is well populated and the site of numerous private residences as well as a few business places. O'Connelltown is also included within the boundaries of Yass. Both the public edifices and the places of business are substantial erections, and are tangible evidences of its growing prosperity. The population numbered in 1871 1600 persons, the district 6600. A large and handsome public school with pretty cottage residence for teachers, built at a cost of over £5000, was opened in January 1879. A court-house with necessary offices erected at a cost of over £12,000 is the most handsome edifice of the kind out of Sydney. Very fine and commodious buildings for quarters

for inspector of police and for the force were built in 1879 at a cost of £5000. The gaol buildings were also considerably enlarged in 1879. The money has been voted for by Parliament for the erection of a new post and telegraph office. One member is returned to the Assembly. There are about 2000 electors on the roll for 1880-81.

YASS PLAINS, in N.S.W., were discovered in 1828 by Hovell and Hume. They take their name from the little river that flows along their N. and N.W. boundaries, and are surrounded on every side by forests. They are from nine to twelve miles in length, and from five to seven in breadth. To the W.N.W. of Yass Plains there is a remarkable hill called Pouni. Yass Plains lie 170 miles to the S.W. of Sydney.

YORK MOUNTAIN, in N.S.W., seventy-two miles from Sydney, on the Bathurst-road; it is 3292 feet above the level of the sea, and was named in honour of the Duke of York.

YORK PENINSULA is situated at the north-easternmost extremity of the continent, between the ocean and the Gulf of Carpentaria, and is separated from New Guinea by Torres Straits, which is, at Cape York, the northern extremity of the island, 80 miles wide.

YORK SOUND is situated on the N.W. coast of the continent; it is a very spacious bay, receiving the waters of two rivers; it is bounded by precipitous rocks, from 100 to 200 feet in height.

YORKE RIVER, N.S.W., is a branch of the Turrabeile, and was named by Oxley after Sir J. Yorke.

YORKE'S PENINSULA, in S.A., is a tract of land lying between the Gulf of St. Vincent on the E. and Spencer's Gulf on the W., and running out in a S. direction in the shape of a boot. It comprises a vast extent of pastoral country, most of which is taken up as sheep runs. The entire country is almost destitute of surface water, there being no running streams worthy the name, but numerous wells have been sunk by the stock-owners, and water is obtained in the swamps, which abound during and for a time after wet seasons. The country generally comprises dry, scrubby, undulating sandy rises, and salt lagoons and swamps, with samphire, mesembryanthemum, tea-tree, and patches of rank swamp vegetation; also thinly-grassed plains, lightly timbered with oak, cherry, tea-tree, dwarf mallee, peppermint, spinifex, and black grass. Parts of this district, along the coast especially, are almost unavailable for stock, on account of the malarious exhalations which rise from the mangrove swamps, and which cause a dangerous malady known as the coast disease. The entire area of the country may be described as a scrubby flat, interspersed with open plains, covered with scanty herbage. Underneath is a crust of limestone extending over its entire area, and not a rock nor hill, not a gully nor watercourse, is to be seen for miles. By far the most important industry

connected with this part of the colony is the copper mining, which is carried on to a very large extent in its N. part at the Wallaroo, Moonta and Kadina mines. Copper was first discovered at the head of the peninsula upon a sheep run belonging to Captain Hughes in 1860 by a shepherd, who found amongst the earth and stones thrown up by a wallaby in the operation of scratching a hole in the ground a small green stone about the size of a pea, which proved to be carbonate of copper. A shaft was sunk upon the spot, and at the depth of a few feet a magnificent lode of copper was found, the workings giving rise to the celebrated Wallaroo mines, and the shaft first sunk being known as the Wombat shaft. Ore was also found near the Tipara Springs, about ten miles S. of the Wombat, and secured by Hughes, the workings being now the great Moonta mine. The ores at Wallaroo and Moonta are chiefly sulphurets, those at the latter being exceedingly rich. Railways have been erected in this part of the country from the various mines to Port Wallaroo, and smelting furnaces are erected at that place, where the ores from all the mines are smelted. The other mines on the peninsula are the Yelta, Karkarilla, Mutta, New Cornwall, and Kurilla, all in the N., although it is highly probable that copper ore exists in most parts.

YOUNG, a township in N.S.W., on the N. side of the Burrangong or Main creek, 245 miles S.W. of Sydney, with which the communication is by coach to Yass, thence rail. Gold was accidentally discovered in June 1860, and the goldfields in the immediate neighbourhood, known as the Burrangong goldfields, principally alluvial, have from time to time attracted large numbers of miners; but the promise of the early discoveries has hardly been maintained, though for many years to come the mines might be profitably worked. It has however many other resources in mineral wealth that have yet to be developed. 18,323 acres of land are under cultivation, the produce for 1879 being 230,470 bushels of wheat, 24,076 of maize, 2655 of barley, and 20,437 of oats; potatoes, 238 tons; wine, 2600 gallons, besides green crops, &c. Stock returns for 1879 were 4299 horses, 17,431 cattle, 424,845 sheep, 2637 pigs. The land in the district is fast being taken up for farming purposes, for which it is eminently suited, and surrounding Young are permanent homesteads, settled populations, and cultivated soil. The number of inhabitants in the town according to the last census was 792, with 5924 in the district; the numbers are now stated at 1500 and 8500 respectively. During the last few years the town has made considerable strides, and both it and the district are fast rising in importance. Many new buildings are going up, and brick structures on all sides are fast superseding the wooden edifices of the early time. The town is approached by three different coaches, which await the arrival of the mail train, and reach Young each morning at about nine o'clock. The local Pastoral and

Agricultural Association holds one, and sometimes two shows in the year, at which valuable prizes are largely competed for.

YOUNG, SIR HENRY EDWARD FOX (1810-1870,) was third son of the late Colonel A. W. Young, and was for some time Governor of Prince Edward Island. He held the post of Lieutenant-Governor of the Eastern Province, Cape of Good Hope, from which he was transferred in 1848 to the Governorship of S.A., where he assumed office on 2nd August of that year; held the reins of government of the colony until 20th December 1854; and was then appointed successor to Sir William Denison as Governor of T. in January 1855. Sir Henry Young remained in T. until 10th December 1861, when he retired.

YOUNG, SIR JOHN (1807—) was for many years a member of the British Parliament, formerly Secretary for Ireland, and afterwards Lord High Commissioner of the Ionian Isles, was appointed Captain-General and Governor-in-Chief of N.S.W. on 18th January 1861. He landed in the colony on 22nd March following, but as the patent for his permanent title had not arrived, he assumed the office of Administrator, and was not installed as Governor-in-Chief till the 16th May. The occasion was thought by the Imperial Government to present a favourable opportunity for cancelling the distinction primarily possessed by Governors of N.S.W. as Governor-General. There was no very good reason for retaining a title which had lost its significance, but resolutions were submitted by Cowper in the Legislative Assembly, protesting against the alteration after it was made. Sir John Young had not been long in office before what are known as the Lambing Flat riots occurred. They originated in attempts by European diggers on the Burrangong goldfields to expel the Chinese who were there in large numbers, and they proved so perplexing and formidable, that it was thought wise to send troops to the assistance of the constabulary. Those troops that were in the southern districts were the first that were ordered to the scene of disturbance, and they proving insufficient to cope with the difficulty, a party of the Royal Artillery, with field pieces and 123 men of the 12th Regiment, together with the mounted police, were dispatched to Lambing Flat. All attempts to quell the rioting by peaceful measures were ineffectual, and the troops coming into collision with the rioters one man was killed and a considerable number of others wounded. It was not alleged that there had been any provocation on the part of the Chinese, and yet ferocious outrages were committed upon them. While the troops were at Lambing Flat it became necessary to call out the Volunteer Force to do sentry duty in and about the metropolis. The Volunteers accepted the task with great cheerfulness, and performed it with exemplary patience and diligence. The circumstance is noticeable chiefly as the first instance of actual service by

Volunteers within the Australian Colonies. An intention was expressed at this time to proclaim martial law, and so to place the trial and punishment of offenders in the hands of the military, but to this course the Governor, who was a man of great constitutional knowledge, decidedly objected, and pointed out its illegality as well as danger. The outcry against the Chinese led to the passing of a law to exclude them, except on a large payment, from the colony, but the Act was afterwards repealed. During a large portion of Sir John Young's Government the colony was greatly disturbed by the combination, daring, and crimes of bushrangers; and the difficulty of coping effectually with the accumulation of violence and crime at this period led to a suggestion to pass a law more stringent than that in existence, and to bring the provisions of crime under new responsibilities. This was followed by the introduction and passing of the Felons Appropriation Bill, which materially assisted the police in the suppression of crime, and ultimately all the bushrangers were hanged, shot, or condemned to long terms of imprisonment. When Sir John Young arrived here the country was agitated by questions of great moment, embracing the reconstruction of the Upper House and a new system of disposing of public lands. The agitation with regard to the latter question ended in the passing of Sir John Robertson's Land Bill, which, with some amendment, has been ever since the land law of the colony, but several difficulties had to be overcome before the bill was finally dealt with, and among other plans to secure its passage through Parliament was the attempt by the Cowper Government to swamp the Upper House in order to compel it to accept the bill. Sir John Young, being at the time a stranger to all local parties, was naturally inclined to receive with deference the advice of his Ministers, and in consenting to the attempt at coercing the Legislative Council he departed from the course, which might have been anticipated from so experienced a politician. The result of the proceedings connected with the attempted swamping was an expression of a strong opinion on the part of the Secretary of State against the practice. While the Land Bill was under discussion, Parkes moved a resolution in the Assembly that it was desirable to send lecturers to Great Britain in order to promote immigration, and the resolution being carried, he and Dalley were appointed lecturers, and in that capacity visited Great Britain and held large meetings in various parts of England and Ireland. In August 1861 a serious disturbance in an important branch of Colonial industry occurred through the miners of Newcastle striking for increased wages, but the mischief which threatened the colony was obviated by efforts to open new mines, and by a large addition to the number of coal-miners from the general mining population. The question of State-aid to religion for a long time occupied public attention, and its settlement is regarded as one of

the happy incidents of Sir John Young's administration. Ecclesiastical affairs generally assumed, under Sir John Young's government, a more settled form, for the various Protestant communities established recognised organs for expressing their opinions on all matters affecting the relations with the State, and they acknowledged the Governor's cordial co-operation in all that affected the moral and religious well-being of the country. But the most important event during Sir John Young's tenure of office was the passing of the Public Schools Act, and the immediate success of the measure. The financial affairs of the colony proved a difficulty in the way of satisfactory government, but in this the Governor could have but little influence or control. In promoting the various benevolent institutions of the colony Sir John Young showed an unwearied activity, and led the people in the enterprise of charity with eminent success. Never was he found wanting either in personal liberality or in the cordial and hearty advocacy of the cause of the distressed. On the occasion of the death of the Prince Consort the whole colony participated in the regret and sorrow caused by the sad event, and in 1866 a statue of Albert the Good, at the cost of more than ten thousand contributors, was erected at the entrance of Hyde Park; Sir John Young delivered an oration upon the character of the Prince to an assemblage of people numbering tens of thousands. As the head of a political Government Sir John Young often had an extremely delicate part to perform, and one in which he would have been less successful but for his previous training and his knowledge of public life. The testimony on all sides seems to have been—that in the office of representative of the Queen he left to his Ministers that power which fairly belonged to them, but that he maintained with firmness the rights essential to his trust. It was to the honour of His Excellency that his example did not stimulate extravagance, or provoke the people to habits of dangerous rivalry and minor ruinous display. Expending for the most part his revenue in the maintenance of the hospitalities and dignity of his station, he sought an influence in promoting permanently the interests of the community rather than in gratifying the ephemeral vanities and love of pleasure in those who had no higher aim, and his departure from the colony left to many persons the recollections of friendship, and to thousands the more public, but not less lasting, impression of official worth.

Z.

ZAACHEN, Dutch navigator, discovered and named the land of Arnheim, from the N.W. Cape to the fifteenth parallel of south latitude, in 1618.

ZIG ZAG. One of the greatest engineering works in A., and is said to rank among the boldest and most substantial railway constructions in the world. The railway line is across the Blue Mountains, N.S.W., and commences at Penrith, thirty-four miles from Sydney. The line then ascends 155 feet, and crosses Knapsack Gully by the viaduct, which is 388 feet long, and has a maximum height of 126 feet. This crossing is 245 feet above Emu Plains, and the line reaches the lower point of the first Zig-zag at an elevation of 414 feet above sea-level, and thence an elevation of 470 feet is attained in a distance of thirty chains. After this the line continues to ascend till it reaches the summit of Lapstone Hill, and then it follows the range dividing the tributaries of the Nepean and Cox rivers from those of the Grose River, passing Springwood, Blue Mountain, Weatherboard, Pulpit Hill, Blackheath, 3494 feet, to near Shepherd's Toll-bar and Mount Victoria, 3422 feet above the sea. Here the line commences to diverge to the N. along Darling's Causeway, which divides the waters of the Lett from the sources of the Grose River to Bell's line of road, or the range dividing the Lett River and Grose River tributaries from those of the river Colo. Following this range to Dargan's Creek the line passes through Mount Clarence by a tunnel 539 yards in length, the rails at the entrance of which are 3658 feet above the sea-level. This is the summit level of the line, 88 miles from Sydney, and 52 miles from the commencement of the ascent of the Blue Mountain Ranges at Emu Plains. The line then descends on a gradient of 1 in 42 towards Lithgow Valley beyond, reaching the higher points of the Great Zig-zag, 91 miles from Sydney, at an elevation of 3362 feet. At this point the line runs nearly parallel with the main line, but in an opposite direction, for a distance of 67 chains. After passing two viaducts and through a short tunnel it reaches the lower points of the Zig-zag at an elevation of 3261 feet, and thence further descends towards Bathurst, which is situated 145 miles from Sydney, at an elevation of 2153 feet. Between Mount Clarence, 88 miles from Sydney, and Wallerawang, 105 miles, there are seven viaducts, of 2225 feet in length, averaging in height from 10 to 70 feet, and in span from 10 to 54 feet—the majority being 30 feet; also three tunnels—one at Lithgow Valley Zig-zag 77 yards in length, one at Morangaroo 267 yards in length, and one under the Mudgee Road 47 yards in length. The smallest radius of a curve in this section is 528 feet, the total length of such curves being 5 miles, including those upon the two Zig-zags. There are also 20 miles of curves ranging from 8 chains to 12 chains radius. In the whole work the number of viaducts is 8, of tunnels 4, of bridges 8, and of culverts 268. The total excavations amounted to about 3,040,000 cubic yards, of which 1,783,000 were through rock. The cost of construction alone was about £812,000.



SUPPLEMENT.

B.

BARRY, SIR REDMOND. The death of this distinguished man in November 1880, renders necessary some further particulars respecting his career. The *Argus* states that he "was the son of General Barry, of Ballyclogher, in the county of Cork, who intended his son to follow the same profession as himself. For this purpose the boy was placed, as soon as he was old enough, under the tuition of a competent preceptor at Bexley, in Kent, from whence he was to proceed to Addiscombe College. But as the old general's prospects of obtaining a commission for his son were diminished by the death of influential friends, the young man was induced to turn his attention to the study of the law, and he had for his fellow pupils in Dublin several persons like the late Isaac Butt, who afterwards distinguished themselves at the bar or in the senate. Having entered himself at the Dublin University, young Barry graduated as a B.A. in 1835, and was called to the Irish Bar in 1838. Just then, the Australian Colonies were beginning to be spoken of in the Mother Country as a land of promise to the uneasy classes; and equipped with a liberal outfit in the shape of good health, an excellent education, an adventurous spirit, and a buoyant disposition, young Barry determined to seek his fortune in a new country. Admitted to the Bar of N.S.W., of which colony Port Phillip was then an outlying settlement, Barry landed on these shores in November 1839. Melbourne then went by the name of 'Bearbrass.' It was a small, shabby, straggling township, a mere clearing in the bush; and the aspect of the place to any one coming fresh from a metropolitan city must have been depressing and discouraging in the extreme. But the young Irish barrister, having once put his hand to the plough, refused to look back. He commenced the practice of his profession, and his business naturally expanded with the growth of population in the settlement. A Court of Requests—the first legal tribunal founded here—was established, and he was appointed to the chairmanship of it. A taste for literature had to be fostered, and Barry gave lectures, and assisted to organise a Mechanics' Institute. A hospital was needed, and he was among the most

zealous of its promoters. In course of time the separation of Port Phillip from N.S.W. began to be agitated, and in this movement he took an active part, as also in the strenuous opposition offered by his fellow colonists to Earl Grey's inconsiderate proposition for the revival of transportation to the Australian Colonies. When the Colony of V. was created in 1851, Barry was appointed Solicitor-General, and in that capacity drafted many Acts with so much care and ability that, as a general rule, no subsequent amendment of them was found to be necessary. In the year following he was appointed judge, and, as he recently stated, his occupancy of a seat on the judicial bench has extended over a greater number of years than any other judge in any portion of the British Empire can lay claim to. When society was revolutionised by the gold discoveries, and people's heads were turned by the extraordinary events of 1851-2-3; when the thirst for wealth was universal, and its acquisition so easy; and when all men's thoughts were absorbed by their own selfish schemes, Barry devoted his attention to the practical execution of carefully considered schemes for the benefit of his own and of future generations. The revenue of the colony had decupled in the short space of two years, and was still increasing. What a splendid opportunity for founding two such noble institutions as the Melbourne University and the Free Public Library. He discerned it with the utmost clearness, and resolved to embrace it with a pertinacious determination which insured success. Other circumstances conspired to this end. The Government of the day was composed of educated gentlemen, who warmly sympathised with and cheerfully concurred in Barry's views. They granted forty acres of land for the purposes of a University, and sixty acres as the site for four colleges, to be erected by the principal religious denominations. They bestowed upon the former an annual endowment of £9000, and passed an act of incorporation for it. In its infancy it was the butt of trivial jesters, but its real founder lived to see it take its place among the higher educational institutions of the British Empire, and to know that its academic honours were highly prized by the fortunate recipients of them. It was only a fitting acknowledgment of the value of his services to the University that he should have been elected its

chancellor, an office which he sustained with appropriate suavity and dignity. The Public Library, Museums, and Picture Gallery are also institutions of which he might justly claim the paternity. By his untiring energy he succeeded in obtaining the large block of land, bounded by four streets, upon which this pile of buildings stands, and upon which has been expended nearly £120,000. It was in deference to his earnestly-expressed convictions that unreserved and unconditional access was permitted to the books in the Library from the very first, while his efforts have been unremittingly directed to increase its value and extend its usefulness. Differences of opinion may have arisen between himself and his co-trustees with respect to matters of detail, but there can be no question as to the singleness of purpose and the enthusiasm by which he was actuated in all he thought and did on behalf of the whole of the institutions thus grouped together. As he was their founder, so he continued to be their animating spirit; and the various officers who are engaged in them would no doubt cheerfully acknowledge that in their intercourse with him they found abundant occasion to respect the firmness of his authority, tempered as it was by the unvarying courtesy of his demeanour."

BUDD, RICHARD HALE, is a native of England, and was educated at Rugby under the celebrated Dr. Arnold. He graduated at Cambridge University in 1838. In 1840 he came to V. and was appointed Head-master of the Melbourne Diocesan Grammar School, the first public grammar school established in the colony in 1849. He was appointed Inspector under the Denominational Board in 1854, and Secretary to the Board in the following year. In 1856 he was Normal Inspector, and in 1859 the offices were joined in one. When Heales undertook the formation of a new system of education in 1862 the framing of the Act for that purpose was entrusted to Budd, who was appointed Inspector-General of Schools when the Act was passed. He retired on a pension when the present Act was passed in 1873. To him mainly is owing the organisation of the whole system of inspection, enumeration, and training established under the early boards, and which in its main principles continues in existence under the present system. Since his retirement from the public service, Budd has been actively and most efficiently engaged in the work of promoting the higher female education.

C.

CLARKE, MARCUS (1847—1881) journalist, was a native of London, and received the advantages of an excellent education. At a very early age he evinced signs of the ability which he afterwards exhibited as a writer. Related to Sir Andrew Clarke who was a member of the

first Administration under the Victorian Constitution, and to Judge Clarke, he came out to V. when a very young man, saw something of life on a squatting station, afterwards entered the Bank of Australasia, and gradually drifted into journalism, for which he seemed to feel a natural vocation. He joined the reporting staff of the *Argus*, and subsequently commenced and continued a series of pungent contributions to the *Australasian* under the signature of the "Peripatetic Philosopher." These were marked by much vivacity of expression, and by a style which, when it was at its best, resembled that of Alphonse Karr in caustic remark and epigrammatic sparkle. His first novel, entitled *Long Odds*, was published in 1868, and viewed in connection with the fact that it was the work of a man of only one-and-twenty, was a remarkable performance and full of promise. Five years later he produced *His Natural Life*, a work of fiction founded on a solid groundwork of fact, and illustrating the horrors of the old penal settlement at Port Arthur. It was republished in London, where it was most favourably reviewed by many journals of high critical repute; and it received the additional compliment of being translated into German, and of being reprinted in the United States. Clarke wrote many short stories, some of which displayed a graceful fancy in combination with stronger gifts; and most of these were afterwards issued in a collective shape. He composed or adapted three or four pantomimes and burlesques, and gave to the stage other dramatic productions with varying success. His gift of fluency and his facility of literary expression, although valuable in themselves, were probably antagonistic to him as regards his making for himself the enduring reputation which might have been secured by works demanding greater deliberation of purpose and execution, more sustained thought and steadier application. There was in his case a waste of intellectual power, owing to its distribution over a wide surface instead of its being concentrated on some important work, and strengthened and disciplined by high endeavour. But this was attributable perhaps to temperament, and in part to the stress of circumstances. In 1875 he was appointed assistant librarian to the Public Library, which he held till the time of his death.

K.

KINGSTON, SIR GEORGE, (1808-1880) was educated for the profession of surveyor and architect. He arrived in S.A. in the *Cygnat* in September 1836. With him were associated as passengers many persons whose names afterwards became familiar as household words, so intimately have they been identified with the history of the colony. When he came out in 1836 he was attached to the survey staff of Colonel Light, who

was first Surveyor-General, and who laid out the City of Adelaide. In the year 1837 he was appointed Surveyor-General of S.A., and under his supervision most of the local surveys in the early days were conducted. He resigned his position in 1838, and entered into business as a surveyor and architect. The Roman Catholic Cathedral in Wakefield-street, Adelaide, was designed by Kingston, but has never been finished in accordance with the original plans. In 1839 Kingston was made Inspector of Public Works, and about a year afterwards he accepted the post of Town Surveyor. His duties were discharged with characteristic energy and skill; and he did not neglect other matters where his services as a citizen and colonist could be useful, assisting in public movements, and lending his influence to effect social reforms in various directions. Not only in matters intimately affecting the political interests of the province did Kingston turn his mind to during his public career, but he was prominent as a Freemason, and in 1837 he opened the first Freemason's lodge established in S.A., of which he was constituted R.W.M. In 1840 he furnished an elaborate report on the subject of a railway to Port Adelaide. In 1841 Kingston was appointed member of the Statistical Society, and contributed a full and authentic account of the financial condition of the colony, its resources and prospects. In 1844 he appeared as hon. secretary to the Agricultural and Horticultural Society. Kingston was opposed to the introduction of the convict element, and took an active part in 1845 in the agitation raised against the proposed introduction of Parkhurst Reformatory boys. He was also against State-aid to religion. In 1849 he was amongst the foremost in advancing the establishment of responsible government; and in March 1851 he came out as a candidate for the Legislative Council under the new Constitution Act. He was elected member for the Burra in August of the same year, and voted against the first reading of the bill for State-aid to religion. He was elected Speaker of the House of Assembly in 1857, and held the office until 1860, when he was out of Parliament for two years. Returned for the Burra in 1863 he was re-elected Speaker, and retained the office until the prorogation when he resigned on account of failing health. Latterly he represented the district of Stanley, and the interests of that constituency had certainly not suffered in his hands. The well-merited honour of knighthood was conferred upon him in 1870, as a reward for his long and faithful public services.

M.

MACDONNELL, SIR RICHARD GRAVES.

—The death of this gentleman occurred in London on 7th February 1881.

MALAY ARCHIPELAGO.—I. GEOGRAPHICAL OUTLINE.—Of all the great island groups of the

globe, the richest in every respect is the Malay Archipelago, lying between Southern Asia and A., and made up of the fragments of two continents, although now forming a distinct geographical unit. There is every reason to believe that Asia and A. were united during the latter part of the Secondary epoch, while the processes of subsidence and upheaval resulting in the present insular formations were not fully developed till a much later period. The Australian continent was probably first broken up, as indicated by the very deep seas which now separate the several islands of the Moluccas from each other; while the Asiatic continent may have remained longer entire, and its comparative recent subsidence is equally well shown by the very shallow sea—always under fifty fathoms deep—which separates the great islands of Java, Sumatra, and Borneo from each other and from the mainland of Southern Asia. The extensive submarine plateau comes to an abrupt termination at the little island of Bali, east of Java, there being a channel of great depth, though very narrow, between it and the adjacent island of Lombok. The same deep channel is continued northwards through the straits of Macassar and the Celebes Sea, and between the islands of Mindanao and northern Celebes into the Pacific Ocean. Hence one-half only of what is sometimes called the East Indian Archipelago, and included in Asia, is really connected with that continent. The eastern half is essentially Australasian, not only as regards the history of its origin, but also in its fauna and flora. Even ethnically this extensive insular system belongs to two clearly distinct races—the Malay and the Papuan—so that the current expression, "Malay Archipelago," here adopted, is deficient in thorough accuracy. The line dividing the two typical races lies, however, considerably to the E. of that which separates the two zoological regions, the Malays extending to Celebes, Sumbawa, and to most of the islands of the Moluccas. But, while conforming to the hitherto received custom of arbitrarily including under one appellation the whole of the archipelago as far as the Moluccas and Timor, we may here still recognise several distinct groups traversed in great waves by one of the mightiest and most active volcanic systems on the globe. These groups are—in the N. the Philippines, followed to the S. by the Moluccas; further westwards, by Celebes and by the Lesser and the Greater Sunda Archipelagoes, by the latter of which are understood the three large islands of Sumatra, Java, and Borneo. All these groups—of which the Philippines, with Sumatra, Java, and Borneo, are properly Asiatic—are separated from each other by straits or passages, each bearing a distinctive name. By far the greater number belong politically to Holland, which here possesses a colonial empire with its seat in Java, rivalling in prosperity the British East Indian possessions. Besides the Dutch, we find the Portuguese established on the Australasian island of Timor, while the Spaniard

rules almost exclusively in the Philippines. Some islands or portions of islands are still independent, or subject to native sultans.

II. PHYSICAL FEATURES.—VOLCANOES.—The Malay Archipelago is traversed throughout its whole extent by one of the most extensive and continuous volcanic belts upon the globe. Commencing in the north-western part of Sumatra, beyond the equator, it extends through that island and Java, then through the Lesser Sunda Islands to the E. end of Timor. Here it turns in a north-easterly curve by Banda, Amboyna and Bouru to Gilole and Ternate. Thence turning westward to the northern extremity of Celebes it bends abruptly to the N., and passes through the entire range of the Philippines to the extreme N. of Luzon. The number of true volcanic peaks and craters in this belt is very great, and they form a continuous chain, with seldom more than an interval of a hundred miles from one to the other. A very large proportion of them are in a state of activity, and many have devastated the surrounding country within the historic era. In Sumatra there are five active volcanoes, in Java twenty, in the Lesser Sunda Isles seven, in the Banda and Molucca groups about the same number, in Northern Celebes and the adjacent islands four or five, and in the Philippines more than a dozen. Many of these are perpetually smoking, while others have been frequently in eruption since the occupation of the country by Europeans, and have often been accompanied by disastrous earthquakes. Hardly less remarkable than the extent and continuity of this belt of volcanoes is the complete absence of all volcanic vents in the surrounding districts. The great island of Borneo, and all of Celebes except the extreme northern point, are absolutely free from all signs of recent volcanic action; and the same may be said of every island which lies on either side of the band—as the Peninsula of Malacca, Madura, Sumba, Timor Laut, Ceram, Mysol, New Guinea, and Palawan. In all these countries we have ancient crystalline rocks, granite and extensive tertiary beds, but no indication of volcanic outbursts. From the acknowledged fact of the very general vicinity of active volcanoes to the ocean, we may perhaps interpret this phenomenon as pointing out to us in this great volcanic band the outer limits of very ancient continents, while the lands on either side have once formed inland portions of those continents. This agrees sufficiently well with what we know of the existing distribution of animal life, if we suppose Celebes and the other islands to the eastward as far as the volcanic belt to have been separated from Asia at a very early period, when its fauna assimilated much more with that of A. than it does now; while the islands to the W. of Celebes were only separated from the continent at a very much later epoch, after they had participated in all the more recent and higher developments of its flora and fauna. This view will explain some of the great

peculiarities of the fauna of Celebes. In this extensive chain of volcanic mountains many attain great heights, especially in Sumatra and Java. Each of these islands has one mountain about 12,300 feet high, while the former has four and the latter eight which exceed 10,000 feet. In no other part of the chain, except in Bali and Lombok, immediately E. of Java, are there any heights which approach these. The volcanoes of the Philippines and Northern Celebes do not appear to exceed 6000 or 7000 feet, and those of the Moluccas from 4000 to 5000 feet. There is only one mountain in the whole Malay Archipelago that exceeds in height the lofty peaks of Sumatra and Java, the isolated mass of Kini Balou, near the northern extremity of Borneo, which is said to be 13,698 feet high, and which is probably far higher than any other mountain in the island, or than any non-volcanic mountain in the whole Archipelago. The summit of Kini Balou is syenitic granite, and it probably represents a portion of the most ancient extension of the Asiatic continent in Tertiary or Secondary times, since it contains plants allied to some now only found in temperate A. From the position of these Malayan islands between 19° N. and 10° S. of the equator, they all enjoy that equality of climate and abundance of moisture which are so highly favourable to the growth of arboreal vegetation, and which have produced the great forest-belt everywhere girdling the earth in the equatorial zone. Hence the general condition of almost all the islands is to be covered with luxuriant tropical forests where not destroyed by man, and this forest-covering even spreads over all except the very highest summits or precipitous rocky slopes of the mountains. There is only one portion of the region where there appears to be a natural deficiency of forest, due to peculiarities of climate caused by the vicinity of the heated interior of A. From the east end of Java through all the islands to Timor Laut, the dense forests that everywhere cover the other islands are the exception rather than the rule, occurring only in valleys and on the moister slopes of the mountains. The rest consists of grassy plains, dotted with palms and thorny bushes, which latter often form dense and impenetrable thickets. During the prevalence of the S.E. monsoon, from April to October, scarcely any rain falls in this area, and towards the latter end of this dry season the drought is so great that many small streams dry up, and most of the trees lose their leaves. The heat is then intense; and were it not that the nights are cool and a breeze always blowing, the climate would approach in severity that of A. itself. As it is, the chief effect is seen in the long-continued dryness of the atmosphere being inimical to that luxuriant forest growth which elsewhere in the equatorial zones clothes the earth with perennial verdure, and affords a constant protection from the rays of the vertical sun. The only other parts of the Archipelago where any extent

of open country occurs are in Northern Borneo, in Southern Celebes, and some of the Philippine Islands, but in these cases it is probably due to human agency aided by the introduction of cattle which have become wild. The densely-peopled plains of Java and the elevated plateaus of Sumatra are highly cultivated, and have been so long the seat of an ancient civilisation that the absence of forest is clearly not to be considered a natural feature.

III. THE MALAY RACE AND LANGUAGE.—Of the two indigenous races of the Archipelago, the Malays and the Papuans, the Malays are decidedly the more highly developed, the more populous and important. They have spread their language, their domestic animals, and some of their customs, widely throughout the Pacific and Indian Oceans, in many instances to islands where they have effected no sort of change in the physical or moral characteristics of the indigenous inhabitants. This wide diffusion of Malay influence is an extraordinary phenomenon, for the Malay race itself has by no means such an extensive range, although it has been generally supposed that all the brown tribes with straight or nearly straight hair, generally termed Polynesians, which are widely scattered in the tropical and sub-tropical South Sea Islands, belong to this division of mankind. Since W. von Humboldt's studies of the old Kawi language of Java, we know that the dominant race in Madagascar and the Comoro group also belongs to the Malay linguistic family. Hence the common statement that this race has spread from the Comoros to Easter Island, lying between the 45° E. long. and 110° W. long., or more than half the circumference of the globe. But this view as to the extent of the Malayan peoples is held by many modern writers to be quite erroneous, and they accordingly give the Malays a much more restricted habitation. The editor of this volume has always maintained that the brown Polynesians are really quite distinct from the Malays, and except in colour, seem to have more affinity with the dark woolly-haired races of the Pacific; or, which now seems more probable, are equally distinct from both. This view is supported by two writers who have great knowledge of the races and languages of the Pacific. W. S. W. Vaux, in a paper on the *Probable Origin of the Maoris*, read before the Anthropological Institute in 1876, maintains that there was once a distinct Polynesian language, and that the connection of the modern languages of the brown Polynesians with the Malay is by no means so intimate as many able philologists have asserted. Still more important and weighty is the evidence of W. L. Ranken, who, in a paper on the *South Sea Islanders*, read before the same society a few months later, proposes the native term "Mahori" for the brown Polynesians, and shows that their language is totally distinct from the Malay, has a different construction, has very few Malay roots, and only a few quite recent Malay words. Though resembling

Malays both physically and mentally in some respects, the Mahoris differ greatly from them in others. They have a much greater average height, their features are much more of the European type, and their hair is typically wavy. He traces this race to Samoa as their first home in the Pacific, but primarily from some part of the Asiatic Continent. He says—"We are thus led to these conclusions; that they are of some kindred race to the Malays, of Mongolian stock; that they have separated from that stock as distinctly, and perhaps as early, as the Malays themselves, and always had a distinct language; that they dwelt some time in Papua, and perhaps in other lands of the Malay Archipelago, and there learnt some new words from Malay traders; thence they migrated to Samoa, and have since colonised the South Sea, sometimes displacing Papuan settlers. In spreading northward from Samoa they met another branch of their own family in the Kingsmill Islands, who had probably travelled along the Caroline Archipelago from the Philippines, and show another exodus of the same family about the same time." This convergence of the views of three modern writers, each starting from a different point and reasoning from a distinct set of observations, as to the radical distinctness of the Malays and brown Polynesians, will justify us in giving up the term Malayo-Polynesian as altogether misleading. We shall therefore adopt Ranken's name "Mahoris" as equivalent to that of "Brown Polynesians" used by many authors. The Malays belong then, undoubtedly, to the so-called Mongolian division of mankind, and this is well illustrated by the strong resemblance between some of the higher types of each. In the Island of Bali, A. R. Wallace was unable to distinguish them from some Chinese immigrants, who had laid aside their national dress. They are of a brown complexion and somewhat small, the men being on the average three or four inches below the mean European height. The face is of a somewhat square or rather rhomboid form, not much longer than broad, with high and prominent cheek-bones; eyes black, but rarely oblique; mouth wide and large, with thick well-cut lips; broad lower jaw, round and shapely chin, nose small and short neither flat like the Negro nor prominent like the European, nostrils very dilated, occiput flat and square, with thick coarse black hair but with weak and scanty beard, and that almost invariably plucked out by the roots. The sexes resemble each other so closely that strangers are often at first puzzled to distinguish between the two. The Malay is naturally of an easy-going, indolent character. In his intercourse with others he betrays a certain reserve, diffidence and even shyness, which has induced many to suppose that there must be some exaggeration in the current accounts of his savage and bloodthirsty nature. He never gives open expression to a sense of astonishment, surprise or fear, and is probably little affected by such

sentiments. Slow and deliberate of speech, he leads up in roundabout ways to the subject he may have come expressly to inquire into. Both women and children are timid, and shrink from the unexpected sight of a European. In the society of the male sex they are silent, and in general quiet and submissive. When alone the Malay is gloomy and taciturn, never either singing or talking to himself. But when paddling together in canoes they will occasionally chaunt a monotonous wailing song. They seldom offend each other, nor are they prone to wrangling over money matters, scarcely venturing even to claim what is lawfully their own. Coarse horse-play is especially repugnant to them, the Malay being extremely sensitive on all points of etiquette and of encroachments on his personal freedom. The upper classes are exceedingly courteous, comporting themselves with all the quiet dignity of a well-educated European. Yet this outward refinement, strange to say, co-exists in them with the most pitiless cruelty and contempt of human life, traits which belong to the dark side of their character. Herein lies the explanation of the many diametrically opposed judgments, in the various accounts given by observers of their mental characteristics. Some tell us that these dwellers by the sea are ever hospitable and trustworthy, quiet and extremely indolent, but with an insatiable passion for gambling which all prohibitive measures have failed to suppress. Other accounts describe them as impulsive, without self-control, little to be relied upon and of fickle disposition. Improvident, lazy and averse to work they would gladly assume the rôle of superior beings, whose lofty aspirations and sense of freedom are degraded by the menial occupations necessary to secure a livelihood. They are however distinguished by greater energy and acquisitiveness from the other races of the Indian Archipelago, though Islam has deprived even them of all higher aims in life, splitting up their local communes and reducing their pursuits mainly to navigation and piracy. Theft and kidnapping are thought lightly of, while insults real or imaginary are savagely avenged on the spot. They are at the same time unforgetful of wrong, false and wily, so that solemn oaths are uttered with no intention of keeping them and poisonings are very common. They are passionately fond of opium-smoking, though this is a less common vice than among the Chinese; and of betting over their cock-fights, often staking their very selves and their personal freedom on the issue. On the other hand they are very frugal; and characteristic of their contentedness is the current expression asking for a present: "Kachil presentie, tuwan, poer makan;" that is "A little present, sir, to eat." Hence the eating-houses take the place of our drinking-houses, and are their chief places of resort. Here they indulge in dry rice, capsicums, little scraps of meat or fish, cooked vegetables and sweet tibbits handed round with a cup of hot water. The Malays are nominally Moslems, but lack the fanaticism of that religion. The Javanese, especially,

consider they have done enough by observing the rite of circumcision, the prescribed ablutions, and the Ramadan fast, while at the same time retaining many of the old Hindoo ideas. Some of them are Christians, that is to say they attend the services of the Dutch Church, abstain from shaving their heads or filing down their teeth, and drink wine and spirits. The *lingua franca* of the whole East Indian Archipelago is the Low Malay, which contains no rough or harsh gutturals or other consonants difficult of utterance, but is soft and musical in its liquid sounds somewhat resembling the Italian. All Europeans in the Dutch and English possessions speak this language, which is easily and rapidly acquired. The Malays, to whom the preceding description is generally applicable, and who agree closely with those of the Malayan Peninsula, inhabit all the islands from Sumatra to Sumbawa, Celebes, the Philippines, Bouru and Ternate, with outlying settlements in Gilolo, Ceram, Amboyna, Banda, and at several points on the Papuan islands. Only a small portion of these speak the Malay language, which is found chiefly in the central plateau of Sumatra, and around the coast of Borneo. In every other part of the Malayan area other languages are spoken, some of which are dialects of Malay, others distinct but allied languages; while many, as the Bugis of Macassar, and especially the languages of the people of Ternate and Tidori, are totally unlike Malay. Again the Malays may be divided into two great groups—the savage and the semi-civilised people. The Dyaks of Borneo are the best example of the former. They have no writing or literature, no regular government or religion, and they wear only the scantiest clothing of the usual savage type. But they are by no means a low class of savages, for they build good houses, they cultivate the ground, they make pottery and canoes, they work in iron, and they even construct roads and bridges. In the same stage are some of the inland tribes of Sumatra, Celebes and Bouru. The semi-civilised people comprise all the other Malayan tribes. These possess written languages, and many of them peculiar alphabets; they have some scanty literature, established governments, and some form of religion; they wear a regular costume, they spin and weave cotton or other textile fabrics, and make use of a considerable variety of tools and weapons.—*Wallace*.

N.

NEW CALEDONIA is the most southerly of the Melanesian Islands. It lies in a N.W. and S.E. direction, its northern extremity being on the same parallel as the most southern island of the New Hebrides, Aneiteum, from which it is distant about 250 miles to the S.S.W., and it is about 700 miles from the nearest point of the coast of A. It is 250 miles long and 37 wide, with an area

of about 6000 square miles. It lies in an almost perfect straight line, and retains a width of twenty-five miles and upwards to near both extremities. It is almost entirely encircled by coral reefs, which extend along the S. side at a distance of from five to eighteen miles from the shore, but approach somewhat nearer on the N., and extend a long way beyond its two extremities, so that if they indicate the former extent of the island, it was once double its present length and width. The island is very mountainous, with fine picturesque valleys, and towards the N. a double range with an extensive valley between them. The mountains approach nearer the E. than the W. coast, with many branches and isolated peaks, and with an extensive plateau towards the centre. Several of the peaks appear to have an elevation of from 4000 to 5000 feet, but the highest point has not been ascertained. The geological formation is chiefly sedimentary, consisting of schists, limestones, serpentine, and gneiss, with ancient plutonic rocks, but no volcanoes. It is rich in gold but more so in nickel, a metal hitherto found in comparatively small quantities only, there being but few places in the world where its ores occur in sufficient abundance to allow of its being worked with profit. The most important nickel mines of New Caledonia lie on the E. coast, and the most productive are those of Kannala and Ballarod in Onailou. There is also abundance of copper ores, and a copper mine is worked near Balade. New Caledonia differs from all the other islands of Melanesia in its drier and cooler climate, due to its position between 20° and 23° 20' S. latitude. It is thus outside the equatorial belt of forests, and we find accordingly that much of its surface is bare and arid-looking, or partially clothed with bushes and mast-like pines. In the north only, and on some of the mountain sides, is there any extent of forest country. There are however many fine timber trees, one of the most valuable of which is the aromatic Niaouli. The zoology of the island is little known, but seems to be poor. Terrestrial mammals are probably wanting; while the birds exhibit a mixture of Australian and Polynesian forms, those characteristic of the New Guinea fauna being quite absent. One of the most remarkable birds is the *Rhinocetus jubatus* or Kagu, allied to the herons, but forming a distinct family. The natives of New Caledonia are a well-made race, with frizzly hair, dark skins, and pronounced features, the nose being large and greatly depressed at the root, as with the New Hebrideans. Cook described them as being intermediate between the people of Tanna and Fiji, and Erskine agrees that this accurately describes their characteristics. Cook also described them as being courteous and friendly, and not in the least addicted to pilfering—a character which subsequent writers have denied them. Like many other savages, they have probably been spoiled by association with Europeans. They differ from other Melaneseans in having circular houses, well

and strongly built, with a high conical roof surmounted with a carved post or finial. They cultivate yams, bananas, and sugar-cane, and are superior to every other race of the Pacific in their agriculture, irrigating their land with almost as much skill and care as the Balinese. Yet they use no clothing, and are said to be as thorough cannibals as the New Hebrideans. They offered a brave resistance to the French, and are far from contemptible opponents. Although possessing firearms their chief tactics consist in falling on the enemy from ingeniously devised ambuscades. Some tribes still number as many as 2000, but the native element is disappearing here no less rapidly than elsewhere in Oceania, wherever it has come into either friendly or hostile contact with the white man. Various local causes combine to accelerate the process in New Caledonia, where the natives are as quarrelsome and cruel towards each other as towards strangers. Family feuds are further fomented by polygamy, and the female births are far less numerous than the male, while the men themselves perish in large numbers by internecine warfare, intemperance, and domestic and foreign vices. New Caledonia was taken possession of by France in 1853, and is used as a penal settlement as well as a colony. The chief town is Noumea or Port de France, a place of about 5000 inhabitants; and the country around it is said to resemble some parts of the Australian colony of V. The cultivation of sugar, coffee, cotton, tobacco and indigo has been introduced. There are six sugar-mills in the colony, and the coffee and cotton plantations are said to be doing well. Cocoanut oil is also largely manufactured. Cattle, sheep and horses do well, and the wool is of superior quality, though as yet only produced in small quantities by the missionaries. Cattle however thrive best and are most profitable. Good roads, fortifications, public buildings and a lighthouse have been constructed by convict labour. Notwithstanding the alleged pacification of the island, the relations of the aborigines and the colonists continue to be unsatisfactory. They are mutually suspicious of each other, and the whites have hitherto failed to render the natives serviceable labourers by proper food, fair wages, and humane treatment.

The Isle of Pines lies thirty miles from the south-eastern extremity of New Caledonia and is about eight miles across. It is a raised coral island, the centre forming a plateau about 250 feet above the sea-level, and is remarkable for the abundance of araucarias and sandal-wood. Many massacres occurred here among the early traders, but some Englishmen have long been settled there, and found that with proper treatment it was not difficult to obtain the goodwill of the natives. It is now used by the French as the residence of those prisoners who are not condemned to labour.

The Loyalty Islands form a small chain parallel to New Caledonia, from which they are distant about seventy miles. They consist of three principal islands, Ouvéa or Uéa, Lifou, and Maré

They are all coralline and comparatively sterile, but they abound in sandal-wood, which has caused them to be much visited. Araucarias also abound here, as in the larger island. Lifou, the largest and central island of the three, is thirty-five miles long by about fifteen wide. Uea, the smallest, consists really of two islands, and is not above the sixth part the size of Lifou. Maré, to the south, is about half as large as Lifou. None of them rise more than 300 feet above the sea, and only Uea has a good harbour formed by a surrounding reef. All the islands were once thickly peopled, but they have now greatly diminished. The inhabitants closely resemble the natives of the New Hebrides, the "Chief of Maré" and "Man of Tanna" figured in Captain Erskine's book being so much alike that they might be taken for brothers. Thirty years ago they were cannibals and altogether thorough savages, though they appear to have been more moral and more kindly than the New Hebrideans. Now they are, in Maré especially, the most civilised of any Melanesians. On Maré most of the people are Christians; they build good houses, work, trade, and save money. In the other islands they are more backward. They all build double canoes, and they use neither kava nor betel. There is however a mixture of two races, and in Uea especially there is a regular colony of Polynesians who are said to have come from Wallis Island not more than two generations back. A similar immigration of the dark race seems to have occurred from Maré to Maer or Murray Island in Torres Straits, the people of which are said by Jukes to resemble those of the Loyalty Islands and New Caledonia.—Wallace.

O.

ORMOND, FRANCIS. A colonist of V. and the founder of the fine College in connection with the Presbyterian body, affiliated to the Melbourne University. Ormond contributed the sum of £20,000 to the project, and other subscriptions to the amount of about £12,000 were received, so that when the College was opened on 14th November 1880 the building was entirely free from debt.

P.

PARKER, SIR HENRY WATSON. The death of this gentleman took place in London in February 1881.

PITCAIRN ISLAND. At the extreme south-eastern limits of the Low Archipelago, and far out of sight of any other land, lies the small and mountainous Pitcairn Island, celebrated as having been colonised by the "mutineers of the *Bounty*."

It is only two miles in extreme length and three-quarters of a mile wide, with a fertile volcanic soil, but rocky and mountainous, rising to a height of 2500 feet, so that much of its surface must be too precipitous for cultivation. It is situated in 25° 3' S. latitude, or just beyond the southern tropic, and has a fine climate, producing all tropical fruits and vegetables. It was in 1790 that nine British sailors, six Tahitian men and twelve women arrived at this speck in the ocean. By discord and murder they were reduced in ten years to one man (an English sailor named Adams,) the Tahitian women and nineteen children. The story of how this ignorant English sailor suddenly rose to the responsibilities of his position, and trained up this little community to habits of industry and morality and the practice of true religion, is one of the most wonderful and encouraging episodes in the social history of mankind. The little colony was first discovered in 1808 by an American ship, the *Topaze*, which brought the news to England. They were afterwards visited by two frigates, the *Briton* and the *Tagus*, and in 1825 by Captain Beechy in the discovery ship *Blossom*, who found a community of sixty-six persons living in a state of uninterrupted peace and harmony, and in a veritable Garden of Eden. Groves of cocoanut and bread-fruit trees clothed the rocks down to the water's edge, while in the deep valleys tropical fruits and vegetables flourished luxuriantly. Their village stood on a platform of rock shaded by plantains and fig trees, and surrounded an open square covered with grass. It was encircled by palisades to keep out the hogs and goats which roamed over the island, and which, with fowls, supplied abundance of animal food. Their houses were clean and comfortable. Their clothing, entirely made from the bark of the paper-mulberry, was neat and graceful. They all lived as one united family, and crime or even dissension was unknown. Injudiciously, as we think, this intensely interesting social experiment was brought to an end by the interference of well-meaning people. The Pitcairn Islanders were removed, first to Tahiti, then back again to Pitcairn Island. Then in 1856 they were all removed to Norfolk Island, far inferior to their own in climate and soil, though somewhat larger. In 1858 some of them returned to Pitcairn, where in 1869 they were visited by Sir Charles Dilke, and were doing well. In 1873 Commander Mainwaring found seventy-six inhabitants on the island, and he remarks that epidemic or endemic diseases were unknown among them. So recently as September 1878 they had been visited by Admiral De Horsey, who found them to have increased to ninety, all in good health and quite happy; and he adds that Beechey's testimony to their good qualities, given fifty-three years ago, holds good to this day, since they still continue "to live together in perfect harmony and contentment; to be virtuous, religious, cheerful and hospitable; to be patterns of conjugal and parental affection, and

to have very few vices." De Horsey concludes by saying that no one acquainted with these islanders could fail to respect them, and that they will lose rather than gain by contact with other communities. Although the island was quite uninhabited when the mutineers of the *Bounty* arrived there, many remains show that a considerable population must once have lived on it. Burial-places, large flat paving-stones, stone spear-heads and axes, round stone balls, and even stone images, sufficiently prove that this remote speck of land had not only been visited by stray savages, but had been the settled abode of a considerable population, who yet had time to devote to the carving of stone images with tools of the same material.—*Wallace.*

R.

RESPONSIBLE GOVERNMENT IN AUSTRALIA. The Australian Colonies were founded exclusively by natural-born subjects of the English Crown. There was in them no question as to native governments or as to the rights of a foreign race. Certain Englishmen moved their residence from one portion of their Sovereign's dominions to another portion. They naturally took with them all the rights and all the duties that are personal to the subjects of the Crown. They did not cease to be Englishmen because they were colonists. So much of the law of their native island as was merely local and peculiar to the circumstances of that island they left behind. But those free customs which form the birthright of every Englishman accompanied them across the sea and governed their conduct in their new homes. Among these free customs is the right of self-government. When a new community of Englishmen is formed in any distant place, the Crown may by its prerogative organise and incorporate that community, just as it may incorporate any number of people for any lawful purpose in England, and may prescribe the form of their government and of their courts. But that government must be representative; no tax can be raised and no law can be enacted without the consent of the community as expressed by their representatives; and the courts must proceed according to the rules of the common law, and by no other method. From these principles the political organisation of the colonies naturally follows. The colonists, like their fellow-countrymen in the towns and the shires of the old country, make their own rules for their own affairs, but in all other respects remain subject to the authority of the central Government. As every municipality makes its own bye-laws, while it is subject to the general law of the land, so every colony makes its own laws for its own wants, while in all matters of extra-colonial concern it is governed by the Parliament of the empire. In other words colonists are subject to two kinds of

law—one personal, the other territorial. To the former they are subject by virtue of their allegiance; to the latter they are subject by the common law right of self-government, and by the constitution given to them by the Imperial Parliament. We do not propose here to trace the constitutional history of the Australian Colonies. It is sufficient to observe that, with the exception of W.A., they all now possess what is known as responsible government. Their Legislative Chambers are not mere Legislatures, but are true Parliaments. That is, these Chambers do not merely enact laws and impose taxes, but also superintend the administration of the Government in all its details, and advise the Crown in the exercise of its discretionary powers. The agency by which this general supervision is practically carried into effect is the institution familiarly known as the Ministry. Her Majesty, of course, controls and directs the conduct of all her servants. In this duty she is advised by her principal servants, who are at the head of the various great departments of the State. These principal servants she habitually appoints or removes as they possess, or do not possess, the general confidence and support of Parliament, or at least of the more popular House of Parliament. Such are the principles on which, in the exercise of her great discretionary powers, Her Majesty now invariably acts; and it is the duty of the Governors of her colonies sedulously to follow in these respects her Royal example. The system of responsible government in the colonies is of very recent date. It was commenced in Canada in 1840, but was not fully established in that country until several years later. In V. and N.S.W. it was introduced in 1855 simultaneously with the new constitution of the Legislatures in these colonies. The exact process of this double change was as follows:—The former Legislature which had been established by previous acts of the present reign consisted of the Governor or Lieutenant-Governor and the Legislative Council, a single Chamber composed partly of representatives and partly of nominees. These bodies prepared projects of law for constitutions for their respective colonies. Under these bills the legislative power was vested in Her Majesty with the advice and counsel of two houses, styled respectively the Legislative Council and the Legislative Assembly. But as the previous Legislatures were constituted by Imperial legislation, and as other matters, especially the control of the Crown lands over which the colonists were anxious to possess control, were also regulated by the same authority, it became necessary to invite the assistance of the mother country. In July 1855 two Acts of the Imperial Parliament were accordingly passed empowering Her Majesty to assent to the bills prepared by the colonial Legislatures, which bills were set out in schedules to the Acts and repealing the Imperial laws inconsistent with them. The colonial Legislatures in their

matured form were thus called into existence and thereupon the Crown proceeded to recognise these Parliaments as its authorised advisers not only in legislation, but in all the affairs of state. The method by which this important change was accomplished was very simple, but very effective. Since it related to the exercise of Her Majesty's discretion, it was obviously unfit for legislation; and accordingly no mention of responsible Ministers is found in the text of the Constitution Act. But an instruction was given to the Governor respecting the tenure of certain officers. Previously all Her Majesty's servants in the colony, although they technically held office during pleasure, were permitted to understand that they would not be removed except for some sufficient cause. But after the new constitution came into force, certain heads of departments were apprised that in future they must consider that political reasons would be regarded as a sufficient cause for their dismissal. This was all, and this was enough. Although the general features of the Australian Governments are thus alike, their details vary. This difference shows itself chiefly in the construction of the Upper House. In some colonies this Chamber is nominated by the Crown; in others it is elective. Of the elective Chambers, again, some are chosen from the entire colony, which is regarded as a single constituency. Others again are chosen by enlarged constituencies called provinces. But these distinctions are only superficial, and it will suffice for an acquaintance with the whole group if we describe the structure of the Parliament of V. In this colony the two Houses are elective, and as established by the Constitution Act presented a certain symmetry. The Council contained half the number of members in the Assembly, and was elected for twice as long a term. The one House was composed of thirty members elected for ten years; the latter of sixty members elected for five years. The Assembly was dissoluble by the Governor; the Council was not dissoluble, but was recruited by the retirement of its members according to a triennial rotation. The main difference of the houses was in the property qualification both of the electors and the elected. Members of the Council were required to have a property qualification in freehold estate to the value of £5000; members of the Assembly a like qualification to the value of £2000. The franchise for the Council was fixed for £100 a year, that for the Assembly at £10. Some of the earliest acts of the new Parliament were the repeal of these provisions successively, so far as they related to the Assembly. The property qualification of members was abolished. The number of members was increased until it attained its present number—eighty-six. Manhood suffrage was adopted. While these great changes were in progress the form of the Council was unchanged. At length after a bitter contest with the Assembly, a change was made in the hope of obtaining a wider and a surer basis. The

property qualification both for members and for electors was reduced one-half. A further change in the same direction is now imminent, and the Council has more than once passed a bill providing for a restoration of the lost symmetry, for a proportionate increase in the number of its members, and for the proportionate decrease in their term of office; for a reduction in the size of the provinces, and for a wide extension of the franchise. Two co-ordinate bodies are naturally liable to occasional misunderstandings. The House of Lords and the House of Commons have had in their day fierce conflicts. It is not therefore surprising that the course of Australian Legislatures has not always run smoothly; but although in all the colonies the dissensions have been sharp, none of them have had such formidable differences as those which have occurred in Victoria. With the view of giving effect to the recognised practice of the two Houses of the Imperial Parliament in financial matters, the Constitution Act provides in substance that all bills for appropriating revenue and for imposing taxation must originate in the Assembly, and must not be amended, although they may be rejected, by the Council. We cannot now enter upon the questions how far this attempt to translate into positive law a rule of practice of the Imperial Parliament, and to give effect to a portion of that practice without reference to other portions, has fulfilled the intention of its framers. We shall only observe that the Assembly made use of the special power thus given to it as an instrument for coercing the Council. It included in the Appropriation Bill provisions which it believed that the Council, if they were presented in a separate form, would not pass. The only remedy which in the circumstances the law allowed to the Council was to lay the bill aside and refuse to consider it. This course was adopted, and the result was the temporary suspension of the supplies for the public service, and great individual suffering and much public inconvenience. Four times (once in relation to the protection tariff, twice in relation to a proposed gratuity to the wife of a recalled Governor, and once in relation to the payment of members,) have deadlocks of this kind occurred during the last fifteen years. Various attempts have been made to make legal provision against their recurrence, but hitherto without success. Apart, however, from these deplorable interruptions, the Legislature of V. has not been inactive. During the three-and-twenty years that have elapsed since its first meeting in 1857, it has passed upwards of 600 Acts. Many of these, it is true, are merely formal; but many others are of the highest public importance. On some occasions too there have been grave differences between the Colonial Ministry, supported by a large majority in the Assembly, and the Imperial Government. It is, therefore, important to understand the arrangements by which both the legislation and the administration of the two countries, of the empire

and of the colony, are kept in harmony. We have seen that in every colony there are two legislative organs, namely, the local Legislature and the Imperial Parliament. Both these organs are in constant operation. The general rule is that no Imperial Act binds the colonies, except by express word or by necessary implication. There is however a large body of colonial law derived from this source. For an average of the last twenty years about eight or ten Acts which bind the colonies have been passed in England every year. It is remarkable that in these colonies the two Legislatures have so carefully observed the boundaries of their respective provinces that many persons seem not to be aware that any such double legislative power exists. If however any conflict of legislation were to take place, the rule for settling it is thoroughly ascertained. The judges have to administer the law from whatever source it is derived; and if two Acts conflict, the weaker, that is the colonial, must give way. Originally the rule ran much in the same form in which power is usually given to corporations to make bye-laws—that a colonial Act must not be repugnant to the law of England; but it is now settled that repugnancy means not mere diversity but actual conflict. We may make what laws we like provided that they do not contradict any statute which is distinctly applicable to the colony; but although the Imperial Parliament possesses this power, the exercise of that power is, in practice, vigorously limited. It is a fundamental maxim of Parliamentary practice that it is unconstitutional for the Imperial Parliament to legislate for the domestic affairs of a colony which has a legislature of its own. It is strictly legal for the Imperial Parliament to pass any such laws; and these laws, if they were enacted, would be binding upon the colonists, and it would be the duty of the courts and of the Government to enforce them; but such an exercise of power would be contrary to usage, and would not be in pursuance of a sound discretion. The Imperial Parliament therefore, while it reserves this power for use in cases of grave emergency, sedulously abstains from an unsolicited interference in matters of purely local legislation. It is only on matters of Imperial or of extra-colonial concern that it ordinarily uses its legislative rights. The principal means by which the danger of collision between the two Legislatures is practically avoided is the authority and influence of the Crown. The consent of the Governor, on behalf of Her Majesty, is necessary for all colonial legislation; but the Governor, as the servant of the Queen, is bound to obey her commands, and is removable at her pleasure. There are certain classes of bills to which, by his instructions, he is not permitted to give the Royal assent, and which he is required to reserve for her Majesty's special consideration. With such cases—and they are, of course, those in respect to which difficulties are most likely to arise—Her Majesty is thus free to deal without any

embarrassment arising out of the action of the Governor; but in all cases, even after the Governor has assented, whether rightly or wrongly, to a Bill, the Crown retains the power of disallowing it within a period of two years. This power however like that of Imperial legislation, is rarely exercised. Generally if the Colonial Office objects to a Bill on the ground of its being in excess of the colonial powers, a new Bill, amended so as to meet the objection, is passed without trouble. If the objection be not of law but of policy, the Secretary of State for the Colonies states the ground of its objection. If the colonial Parliament admit the force of his arguments, the matter is allowed to drop. If it remains unconvinced, the Home Government is usually content with having secured full discussion of the subject, and when Imperial interests are not involved, withdraws its opposition. Administrative collisions are more frequent than legislative collisions. It sometimes happens that a Ministry supported by a large majority presses, in the interest of its political party, a Governor to pursue some irregular course. A Governor is of course often compelled to sacrifice his own judgment, and if the irregularity be not actually illegal he must sooner or later give way. But his first duty is not to please his Ministers, but to maintain the law; and consequently if he is asked to do some unlawful act, he must at all hazards refuse to comply. If the colony really desire something forbidden by Imperial law—for its own laws it can of course alter at its pleasure—it must apply to the Imperial Parliament for a change in that law. When that change is made, but not before, the Governor is free to act. Thus in such a conflict he shifts the difficulty to his superior officer, and then the case comes within the limits of legislative collision. But such cases are very rare, if indeed they are not in modern times entirely unknown. In this way both in their legislation and in the administration of their own affairs, the inhabitants of the Australian Colonies have all the rights and all the powers that their countrymen at home possess in relation to purely domestic matters. The sole condition of this power is that they shall obey the laws which they have themselves made, or to which, as parts of a great complex community they are necessarily subject.—*Argus*.

T.

THOMSON, GORDON AUGUSTUS (1799—) is a native of Belfast in Ireland, and came to V. in 1836. He gives the following interesting account of Melbourne at that period:—"At the time I am now referring to, the principal residence, for so it must be called, in view of its special pretensions, which I will proceed to mention, was a small hut on Batman's Hill in which Batman himself resided. This hut had, as I remember, a brick chimney,

and I mention this particularly because the brick chimney was a conspicuous architectural feature in those days. Batman possessed not only a brick chimney, but a boarded floor in addition, an article of special luxury, as may be well imagined. Whether these things had anything to do with it, or whether it was entirely as a mark of general recognition of his comparative social standing in the new colony, he used to be generally spoken of and addressed as the Governor. A little further up the bank of the River Yarra Yarra there were a few wattle-and-daub huts, in which I remember that Dr. Thomson and his wife, Fawkner, Gellibrand, Buckley and some others lived, each man having a separate hut. As for myself I got my food from Dr. Thomson and his wife on the agreement to work for them, so that I used to call myself the hewer of wood and drawer of water to Melbourne, or rather, as we called it then, after the name of the River Yarra Yarra. Buckley, the "wild white man," who, as I have said was then living in the settlement had his hut and gun to himself, and could now speak English pretty well again—his powers of memory being re-awakened. He was at that time filling the post of interpreter between the whites and blacks, and the way an acquaintance was struck up between us was in this wise:—I was introduced to him as the bearer of a message for him from an hotelkeeper in Launceston who had been his fellow-prisoner, the purport of the message being a warm invitation to him to go over to Launceston and spend the remainder of his days (if he so pleased) in the house of his former mate in distress free of expense. From the fact perhaps of being the bearer of such an invitation and other causes combined, he and I soon made up somewhat of a bond of friendship, and often wandered out in the bush together to shoot or what not. On such occasions I used to draw him out as much as I could on the subject of his reminiscences and experiences of the native life. What he told me of his earlier days was that he and two other fellow-prisoners escaped from the ship which had brought out, as we know, the batch of convicts to these shores the evening before she set sail again from here to Hobart Town. Buckley and his two companions, who had appropriated a stock of provisions and useful articles from the ship's camp on shore, remained undiscovered—if search was made for them, but they seem rather not to have been missed, and appeared to have subsisted for some time in the bush together; but of the ultimate fate of the two companions I am ignorant. As regarded himself, Buckley told me that after being here some length of time, he was tired of life, and one day sitting down under a sheoak tree, longed for death. While thus sitting he fell off into a dose, and was awoke by the noise made by some native gins, who, during his sleep, had gathered around him, and were evincing their curiosity to one another. When they saw him awake they immediately scuttled off into the bush, and by-and-bye, while he was still lying there, a

number of their male relatives, to whom they had imparted the sight they had seen, came round him and asked him by signs where he came from. He, to make as favourable impression on them as possible, rose up from the ground, and pointing up to the sky, signified in the best pantomime that he could, that he had come down expressly from thence to visit them. They then made signs for him to follow them, and he did so, but in ignorance of their intentions towards him, although somewhat, in fact, expecting to be roasted, the more especially when he was led up to a large fire they had made. They merely, however, danced round the fire, singing their native songs, and then gave him a roasted possum to eat, which he told me was, without exception, the sweetest thing he ever ate in his life. With that same tribe he remained, becoming connected to them by marrying the daughter of a chief, and living more or less contentedly with them after their fashion, but having no descendants by his native bride. He told me that his general place of abode whilst with the natives was the trunk of a hollow tree, for house-building was not an aboriginal acquirement—the mia-mia or break-wind being the general extent of their efforts in that direction. He told me that the time thus passed by him amongst them was somewhere about thirty years, and other details which I do not now call to mind, and our intercourse remained on the same friendly footing till my departure for Hobart Town, when he came down to the vessel to say 'good-bye,' and taking a stone axe from his belt pressed it on me as a keepsake, telling me he had carried it for two-thirds of the time he had been among the natives. This was in the last week of June, and the vessel I am speaking of as the one that conveyed me in company with Gellibrand to Hobart Town was a cutter named the *Vansittart*, of about 80 tons burden, and besides us two there were only the crew on board. While referring to the aboriginal element I may as well mention here that the natives used to visit the settlement while I was staying there, and on one occasion I saw a corroboree amongst them, the women keeping time to the movements of the dance, or rather call it posturing of the men, by striking on opossum or other skins stretched across their knees. The men were covered with streaks of white paint in various patterns, and had girdles of opossum tails round their loins. The natives were very expert in the use of their spears, which they threw with much increase of power by aid of the leverage of a notched stick called by them the "Yoummaru." The target for these displays of skill was generally an old hat, and much dexterity and precision were shown in piercing its crown from sometimes considerable distances. During my stay in the settlement a rough map or plan of it was given to me, on which were marked out a number of allotments of land; the site of such allotments being on the south side of the river Yarra, but at no great distance. Some little time after this sketch

map was given to me I went down to Geelong by water in the cutter with Gellibrand, taking the map with me, and after surveying the harbour in a general manner, I added some outlines of the district to my map. To enable me to do so, in addition to my inspection of the harbour—of which, by-the-bye, I remarked at the time that it would be of no use on account of the bar there, which had then only about six feet of water on it. I made a hasty tour of the district, visiting and ascending amongst other places Station Peak. From its summit I observed to the westward a beautiful expanse of plain, which I entered on my plan as Lowwood Plains, giving it that name merely from old family association. I returned from Geelong by water to Melbourne, or rather as we used then to call the village—Yarra Yarra. There were many sales of land took place while I was here between the natives and Batman and the other whites. As far as I can remember the white purchasers were enrolled as or at all events called themselves a company. There were various documents drawn up with reference to these transfers or sales, and I remember that Gellibrand was the draftsman. I also remember being much struck at the time with the practical solution of the difficulty that presented itself as to how the natives should make their sign-manual of assent to the deed or deeds. The way it was done was this—Gellibrand having mixed up some lamp black and grease, and explained as he best could (through Buckley) the purport of his action to the native landowner, proceeded to black that native's hand with the mixture, and then placing the paper on some convenient block or tree, he guided the hand so prepared to the proper place on which to stamp its imprint; and thus did the native acknowledge that as his act and deed. My total stay in the settlement was about a month, and when about half that time had elapsed, I remember going out on an excursion with Gellibrand, the object we proposed to ourselves being to build a bridge over a river to the westward. It would be either the Saltwater or the Werribee, as I think, because it was only some two or three hours' journey to it from the settlement—as what is now Melbourne was then generally called in speaking of it. I was on horseback, and Gellibrand took charge of the bullock dray that conveyed our necessities, two ticket-of-leave men accompanying us. On the way I cantered off from the party a little, and so lost myself. I was much frightened, taking every bush for a native, or something else objectionable; but fortunately for myself, by dint of riding about, I came after a time across the tracks of the dray, and followed in the direction they were leading till I reached the banks of the river, and then came upon my party. We did not progress very far with the project we started out with, for as I am inclined to think the morning's light found our zeal frozen out of us. The excursion took place in the cold weather, in the month of June, and on

the evening of our arrival when we had chosen our camp we made our supper off damper and Irish pork washed down with water, for other liquor we had none in our canteen. At night-fall we made up a fine fire, but had nothing to lie upon but the bare ground, and very cold it was, with only a tarpaulin from the dray to cover us. The way Gellibrand and I contrived to get as much warmth as possible was to lie close together in the centre, and then flank ourselves with one of the ticket-of-leave men on either side of us. I had my saddle for a pillar, and for greater security to the flour and comfort to myself, I put the bag containing it inside the saddle. About the middle of the night my prisoner as I may call him got up—thinking as it appeared afterwards that it was much later—to make the damper for breakfast, and began looking for the flour-bag, which of course he could not find. His searching awoke me and hearing him muttering about the having no damper if there was no flour to make it with, I quickly handed over the flour-bag to him. But he then blighted my hopes about its approaching breakfast time by discovering from the face of the sky that he had miscalculated the time, and turning in again for another nap. When morning did come, on getting up we found the ground all covered with hoar frost, and as I have said somehow or other our bridge-building propensity had evaporated, and we returned as we came without putting a stroke to it. As an instance of the manner and mode of living in the settlement, I may mention that in Batman's house there was on the right hand of the hall door a small room which he called his parlour by day, but which was converted at night into a sleeping room by a feather bed being thrown down on the floor. Then there used to be a rush for tenancy, and the four or five fortunate enough to get first into the room flung themselves down in the clothes they stood upright in, and so established their claim to the dignities of civilisation while the others did without. I cannot from recollection say anything about the female part of the population, although of course some of the settlers had their families with them; but I remember Dr. Thomson's wife quite well, not only from as I have before said being their 'hewer of wood and drawer of water,' but also from the fact of a Scotch cousin relationship between us."

TRADE AND COMMERCE OF AUSTRALASIA.

The present century has been a time of rapid progress all over the world, but amongst its swiftest developments we question whether there are any to compare with the almost magical growth of Australasian commerce. Less than a hundred years ago a little fleet set out from England to found a convict settlement on the shores of New Holland. It arrived in February 1788, and after a short stay at Botany Bay moved on to Port Jackson, where the present city of Sydney was founded. Twelve years after the formation of the colony of New South Wales its population amounted to

between six and seven thousand people, but its commercial transactions were still of a very limited description, being mostly confined to the importation of the numerous articles required for the supply of the Government establishments and private wants. About that time steps were taken to establish the industry of wool-growing—an industry which, notwithstanding the great importance of other pursuits, has formed the backbone of Australasian trade. Never perhaps was the perseverance and energy of one man followed by greater results than those which sprang from Captain Macarthur's successful efforts to introduce merino sheep to southern pastures. That gentleman had the discerning eye which is genius of a certain sort. Having quitted the N.S.W. corps in disgust he turned settler, and within a very short time saw plainly that the country was admirably adapted to sheep. After some trouble he succeeded in procuring a few merinos, and his enterprise has borne the most astonishing fruit. It has been the means of showing how the greater portion of a territory almost as vast as Europe may be profitably occupied, pending the spread of population and of producing an article of commerce which adds millions annually to the wealth of the world, which keeps a considerable navy employed in its transport, and provides work for the hands and warm clothing for the backs of hundreds of thousands. In 1878 the imports of wool into Great Britain were valued at £23,128,234, and of this total Australasia contributed considerably over one-half. But while wool has been and must continue to form the staple of the Australian export trade many other articles are shipped in large quantities. The list is of a very diversified character and forms a marked contrast to the returns to be found in the official records of early days, before the discovery of gold had attracted population and given an impetus to enterprise. Amongst the products of pastoral industry we export, in addition to wool, tallow, hides, bones, horns, preserved meat, leather, butter, cheese, and artificial manures; agriculture furnishes extra-colonial markets with grain and flour, fruit, vegetables, hay, and wine; our mines and forests give gold, copper, tin, coal, kerosene shale, silver, antimony, building stone, timber, and mimosa bark; our seas produce pearl shell in abundance and *bêche de mer*; if there were only energy enough to "cast in the net," we might obtain fish in any quantity for preservation as food or reduction to oil; while our manufactures yield a variety of things which are gradually creating a moderate demand in various directions. Some idea may be formed of the extent of the Australian export trade apart from the great staple wool, from the following figures, taken from a return recently issued in Sydney. The total exports of articles the produce of N.S.W. and V. for the year 1879 is set down at £18,451,740. Of this amount wool represented £10,055,919, so that the other commodities we have mentioned were

valued at £8,396,823. In 1879 the total value of the Australasian trade (including N.Z.) was £88,655,639, the imports amounting to £47,378,783, and the exports to £41,276,856. The figures show a very considerable falling off from those of the previous year. In 1878 they were £94,742,703, £50,545,966, and £44,196,737 respectively. At first sight, and after making allowances for profits, these aggregates lead to the supposition that a balance is accumulating against us; but the excess of imports over exports is in some measure accounted for by the fact, that one or other of the provinces is a borrower every year, and the proceeds of the various loans have to be obtained from England in some shape. There is a considerable difference in the rate per head of imports and exports between the various colonies. As regards the former, N.S.W. heads the list with £19 17s. 8½d.; as regards the latter, S.A. with £18 13s. 5d. T. is the lowest in both, her imports per head being £11 7s. 11¼d., and her exports £11 13s. 11¼d. Taking imports and exports per head together, the colonies last year stood in the following order:—S.A., N.S.W., N.Z., W.A., V., Q., T. If, however, we ignore the element of population and arrange the colonies according to the total values of their trade, they stand thus:—V., £27,489,708; N.S.W., £27,285,666; N.Z., £14,117,711; S.A., £9,776,877; Q., £6,514,923; T., £2,568,572; W.A., £902,182. One of the most remarkable things about these figures is the rapid progress of N.S.W. Her population is 714,000, as against 888,000 in V., while her trade in 1879 was only £204,042 less. The parent colony, under a system of free trade, is advancing with giant strides, and it cannot be doubted that she will soon out-strip V. and all other Australasian competitors in the extent of her commercial operations. A few figures indicating the basis on which Australasian trade rests may be interesting. The total area of the seven colonies is 2,580,282 square miles, its mean population in 1879, 2,659,779; revenue, £15,927,488; trade import and export, £88,655,639; railways open, 4,338 miles, and in course of construction, 937 miles; telegraphs open, 26,841 miles, in course of erection, 1,388 miles; area under crop, 7,136,483 acres; horses, 1,064,640; cattle, 7,878,556; sheep, 65,914,236; pigs, 822,039; public debt, £77,896,183. Average rate per head of public debt, £28 13s. 8½d. According to the *Statesman's Year Book* the total imports and exports of Great Britain during 1878 were valued at £614,254,600. Of this trade, £40,428,000, or about one-fifteenth was done with the Australasian Colonies. We find that as regards imports into Great Britain these colonies were exceeded by the United States, France, British India and Germany in the order we have given them; but British India alone surpassed these colonies as a customer for British goods. The total trade with Canada was only £15,878,000, so that although the Dominion can boast a much larger population, Australasia is much more valuable to England in a commercial sense. But vast

as Australian commerce has become within a comparatively very brief space, it as yet a mere trifle to what it must grow to in time. Taking the colonies as a whole, they offer facilities for the production of every article that will grow either in tropical or temperate climes. In the northern parts of W.A., S.A. and Q. there are millions of acres that only need tillage in order to supply unlimited quantities of those articles of commerce which have hitherto been associated in the public mind with that portion of the "gorgeous East" which lies to the north of the equator. In future years, when capital and labour shall have joined hands with enterprise, the whole of the northern seaboard of this island continent will be dotted here and there with seaports, at which the merchant navies of the world will collect the tropical harvests of the back country in rich profusion—sugar and rice, and tea, coffee, indigo, fibre, and a multitude of other things which only flourish in the glowing heat of a nearly vertical sun. Sugar-growing is already carried on to a considerable extent in Q. and the northern parts of N.S.W., and we have little doubt that if some arrangement be made whereby coolie labour at moderate wages is brought within reach of the planters, A. will soon supply a considerable proportion of the sugar consumed in the world. The whole future of N.A. trade is bound up with the labour question. Although a few people of European descent can endure the climate and do a fair share of work without distress, it cannot be denied that the average temperature is above the point at which a white race can engage in field work with anything like efficiency and comfort. The question, then, is—shall tropical A. remain a mere grazing country, wholly given over to flocks and herds and the few bushmen needed to look after them, or shall it be utilised by coolie labour under English management, and made to yield its increase for the enrichment and comfort of mankind? Surely it would be selfish and short-sighted, not to say suicidal, policy for the colonies that possess the vast tropical regions alluded to, to condemn those portions of the world's surface to comparative sterility, because they cannot colonise them on exactly the same plan which answers well in more temperate climes. Under possible arrangements there would be no fear of coolie labour coming into competition with workmen of European origin or descent, and if these arrangements were once formulated in a way which effectually removed any apprehension on this point, we do not see why the development of N.A. should be long delayed. There are thousands of men in India and China fitted by Providence for tropical field work whose condition in life would be wonderfully improved could they find employment in N.A. under English planters. But though the agricultural settlement of N.A. on the only possible basis is likely to be delayed by ignorance or prejudice, it must take place at last, and within a few years of its becoming an

accomplished fact we shall see the trade of A. going forward by "leaps and bounds." Ceasing now to speak of tropical A. alone, we may say that the commercial resources of the colonies are not developed to the extent of one-thousandth part of their capacity. In years to come wine will be produced in immense quantities. Nowhere does the vine flourish more luxuriantly than with us. At present the quality of our vintages is by no means all that could be desired, but improvement will come with experience. Even now the bulk of our produce would answer admirably for mixing purposes, being far better than many of the common wines of Europe, and we believe it would long since have become an important article of commerce if enterprise in this direction had not been checked by the satisfactory nature of the profits obtainable in connection with commodities more familiar to English people. If the average value of labour should ever decline, we may look to see oil and silk also added to our exportable articles in commercial quantities, as there is an immense extent of country possessing all the natural qualities necessary for their growth. But after every acre shall have been brought into cultivation throughout the length and breadth of the land which labour and capital, placed under the most advantageous conditions by enlightened government, can possibly occupy, there will still remain for generations to come, millions of acres which the grazier alone can turn to good account. In the Australian Colonies at the present time there must be over eight millions of horned cattle and some seventy millions of sheep. These figures look large, but they will seem insignificant in a few years. There are enormous tracts of pastoral country in most of the provinces which have been taken up for speculative purposes but left untouched; while in W.A., S.A., and Q. there are whole districts of great size which can hardly be said to be settled at all. On one of his recent exploring expeditions Forrest penetrated into a region previously unknown, and added some twenty millions of acres to the available pastoral lands of the great western colony. If the process of transporting the carcasses of animals in a frozen state for long distances should prove a mercantile success, an enormous impetus will be given to the business of stock-raising and the meat trade will be one of the principal items in the Australasian commerce of the future. But it is not only what can be extracted from the earth in return for seed and cultivation which will go hereafter to swell the already goodly volume of Australian trade. There can be no doubt that every colony of the group is rich with mineral deposits of all sorts. Gold-mining is carried on profitably in the Northern Territory, Q., N.S.W., N.Z., T., and V. In 1879 N.S.W. exported £400,000 worth of the precious metal, and V. sent away £2,210,477. Neither of these sums, however, represents the quantity raised. But it is in the commoner though more useful metals that A. will find boundless

wealth, and a variety of commodities leading to an extension of interchange. Silver, copper, tin, lead and antimony are now raised and exported, but the mines from which the ores are extracted are those which have as it were forced themselves upon public notice. Hereafter we believe that A. will astonish the world by her contributions to its available mineral resources. Qualified men who have visited the northern portions of W.A. speak of them as abounding with mineral riches. In T. the first beginnings of mining enterprise have been rewarded by a large measure of success. Valuable deposits of tin have been discovered, and it is impossible to say what results may follow a systematic exploration of the mountainous country which has hitherto been neglected. In N.S.W. coal and iron abound, and copper is produced in large quantities. N.Z. also can boast possession of the two first-mentioned minerals, and others also. Q. is a country of vast potentialities in this respect. We can do no more than thus hint at the materials of commerce which in all the colonies lie hidden in the bowels of the earth. As yet they can hardly be said to have received anything like adequate attention. We have dwelt thus at length on the natural resources of these colonies, because on them of course depends the future of Australasian trade. Production lies at the root of all commerce—not that secondary production which results from the application of human labour in some form to the conversion of one article into another—but the production which adds fresh stores of raw material to the current wealth of the world, wherewith industry may busy itself in a thousand different ways. Nations at certain stages of their growth may prosper by performing the minor operation—as the manufacturing England of to-day is a proof—but we are not in a position to imitate her example, even if it were desirable that we should do so. As we cannot be a manufacturing people at present except in a minor degree, it is evident that the extent of our commercial dealings with the rest of the world must depend on the measure in which we are able to supply manufacturing countries with the raw materials of their industries. Nature, as we have seen, has endowed these colonies lavishly with natural resources, and has so done her part towards furnishing them with the primary requisites of trade. Nothing is needed to render our natural riches actually available but labour, capital, enterprise, and good government. It is within our power to command all these, and just in proportion to the use we make of our opportunities will be the growth and expansion of our commerce. We have said that the development of Australian trade as a whole has been something almost magical, and this is especially

true as regards V. The Hentys formed a whaling station at Portland in 1834, but the first attempt at regular settlement was made by Batman and Fawkner in the following year. In 1836 a census showed the white population of the Port Phillip district to be 186 males and 38 females, or 224 in all. In March 1837 Sir Richard Bourke, the Governor-General, arrived in H.M.S. *Rattlesnake*, and four months after his appearance the first land sale was held in Melbourne. In January 1839 the barque *Thomas Laurie* of 300 tons, W. B. Price master, sailed for London. She was the first vessel which left Port Phillip bound direct for a European port; and in addition to a mail she took away 400 bales of wool, valued at £6500. In the following June the barque *Midlothian*, George Morrison master, from Leith put in an appearance, being the first ship to open a direct trade with the infant settlement. On the same day the *William Bryan*, Roman master, from London *via* Circular Head and Launceston, passed up the bay; and to show how little then was known of the navigation, we may mention that both vessels grounded. In the second year of the existence of the colony 750,000lbs. of wool were exported, and we see that at the same time the estimate formed of the next clip was 15,000,000lbs.—a quantity said to be sufficient to load fifteen ships of the size then mostly employed in the trade. The customs revenue collected in the Port Phillip district in 1838 was as follows:—

Duty on spirits imported	... £876 15 8
Do. on tobacco 801 2 0
Do. ad valorem on foreign goods,	
5 per cent. 169 15 0
Wharfage 265 11 8
Fees on entry and clearance of	
vessels 136 13 6
Total ...	£2239 17 10

Passing over an interval of forty-one years we come to a very different state of affairs. In 1879 the imports were valued at £15,035,538, the duty on which amounted to £1,436,343 4s. 4d., while the exports were put down at £12,454,170. The transshipments in the same year (not included in the imports or exports) were valued at £1,914,884. The registered tonnage of the shipping inwards was 963,087; of which 176,488 tons came from the United Kingdom, 652,219 from Australian ports, and 133,380 from other countries. The outward tonnage was 977,135 tons, of which 126,481 tons were cleared for the United Kingdom, 729,631 for other Australian Colonies, and 121,023 for other ports. The pilotage paid was £21,530. —*Argus*.

INDEX.

I N D E X .

A.		PAGE
ABBOTT, MAJOR	1	Anderson's Inlet 9
A'Beckett, T. T.	1	Andrews, E. W. 9
A'Beckett, Sir W.	1	Andrews, R. B. 9
Aborigines	1-4	Angas, G. F. 9-11
Acclimatisation Society	4	Angora Goats 11
Adam Bay	5	Ann Island 11
Addison	5	Anti-Transportation League 11
Adelaide	5	Antill Ponds 11
Adelaide, Port	6	Anxious Bay 11
Adelaide River	6	Apollo Bay 11
Adelong River	6	Apsley River 11
Admiralty Gulf	6	Arapiles, Mount 11
Adventure Bay	6	Ararat 11
Age, Newspaper	6	Archer, W. H. 12
Agricultural Societies	7	Argus, Newspaper 12
Ahuriri Plains	7	Armidale 13
Akaroa	7	Arney, Sir G. 13
Albany	7	Arnold, W. M. 13
Albany Isles	7	Arnheim Land 13
Albatross Islands	7	Arthur, Sir G. 13
Albert River	7	Arthur's Seat 14
Albert, Lake	7	Ashburton River 14
Albuera	7	Aspinall, B. C. 14
Albury	7	Atkins, R. 14-16
Aldis Peak	7	Auckland 16
Alexander, Mount	7	Auckland 16
Alexandra	8	Auckland Islands 16
Alexandra Land	8	Augusta, Port 16
Alexandrina, Lake	8	Austin, R. 16
Alfred, Prince	8	Anstraliasia 17
Allen, George	8	Australia 17-25
Allen, Sir G. W.	8	Australia Del Espiritu Santo 26
Allen Island	8	Australia Felix 26
Alligator, East	8	Australian Agricultural Company 26
Allman, Captain	9	Australian Alps 26
Alma River	9	Australian Bight 26
Alpacas	9	Australian Pyrenees 26
Alt	9	Australind 26
Amby River	9	Avoca 26
Anderson, Joseph	9	Avon, River 26
		Ayers, Sir H. 27

		PAGE	
B.			
BABBAGE, B. H.	27	Beames Brook	43
Backhouse, James	27	Bedout Island	43
Backstairs Passage	27	Bedout, Cape	43
Baird Plains	27	Beechworth	43
Baker, E. A.	27	Beete, Captain	44
Balboa, N. D.	28	Belangla, Mountain	44
Ballance, John	28	Belfast	44
Ballarat	28	Bell River	44
Ballarat Riots	29-32	Bell, J. P.	44
Ballina	32	Belmore, Earl of	44
Balonne River	32	Belyando River	44
Bampton and Alt	32	Benalla	44
Banking in Australia	33	Bendigo Diggings	44
Banks, Sir J.	33	Bennett, George	44
Bannister, S.	33	Bennett, Samuel	45
Bargo River	33	Bent, J. H.	45
Barker, Captain C.	33	Bent, A.	45
Barker, Dr. E.	33	Berkley, George	45
Barker, Frederick	33	Berlin	45
Barkly, Sir Henry	33	Bernier Island	45
Barlee, Frederick P.	34	Bernier Cape	45
Barlow, Captain	34	Berrima	45
Barmouth Bay	34	Berry, Alexander	45
Barnard Islands	34	Berry, Graham	45
Barnard Mount	34	Bethanga	46
Barney, Col. R. E.	34	Bickerton Island	46
Barreiller, Lieut.	34	Bigge, J. T.	46
Barrier Reef	34	Billabong	46
Barrington, G.	34	Bindon, S. H.	46
Barrington River	34	Birds of Australia	47
Barrow Island	34	Birds of New Zealand	48
Barrow's Valley	34	Bishop, Captain	49
Barrow, Mount	34	Black, George	49
Barry, Sir R.	34 and 765	Black, Neil	49
Bass, George	35-36	Blackall, Col. S. W.	50
Bass Straits	36	Black Thursday	50
Batavia River	36	Black War	50
Bateman Bay	36	Black Wednesday	51
Bates, William	36	Blackwood, Captain	51
Bathurst	37	Blackwood River	51
Bathurst Bay	37	Black Pyramid	51
Bathurst Island	37	Blair, David	51
Bathurst, Lake	37	Bland, William	52
Bathurst Plains	38	Bland Plains	52
Batman, John	38-42	Blaxland, G.	52
Baudin, Nicholas	42	Bligh, W.	52
Baudin Rocks	42	Blue Mountains	53
Bauer, Cape	42	Blyth, Sir A.	54
Baxter, John	42	Blythe River	55
Bay of Inlets	42	Bogan River	55
Bay of Islands	42	Bengaree, King	55
Bayley, L. H.	43	Bonwick, James	55
Bayly, N. P.	43	Booby Island	55
Beagle Bank	43	Boomerang	55
		Boorowa River	55
		Bora	55
		Borda Cape	56

	PAGE		PAGE
Boree	56	Butler, Edmund	
Botany Bay	56	Buzacott, C. H.	71
Boucaut, J. P.	57	Byrne, Robert	71
Bougainville, L. A. De	57	Byron, Cape	71
Bountiful Islands	57		
<i>Bounty</i> , Mutiny of the	57	C.	
Bourke, Sir R.	57		
Bourke	58	CADELL, FRANCIS	72
Bowen, John	58	Cairns, Adam	72
Bowen	59	Cairns, W. W.	72
Bowen, Sir G. F.	59	Calvert, J. S.	72
Bowenfels	59	Calvert River	72
Bower Bird	59	Cambridge Gulf	73
Boyd, Benjamin	59	Camden	73
Boyd Town	60	Camden Haven	73
Boyne	60	Camden Valley	73
Braidwood	60	Cameron, Sir D.	73
Bremer, Sir G.	61	Campbell Lake	73
Bremer River	61	Campbell, Murdoch	73
Bremer Port	61	Campbell, William	73
Bridgewater, Cape and Bay	61	Canterbury	74
Brisbane	61	Capes	75
Brisbane, Sir J.	61	Carcoar	75
Brisbane River	61	Carey, Major-General	75
Brisbane, Sir T. M.	62	Carnot Bay	76
Brisbane Water	62	Carpentaria, Gulf of	76
Brodribb, W. A.	62	Carpenter, Peter	76
Brogden	63	Carstens, James	76
Brogden's River	63	Casey, J. J.	76
Broken Bay	63	Castlemaine	76
Brookdale	63	Castlereagh Bay	76
Brooke's Island	63	Castlereagh River	76
Bromby, C. H.	63	Catastrophe Cape	77
Bromby, J. E.	63	Cayley's Repulse	77
Broughton, W. G.	63	Central Mount Stuart	77
Browne, Sir T. G.	63	Chambers River	77
Bruce, Lieut.-Col. J.	64	Champion Bay	77
Bruce, George	64	Channel, Armstrong's	77
Bruni Island	64	Chapman, H. S.	77
Brunswick Bay	64	Chapman, T. D.	77
Brush Turkey	64	Chappell Islands	77
Buccaneer's Archipelago	65	Charters Towers	77
Buckland	65	Chatham Islands	77
Buckley, William	65	Cheeke Alfred	77
Budd, R., H.	766	Childers, H. C. E.	78
Buniuyong	66	Childs, Major	78
Burdekin River	66	Chinese Immigrants	78
Burke, R. O'Hara	66-69	Chinese in Carpentaria	78
Burnett, J. C.	69	Chisholm, Caroline	78-80
Burnett River	69	Christchurch	80
Burns, J. F.	69	Churchill Island	81
Burra Burra Mine	70	Chute, Sir Trevor	81
Burraborang Valley	70	Circular Head	81
Burton, Sir W. W.	70	Claremont Isles	81
Bush	71	Clarence River	81
Bushranging	71	Clarence Straits	81
Bustard Bay	71	Clarke	81

	PAGE		PAGE
Direction Cape	103	Farnell, J. S.	113
Dirk Hatches	104	Farquhar Inlet	113
Disappointment, Mount	104	Faucett, Peter	113
Discovery Bay	104	Fauna of Australia	114-116
Dividing Range	104	Favenc, Ernest	116
Dixon	104	Fawkner, J. P.	116-120
Docker, J.	104	Featherstone, Dr. I. E.	120
Donaldson, Sir S. A.	104	Fellows, T. H.	120
Double Island Point	105	Fergusson, Sir J.	120
Douglas, Benjamin	105	Fernshawe	121
Douglas, John	105	Fern Tree Gully	121
Dowling, Sir J.	105	Field, Baron	121
Drama in Australia	105	Field's Plains	121
Draper, D. J.	105	Fielding, Colonel	121
Driver, Richard	105	Fiji Islands	121-124
Dry, Sir R.	106	Finniss, B. T.	124
Dryander, Mount	106	Finke River	125
Du Cane, Charles	106	First Fleet	125
Duffy, Sir C. G.	106	Fisher, Sir J. H.	125
Dugong	106	Fitzgerald, Capt. C.	125
Dunedin	107	Fitzgerald, Nicholas	126
Dungog	107	Fitzgerald, J. E.	126
Dunolly	108	Fitzherbert, Sir W.	126
D'Urban's Group	108	Fitzpatrick, M.	126
Du Sejour Cape	108	Fitzroy, Captain	126
Dutch Navigators	108	Fitzroy, Sir C.	126
Dutton, Francis	109	Fitzroy Downs	127
		Fitzroy Island	127
		Fitzroy River	127
		Five Islands	127
		Flanagan, R.	127
		Flattery, Cape	127
		Flinders, Matthew	127-131
		Flinders Bay	131
		Flinders Group	131
		Flinders Point	131
		Flinders Island	131
		Flinders River	131
		Flora of Australia	132-135
		Forbes, Sir F.	135
		Forbes, F. A.	135
		Forbes River	135
		Forestier's Peninsula	135
		Forrest, Alexander	135
		Forrest, John	136
		Forster Mountain	137
		Forster, William	137
		Fort Bourke	137
		Fortescue Bay	137
		Fortescue River	137
		Fort O'Hare	137
		Foster, J. F. L.	137
		Foster, W. J.	138
		Foveaux, Joseph	138
		Foveaux Strait	138
		Fowler's Bay	138
		Francis, J. G.	139
E.			
EAGAR, GEOFFREY	109		
Ebden, C. H.	109		
Echuea	109		
Eclipse Isles	110		
Edwards, Captain	110		
Eendracht's Land	110		
Elder, Sir T.	110		
Elkington, J. S.	110		
Ellenborough River	110		
Ellery, Robert	110		
Encounter Bay	110		
Endeavour River	110		
Endeavour Strait	110		
Escape River	110		
Esperance Bay	111		
Essington Port	111		
Evans, G. W.	111		
Evans's Crown	111		
Eyre, E. J.	111		
Eyre's Creek	113		
Eyre's Peninsula	113		
F.			
FAIRFAX, JOHN	113		
Fallon, J. T.	113		
Falmouth	113		

	PAGE		PAGE
Franklin, Sir J.	139-141	Goulburn River	158
Franklin Harbour	141	Goulburn Vale	158
Franklin Islands	141	Goulburn Plains	158
Fraser Mountain	141	Gould, John	158
Frazer's Island	141	Governor King's Bay	158
Frederik Hendrik Bay	142	Govett's Leap	158
Freeling, [—]	142	Goyder, G. W.	158
Freemantle	142	Grafton	158
Freemantle, Captain	142	Grampian Mountains	159
French Island	142	Grant, James	159
Freycinet, M.	142	Grant, J. M.	159
Frome, Captain	142	Gregory, A. C.	159
Fryer's Town	142	Gregory, F. T.	160
Furneaux, Captain T.	142-144	Grey, Sir George	161
Furneaux Island	144	Griffith, S. W.	162
Fyans, Captain F.	144	Grimes, Charles	162
G.		Groote Eylandt	162
GABO ISLAND	144	Grose, Major F.	162
Gage's Road	144	Grose River	162
Gambier, Mount	144	Guard, John	162
Gambier Isles	144	Guichen Bay	163
Gascoyne River	144	Gun Island	163
Gawler, Colonel G.	144	Gundagai	163
Gawler, Henry	144	Gurner, H. F.	163
Gawler, Port	145	Gympie	164
Gawler River	145	H.	
Gawler Range	145	HACKING, POINT	164
Geelong	145	Hack, J. B.	164
Geils, Colonel	146	Haggerstone Island	164
Gellibrand, J. T.	146	Haines, W. C.	164
Gelvink Channel	147	Hale, Bishop	165
Geographe Strait	147	Halifax Bay	165
Geographe Shoals	147	Hamilton, Captain	165
George, Lake	147	Hamilton	165
George Town	147	Hannibal Islands	165
Gilbert River	147	Hanover Bay	165
Giles, Ernest	147	Hanson, Sir R. D.	165
Gillies, Duncan	148	Hardwicke Mountains	166
Gipps, Sir G.	148	Hardwicke Bay	166
Gippsland	149	Hargrave, J. F.	166
Gisborne Mount	150	Hargreaves, E. H.	166
Gladstone	150	Harker, George	166
Glass House Mountains	150	Harper, Bishop	167
Glenelg River	150	Harrington Inlet	167
Glennie's Islands	150	Harris Mountain	167
Gold Discoveries	150-156	Hartley	167
Goldie, Andrew	156	Harvest, Lieut.-Col.	168
Goldsworthy, R. J.	157	Hastings River	168
Goodenough, Commodore	157	Hawkesbury River	168
Goold, Archbishop	157	Hay	168
Gordon, Sir A. H.	157	Hay, Sir J.	168
Gosse, W. C.	157	Hayes, John	169
Goulburn	158	Hayes, Sir Henry	169

	PAGE
Hayter, H. H.	169
Heales, Richard	170
Hearn, W. E.	170
Henty, Edward	170
Herbert, Robert G. W.	171
Herschell Range	171
Hervey Range	171
Higinbotham, George	171
Hill, W. K.	172
Hindmarsh, Sir J.	172
Hindmarsh Lake	173
Hindmarsh Island	173
Hobart Town	173
Hobson, William	174
Hobson's Bay	174
Hocking, H. H.	174
Hodgson, Sir A.	174
Holdfast Bay	174
Holroyd, A. T.	174
Holt, Joseph	175
Hopeless Mount	175
Hopkins River	175
Hotham, Sir C.	175-178
Houtman's Abrolhos	178
Hovell, W. H.	178
Howe, George	178
Howe, Michael	178
Howick's Group	178
Howitt, A. W.	178
Hume, Hamilton	179
Hume River	179
Hunter, Captain J.	179
Hunter River	180
Hunter Island	180
Huon River	180
Hurdspic	181
Hutt	181

I.

ILLAWARRA	181
Imlay, G. A. and P.	181
Imlay Mount	181
Indented Head	182
Indian Head	182
Innes, F. M.	182
Innes, J. G. L.	182
Inspection Hill	182
Invercargill	182
Investigator Group	182
Investigator Strait	182
Investigator Road	182
Ipswich	182
Ireland, R. D.	183
Irwin River	183
Irwin, Lieut.-Col.	183

J.

	PAGE
JACKSON, WILLIAM	183
Jackson, Port	183
Jacobsz, Francis	183
Jacky Jacky	183
Jaffa Cape	183
Jamieson's Valley	183
Jardine, F. L., and A.	183
Jason Mount	183
Jeffcott, William	183
Jervis Cape	183
Jervis Bay	183
Jervois, W. F. D.	184
Johnson, R.	184
Johnston, George	185
Johnston, R.	185
Jones, Richard	186
Jordan River	186
Jorgenson, Jorgen	186

K.

KANGAROO	186
Kangaroo Grass	187
Kangaroo Island	187
Kapunda Mines	187
Keerweer Cape	188
Kelly Gang	188-190
Kempt, J. H.	190
Kennedy, Edmund	190
Kennedy, Sir A. E.	191
Kent's Group	191
Kerferd, G. B.	191
Kermadec, Huon De	192
King, P. G.	192
King, P. P.	192
King, P. G.	193
King, John	193
King George's Sound	193
King George's Sound (2)	193
Kingower	194
King's Island	194
King's Table Land	194
Kingston, Sir G.	766
Knopwood, Robert	194
Korangimite Lake	194
Kosciusko, Mount	195
Kreffft, J. L. G.	195

L.

LACEPEDE ISLANDS	195
Lachlan River	195
Lackey, John	196
Lady Julia Percy Island	196
Lalor, Peter	196

[illegible]

	PAGE		PAGE
Seven Emu River	513	Stow, R. I.	559
Seymour	513	Strzelecki, Count Paul	559
Shark's Bay	513	Strzelecki Range	560
Shaw's Peak	513	Stuart, Alexander	560
Sheehan, John	513	Stuart, J. M.	560
Sheil, Bishop	513	Sturt, Charles	562-566
Shillinglaw, J. J.	513	Stokes, J. L.	566
Shoalhaven	513	Sudds and Thompson	566
Shoalhaven River	513	Sugar Growing in Australia	566-569
Short, Bishop	514	Sullivan's Cove	569
Shortland, Lieut. J.	514	Summers, Charles	569
Shortland's Bluff	514	Surville, Captain De	569
Sinnett, F.	514	Sutherland, John	569
Sir Charles Hardy's Island	514	Sutherland Point	569
Sir Everard Home's Islands	514	Sutton, Sir J. H. M.	570
Sir James Smith's Group	514	Suttor, G	570
Sir Joseph Bank's Group	514	Suttor, F. B.	570
Sir William Grant Cape	514	Suttor, W. H.	570
Skene, J. A.	514	Swan Island	570
Skirmish Point	515	Swan River	570
Sladen, Sir Charles	515	Sweer's Island	572
Smith, Sir Francis	515	Sydney	572-582
Smith, John	515		
Smith, J. T.	515		
Smoky Cape	516		
Smyth, R. Brough	516		
Smythesdale	516		
Snodgrass, Kenneth	516		
Sofala	516		
Solander, D. C.	516		
Sorell, Colonel W.	517		
South Australia	517-547		
Southland	547		
Spectacle Island	548		
Spencer's Gulf	548		
Squatter	548-552		
St. Arnaud	552		
St. George's Head	553		
St. Julian, C. J. H.	553		
St. Vincent's Gulf	553		
Standish, F. C.	553		
Stanton, Bishop	553		
Station Peak	553		
Stawell, Sir W. F.	553		
Stawell	554		
Stenhouse, N. D.	554		
Stephen, Sir A.	554		
Stephen, Sir G.	555		
Stephen, J. W.	556		
Stephens, T. B.	557		
Stewart Island	557		
Stirling, Sir J.	557		
Stony Desert	558		
Storm Bay	559		
Stout, Robert	559		
Stow, T. Q.	559		
Stow, J. P.	559		
		T.	
		TAMAR RIVER	582
		Tambaroorra	582
		Tamworth	582
		Taiari	582
		Taranaki	582-586
		Tasman, A. J.	586
		Tasmania	588-632
		Tasman's Head	632
		Tasman's Island	632
		Tasman's Peninsula	632
		Tayan Mountain	632
		Taylor's Island	632
		Tebbutt, John	632
		Termination Island	632
		Thakombau	632
		Therry, Sir Rodger	632
		Thierry, Baron De	633
		Thirsty Sound	634
		Thistle Island	634
		Thomas, Mesac	634
		Thomas, W. K.	634
		Thomson, Sir E. D.	634
		Thomson, G. A.	775
		Thompson, J. M.	635
		Thomson River	635
		Thorn, George	635
		Thornton, S.	635
		Thursday Island	636
		Todd, Charles	636
		Toowoomba	636
		Torrens, Sir R. R.	637

T.

TAMAR RIVER	582
Tambaroora	582
Tamworth	582
Taieri	582
Taranaki	582-586
Tasman, A. J.	586
Tasmania	588-632
Tasman's Head	632
Tasman's Island	632
Tasman's Peninsula	632
Tayan Mountain	632
Taylor's Island	632
Tebbutt, John	632
Termination Island	632
Thakombau	632
Therry, Sir Rodger	632
Thierry, Baron De	633
Thirsty Sound	634
Thistle Island	634
Thomas, Mesac	634
Thomas, W. K.	634
Thomson, Sir E. D.	634
Thomson, G. A.	775
Thompson, J. M.	635
Thomson River	635
Thoru, George	635
Thornton, S.	635
Thursday Island	636
Todd, Charles	636
Toowoomba	636
Torrens, Sir R. R.	637

[illegible]

INDEX TO SUPPLEMENT.

B.		N.	
	PAGE		PAGE
Barry, Sir Redmond	765	New Caledonia	770
Budd, Richard Hale	766		
C.		O.	
		Ormond, Francis	772
Clarke, Marcus	766		
K.		P.	
		Parker, Sir Henry	772
Kingston, Sir George	766	Pitcairn Island	772
M.		R.	
		Responsible Government in Australia	773
		T.	
Macdonnell, Sir R. G.	767	Thomson, Gordon Augustus	775
Malay Archipelago	767-770	Trade and Commerce of Australasia	777-780

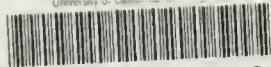
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